



World Justice
Project

DISPARITIES, VULNERABILITY, AND HARNESSING DATA FOR PEOPLE-CENTERED JUSTICE

WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II

DISPARITIES, VULNERABILITY,
AND HARNESSING DATA FOR
PEOPLE-CENTERED JUSTICE

WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Disparities, Vulnerability, and Harnessing Data for People-Centered Justice: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II was produced by the World Justice Project under the executive direction of Elizabeth Andersen.

Authors and Conceptual Design

Daniela Barba and Alejandro Ponce.

Data Analysis

Kathryn Grace Hulseman and Santiago Pardo (Leads), Daniela Barba, Lauren Littlejohn, Gustavo Núñez, Alejandro Ponce, Hannah Rigazzi, Natalia Rodríguez Cajamarca, and Carlos Toruño Paniagua.

Editorial Production

Daniela Barba (Lead), Gustavo Núñez and Hannah Rigazzi (Co-Leads), Lloyd Cleary, James Davis, Christine Detz, Allyse Feitzinger, Kathryn Grace Hulseman, Alejandro Ponce, and Victoria Thomaidés. The WJP would like to thank Andrew Mash for his help line editing Part II of this series.

Data Visualization

Mariana López, Raquel Medina, Ana María Montoya, Santiago Pardo, and Carlos Toruño Paniagua.

Graphic Design

Mariana López, Raquel Medina, and Enrique Paulin.

The cover of this report is an original design by Raquel Medina.

The findings in this report are taken from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* within the General Population Poll (GPP) conducted for the World Justice Project in 2017, 2018, 2019, 2021, 2022, and 2023. The access to justice module of the GPP was developed by Sarah Chamness Long and Alejandro Ponce with input and guidance from an advisory stream of expert stakeholders convened by the Open Society Justice Initiative (OSJI) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which included representatives of the Centre for

Empirical Legal Studies at University College London; Departamento Nacional de Planeación, Colombia; the United States Department of Justice; The Hague Institute for Innovation of Law (HiIL); Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, México; Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Cabo Verde; Law and Justice Foundation of New South Wales, Australia; Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos, Argentina; Statistics South Africa; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); and the World Bank.

Data collection for and development of the iterations of the GPP used for this report were conducted by Alicia Evangelides, Joshua Fuller, Nora Futtner, Camilo Gutiérrez Patiño, Sarah Chamness Long, Rachel Martin, Ana María Montoya, Alejandro Ponce, Tanya Primiani, Natalia Rodríguez Cajamarca, Adriana Stephan, Victoria Thomaidés, and Moss Woodbury.

This report partially builds on the methodology developed and used in WJP's 2019 report *Measuring the Justice Gap*.

This report was made possible by the generous support of the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, Pathfinders for Peaceful, Just and Inclusive Societies, the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and New York University. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the funder or the pass-through-entity.

© Copyright 2023 by the World Justice Project.

Requests to reproduce this document should be sent to:

Alejandro Ponce

World Justice Project
1025 Vermont Avenue NW, Suite 1200
Washington, DC 20005, USA
Email: aponce@worldjusticeproject.org

WASHINGTON, DC OFFICE

1025 Vermont Avenue, Suite 1200
Washington, DC 20005, USA
P 202 407 9330 | F 202 747 5816

 worldjusticeproject.org

 facebook.com/thewjp/

 x.com/TheWJP

TABLE OF CONTENTS

4	ABOUT THIS REPORT	36	VI: THE INSTITUTIONAL VIEW OF JUSTICE PROVISION
5	Executive Summary	38	The Capacity and Integrity of Justice Institutions
8	Introduction	39	VII: ACCESS TO JUSTICE AND THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC
	THEMATIC FINDINGS	42	Institutional Response to Civil and Criminal Justice Needs Before and After COVID-19
11	I: GENDER-BASED DISPARITIES IN ACCESS TO JUSTICE	46	VIII: A DATA ECOSYSTEM FOR PEOPLE-CENTERED JUSTICE
13	Gender Inequality and Access to Justice	49	People-Centered Justice as a Data-Driven Effort
18	II: WEALTH INEQUITY IN ACCESS TO JUSTICE	50	PROJECT DESIGN
20	Wealth-Based Inequality and Access to Justice	51	Methodology
23	III: LEGAL VULNERABILITY AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE	58	APPENDIX
25	Legal Vulnerability Around the World	59	Appendix
27	Legal Vulnerability and Inequality	82	About the WJP
29	IV: INFORMAL JUSTICE AND ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION MECHANISMS	83	Related Publications
31	A Global Overview of Informal Justice and Alternative Dispute Resolution Mechanisms	84	ENDNOTES
32	V: CRIME PREVENTION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE NEEDS		
34	Available Data on Victimization and Reporting of Crime		

| ABOUT THIS REPORT

5 Executive Summary

8 Introduction

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The World Justice Project (WJP) has produced the *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I and II*,* a comprehensive statistical analysis based on the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*, and other sources. This report, Part II in the series, focuses on two primary audiences: first, the stakeholders that operate on the global stage, to continue making the case for people-centered justice at that level; and, second, stakeholders operating at the country level in order to inform policymaking. To this end, the *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report* presents its findings at the country level, which are then aggregated to provide global messages on the status of access to justice.

In a nutshell, the *Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I*¹ presents an analysis of the population-based incidence and severity of legal problems at the country level. It is also a stocktake of Indicator 16.3.3 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for 62 countries; country-level estimates of the justice gap for 104 countries; and an enhanced national analysis of the economic costs of legal problems in terms of gross domestic product (GDP). The *Disparities, Vulnerability, and Harnessing Data for People-Centered Justice: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II*:

» Examines survey data from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* and the *WJP General Population Poll*.² The report provides global insights into how justice policies might be targeted most effectively. These insights were gained by examining the justice needs and drivers of legal vulnerability of people marginalized because of their gender and level of wealth:

1. Gender disparities in the prevalence of legal problems depend on the type of dispute and overall level of gender inequality in the country.

- In three-quarters of the countries surveyed, women experience more family-related legal problems than men (**Chart 1.1**).
- Legal problems that occur in the public sphere—those related to employment, money and debt, and land and property—are less frequent for women in almost all countries with high levels of gender inequality (71%–89% of countries) (**Chart 1.1**).

2. Women are less likely to resolve their legal problems and more likely to face hardships.

- Women face greater barriers to justice than men in nearly 70% of countries (**Chart 1.2**).
- Women face more hardships because of their legal problems in over half (62%) the countries (**Chart 1.3**).

3. Wealth-based inequality in the prevalence of legal problems is widespread.

- In 70% of the countries, people living in poverty experience more legal problems than those who are not living in poverty (**Chart 2.1**).

4. Poverty and informality overlap.

- In around 70% of the countries, people living in poverty are more likely to experience legal problems that occur outside of formal processes and institutions or the formal economy, such as threats from debt collectors or becoming homeless (**Chart 2.2**).

* The full titles for the reports in this series are *Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I* and *Disparities, Vulnerability, and Harnessing Data for People-Centered Justice: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II*.

5. There is a **wealth-based disparity in access to justice** and **legal problems reinforce the poverty trap**.
 - People living in poverty encounter greater barriers to obtaining justice in nearly 90% of countries (**Chart 2.3**).
 - People living in poverty suffer greater hardships as a result of their legal problems in 82% of the countries (**Chart 2.4**).

6. Women and people living in poverty more frequently lack official documents, which puts them at a **higher risk of being denied their legal rights**.
 - Women have less access than men to proof of housing or land tenure in 70% of the countries (**Chart 4.1**).
 - More women than men lack official proof of identity in most (80% of) countries with high overall levels of gender inequality (**Chart 4.1**).
 - People living in poverty more frequently lack proof of housing or land tenure in nearly all (94%) the countries. Similarly, people living in poverty more frequently lack official proof of identity in more than two-thirds (70%) of the countries (**Chart 4.2**).

- » The *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II* also examines the global landscape of the use of informal and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms.

7. People resort to a plurality of pathways to justice that include **informal justice institutions** and **alternative dispute resolution mechanisms**.
 - In 40% of the countries surveyed, at least half the people who accessed a dispute resolution mechanism relied on an informal or an alternative dispute resolution mechanism (**Chart 5.1**).

- » Looking at **victimization** and **reporting of criminal justice outcomes**, on which there is more standardized data available, this report finds:
 8. In over a quarter (27%) of countries with data available, five in every 100 people have been victims of burglary. However, only around half of those victimized reported the crime (**Chart 6.1**).³
 - In Latin America, the victim threshold of 5% is reached in 33% of countries rather than 27% and the reporting rate is lower: only four in every ten people report a burglary.⁴

 9. In more than a quarter (27%) of reporting countries, around three percent of people are victims of assault (**Chart 6.2**). Of those assaulted, only one-third report the assault.⁵
 - Violent crime is particularly serious in Latin America, where around one-third of murders take place annually.⁶

- » This report explores the supply side of access to justice as measured in the *WJP Rule of Law Index*[®] 2023 and compares the relevant scores before and after the COVID-19 pandemic.

10. The supply of justice services is not keeping pace with the demand for justice solutions. The **effectiveness of the civil and criminal justice systems has deteriorated in many countries.**

- Factor 7: Civil Justice in the Index is the area that deteriorated in the most countries: two out of three countries experienced a decline in this indicator between 2022 and 2023 (**Chart 7.1**).
- Factor 8: Criminal Justice fell in 56% of countries in the same period (**Chart 7.2**).

11. The COVID-19 **pandemic posed a major challenge** to the civil and criminal justice systems. Between 2020 and 2022:

- 75% of countries and jurisdictions saw declines in the overall effectiveness of their civil justice systems (**Chart 8.2**).
- 67% of countries and jurisdictions saw declines in the effectiveness of their criminal justice systems (**Chart 8.3**).

» Finally, the report provides evidence of the developing state of data collection on justice outcomes and proposes steps to consolidate a data ecosystem equipped for people-centered criminal and civil justice policies.

12. A coordinated, **multistakeholder effort to construct a robust data collection ecosystem** will be essential.

- Only five countries officially measure and report on Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Indicator 16.3.3 (**Chart 9.1**).
- Of the 108 countries where legal needs surveys have been conducted, only 14 have collected official data on civil justice needs (**Chart 9.2**).
- As for criminal justice needs, just under one in four (24%) countries or jurisdictions have reported data on victimization and the reporting of burglary as a type of non-violent crime (**Chart 6.1**).⁷
- Regarding violent crime, only 22% of countries or jurisdictions (49) have produced and published data on victimhood and reporting assault (**Chart 6.2**).⁸

INTRODUCTION

As part of the World Justice Project's (WJP) commitment to the Justice Action Coalition, this report is the second installment of the *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report*, an effort to quantitatively depict the current state of access to justice worldwide. The report aims to inform and shape the global justice narrative in 2023 and beyond, with the intention of achieving justice for all by 2030. Thus, the report focuses on two primary audiences: first, the stakeholders that operate on the global stage, to continue making the case for people-centered justice at that level; and second, the stakeholders that operate at the country level, in order to inform policymaking.

In summary, the *Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I*,^{*9} which was shared in the context of the 2023 High-Level Political Forum:

- Investigates the main patterns of legal problems experienced by people, looking at how countries' economic development affects problem severity and prevalence, and how problems may co-occur or trigger each other.
- Operationalizes SDG Indicator 16.3.3 by providing a non-official baseline of the percentage of the population in 62 countries with access to a dispute resolution mechanism. The report also estimates the inverse of SDG Indicator 16.3.3, finding that in seven out of every ten countries observed, at least 62% of the population with legal problems who needed access to a dispute resolution mechanism could not find one.
- Estimates the degree to which people encounter barriers to adequate information, advice, assistance and representation, process barriers, or persistent legal problems. Based on these dimensions, the report presents country-level estimates of the justice gap—the percentage of the population who experience legal problems and encounter a substantial number of barriers in their attempt to solve them. In half the observed countries, at least 50% of people have an unmet civil or administrative justice need, meaning that they are in the justice gap.
- Presents an enhanced national-level analysis of the economic costs of legal problems in terms of GDP. On average, the economic costs of legal problems for individuals, arising from lost income, health issues, or the resolution of such problems, amount to 1.7% of GDP. Country-level estimates range from 0.1% to over 5% of GDP.

The *Disparities, Vulnerability, and Harnessing Data for People-Centered Justice: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II*^{**} describes the main patterns of gender and wealth-based disparities in access to justice—from the prevalence of legal problems, and the degree to which these remained unresolved, to the hardships people face, and the degree to which they face critical forms of legal vulnerability. The report then takes a global snapshot of people's use of informal justice and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, and how countries fare in the effectiveness of their formal civil and criminal justice systems, both before and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Finally, the report looks at the current state of data collection on criminal and civil justice and sets out some of the critical steps involved in constructing a robust justice data ecosystem.

A ROADMAP OF THE WJP JUSTICE DATA GRAPHICAL REPORT II

To provide insights into how justice policies might be targeted most effectively, the *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II* disaggregates global survey data by respondents' gender and level of wealth.

* Hereinafter the report will be referred to as *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I*.

** Hereinafter the report will be referred to as *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II*.

The Gender Inequality Index (GII)¹⁰ provides an additional lens through which trends in justice experiences are considered. **Section I** explores gender disparities in the following justice outcomes:

- Gender disparities in the prevalence of legal problems: While on average men and women tend to experience legal problems to a similar extent, gender disparities are apparent in certain types of disputes, and depending on countries' overall level of gender inequality. Family problems tend to be a larger concern for women than for men, but women experience more legal problems outside the domestic sphere in countries where they are more empowered to exercise their rights. In countries where women are denied social and economic opportunities, however, they tend to experience fewer disputes related to employment, money and debt, and land and property than men.
- Gender-based inequality in access to justice and hardships: Looking at the barriers people find to resolving their legal problems, and the hardships they face because of them, the analysis indicates that women are at a disadvantage in a large majority of countries.

Section II studies these justice outcomes by focusing on existing wealth-based disparities:

- Wealth-based inequality in the prevalence of legal problems: This section presents global patterns of inequality by problem type. It looks at country-level differences in the prevalence of legal problems experienced by people living in poverty and those not living in poverty and presents the percentage of countries with a wealth-based disparity in the prevalence of legal problems. This type of disparity is observed in most countries. People living in poverty more frequently experience disputes related to family matters or public services—for example, difficulties obtaining public benefits—in almost 80% of the surveyed countries.
- Wealth-based disparities in the prevalence of legal problems occurring in situations of informality: The report focuses on how formal economic and government institutions might exclude people living in poverty. Section II analyzes wealth-based disparities in the prevalence of legal problems occurring during unregulated interactions or those that occur at the margins of society, as well as disputes arising as people face obstacles to accessing state institutions. The findings suggest an overlap between informality and poverty in a majority of countries.
- Poverty, access to justice, and hardships: Finally, the section explores how poverty affects access to justice and the hardships people suffer because of their legal problems. In most countries, people living in poverty are more likely to encounter significant barriers to justice and suffer related difficulties.

Section III presents a global snapshot of crucial indicators of legal vulnerability. It then analyzes the degree to which legal vulnerability disproportionately affects women and people living in poverty in the countries included in the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*.

- Stocktake of the main indicators of legal vulnerability globally: This section aggregates the most recent global estimates of the proportion of the population who lack official documentation of who they are, what they own, and the conditions under which they work. Based on an updated measurement by the World Bank's Identification for Development Initiative (ID4D), 850 million people lack official proof of their identity.¹¹ According to the International Labour Organization, 58% of the employed population were in informal employment in 2022.¹² Finally, this report uses the WJP General Population Poll to update the global estimate of people without access to proof of housing or land tenure: 2.34 billion people face this type of legal vulnerability, which reflects virtually no change compared with the estimate the WJP provided in 2019.¹³
- Gender, wealth, and the disproportionate experience of legal vulnerability: The report studies the global patterns of inequality in legal vulnerability across these three dimensions. Overall, these disparities prevail in an overwhelming majority of countries. Women and people living in

poverty have little or no official proof of identity or documentation of their proof of housing or land tenure.

Informal justice and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms: A topic closely related to inequality and access to justice is the diversity of pathways people take beyond formal justice institutions to resolving their legal problems. Acknowledging the vital importance of systematic data collection on informal justice and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms,¹⁴ **Section IV** provides the first snapshot of the extent of use of these services globally, based on the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*. In light of its finding that at least half of the people who need a dispute resolution mechanism resort to informal or alternative mechanisms in over 40% of the surveyed countries, the report joins the appeal to further improve the data and evidence on alternative pathways to justice.

People's experience of crime: Looking at criminal justice, **Section V** provides an account of the main impacts of being a victim of crime on people's well-being and outlines the main challenges authorities face to preventing and responding to violent and non-violent crime effectively. Substantial progress has been made on designing accepted standardized indicators that allow countries to report on and monitor the effectiveness of their criminal justice policies. However, data collection and justice policies are still insufficient, particularly in Latin America.

Effectiveness of criminal and civil justice systems: Looking at the supply side of access to justice, **Section VI** provides the most recent update of Factor 7: Civil Justice, and Factor 8: Criminal Justice, in the *WJP Rule of Law Index 2023*. The analysis finds a persistent pattern of deterioration in the effectiveness of these systems, which have not caught up with the demand for justice solutions to alleviate persistent civil and criminal justice needs.

Access to justice and the COVID-19 pandemic: **Section VII** provides an account of the main evidence of the effects of the pandemic on the prevalence of legal problems and the ability of justice systems to respond to those effects. The section describes how the pandemic affected civil and criminal justice systems globally, based on observed changes in Factor 7: Civil Justice and Factor 8: Criminal Justice of the *WJP Rule of Law Index*. It underscores the need for systematic research that provides generalizable findings to enable decision makers to better understand how the pandemic affected individual justice needs. The main areas of focus are the prevalence of legal disputes, the systemic deficiencies in justice services revealed by the pandemic, and an evaluation of how successful justice innovations catalyzed by the pandemic might be useful post-pandemic.

A data ecosystem for people-centered justice: To conclude, **Section VIII** proposes elements integral to a multistakeholder collaboration to construct a solid justice data ecosystem. The section describes the interdependence of the actors that supply data on justice outcomes, and those who use this data to produce actionable insights. The section also explains the substantial role of innovation—in the types of data used, the actors involved, and the technologies employed—in the face of scarce resources for sustaining a robust data ecosystem. Finally, it describes the progress made in assessing and standardizing fundamental civil and criminal justice indicators while underlining the long way the community of justice actors still has to go to address the gap in access to justice.

SECTION I

**GENDER-BASED
DISPARITIES IN ACCESS
TO JUSTICE**

Gender is among the principal axes of social and economic inequality.^{15 16} In turn, inequality in access to justice often perpetuates gender inequality and exclusion. This section presents a nuanced analysis that systematically compares women's and men's experiences of accessing justice, the prevalence of legal problems, the barriers to accessing justice, and the hardships experienced as a result.

- » **In aggregate, there is no clear gender disparity in the prevalence of legal problems.**
- » **However, gender disparities do exist based on the type of legal problems and the countries' level of gender inequality.** Family problems tend to be a larger concern for women than for men, but women experience more legal problems outside of the domestic sphere in countries where their ability to exercise their rights is less restricted.
 - **In almost all the surveyed countries with high overall levels of gender inequality (between 71% and 89% of the countries),** where women are denied social and economic opportunities, **women experience fewer disputes related to employment, money and debt, and land and property than men.**
 - **In societies with low overall levels of gender inequality, women experience more employment problems than men in at least half (65%) of the countries surveyed.**
 - **In three-quarters of the countries surveyed, women tend to experience more family-related legal problems than men.** This trend is observed regardless of the country's level of gender inequality.
- » **Women are less likely to resolve their legal problems and more likely to face hardships:**
 - **Women face greater barriers to justice than men in nearly 70% of the countries surveyed.** This is true in both more equal and less equal societies.
 - **Women face more hardships as a consequence of their legal problems in more than half (62%) of the countries surveyed.**

1. GENDER INEQUALITY AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

CHART 1.1

Gender Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems*

Broader Gender-Based Disadvantages, and the Prevalence of Legal Problems Among Women and Men

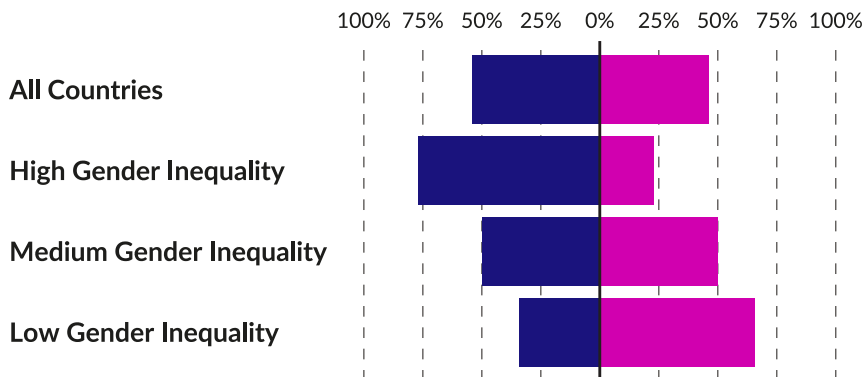
Percentage of countries where...**

- More men than women experienced legal problems
- More women than men experienced legal problems

Women report more legal problems than men in a smaller proportion of the countries surveyed.

In nearly 80% of countries with high gender inequality, men tend to experience more legal problems than women. However, in around 65% of countries with low inequality, women tend to experience more legal problems than men.†

► ONE OR MORE PROBLEMS



* The country categorization presented in this section is based on the Gender Inequality Index (GII). For additional information, see Tables A2 and A4.

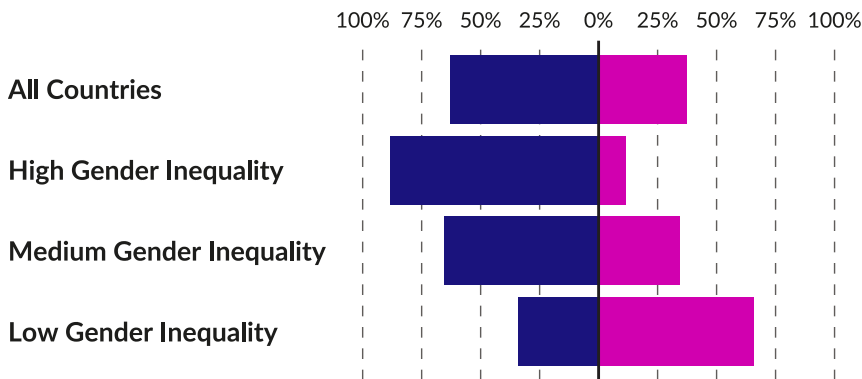
** The blue bar indicates the proportion of countries where men experienced more non-trivial legal problems than women. The purple bar indicates the proportion of countries where women experienced more non-trivial legal problems than men. We define non-trivial legal problems as those that respondents label with a severity higher than or equal to 4 out of 10. The percentages of people experiencing legal problems are taken as a proportion of the population.

† These findings are consistent when excluding the countries where there is only a difference of +/-0.05% between women's and men's experience of legal problems. That said, looking only at statistically significant country differences, women experience more legal problems than men in a slightly larger proportion of countries. In countries with high overall gender inequality, women's access to work, education, health, and political power—as measured in the GII—is limited to such an extent that it can decrease women's exposure to legal problems. By contrast, in countries with low overall gender inequality, women have more access to the public sphere, and are relatively more empowered to engage in it. These women tend to participate in more dimensions of public life, which could increase their experience of legal disputes in more areas of activity, as well as their voice and ability to acknowledge legal problems.

Percentage of countries where...

- More men than women experienced legal problems
- More women than men experienced legal problems

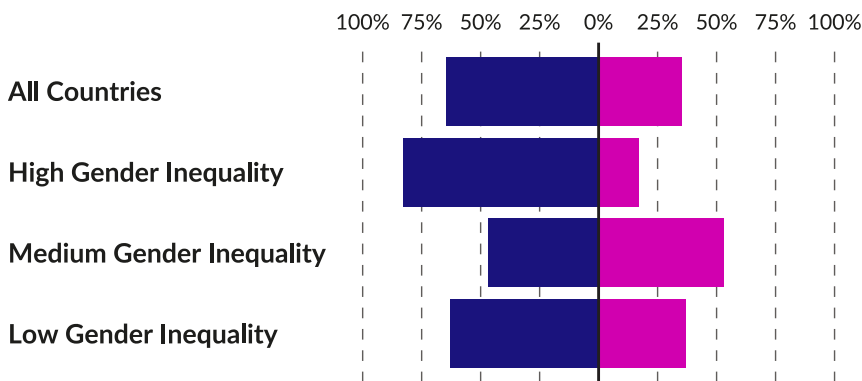
► EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS



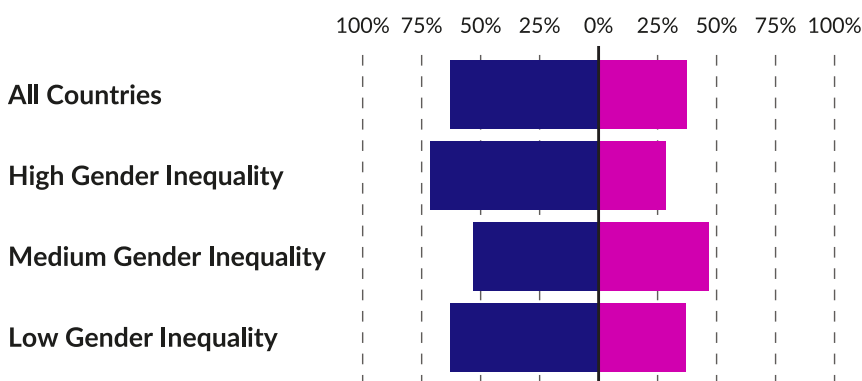
In almost all the surveyed countries with high gender inequality (between 71% and 89% of those countries, depending on the type of problem), women experience fewer disputes related to employment, money and debt, and land and property than men. This indicates women's lower level of empowerment and participation in activities in the public sphere.

This trend is partially reversed in low gender inequality countries, where women experience more employment problems in 65% of the countries surveyed.‡

► MONEY AND DEBT PROBLEMS



► LAND AND PROPERTY PROBLEMS



‡ For a list of the individual variables from the WJP Global Legal Needs Survey used to create the problem categories, see Table A1.

These findings are consistent when the countries where there is only a difference of +/-0.05% between women's and men's experience of legal problems are excluded. That said, only the trends identified in high gender inequality countries hold when the analysis is restricted to statistically significant country differences.

Estimates include countries for which the sample sizes of women and men are smaller than 15. For more information on specific countries below this threshold, see Table A3.

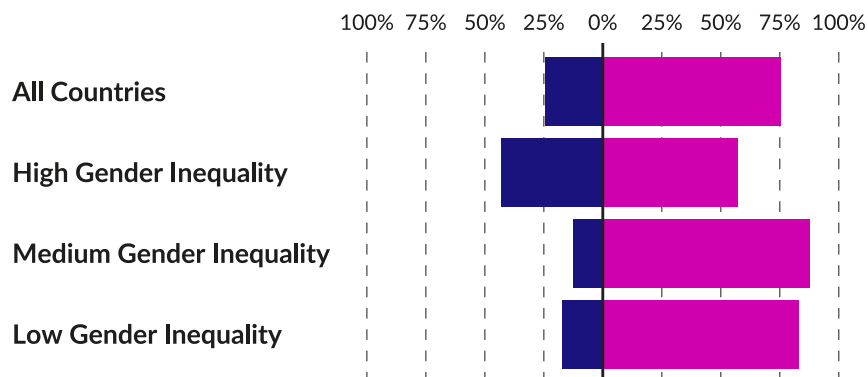
Percentage of countries where...

- More men than women experienced legal problems
- More women than men experienced legal problems

In three-quarters of the countries surveyed, women tend to experience more family-related legal problems than men. This trend is observed regardless of the country's level of gender inequality.

Family problems include those related to child support, child custody, divorce or separation, and threats of intimate partner violence.[§]

► FAMILY PROBLEMS



[§] For a list of the individual variables from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* used to create the family problem category, see Table A1.

These findings are consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a difference of +/-0.05% between women's and men's experience of legal problems; and (b) looking only at the countries where the gender-based differences in legal problems are statistically significant.

Estimates include countries for which the sample sizes of women and men are smaller than 15. For more information on specific countries below this threshold, see Table A3.

CHART 1.2

Gender Disparities in Barriers to Justice*

Broader Gender-Based Disadvantages, and Unmet Civil and Administrative Justice Needs

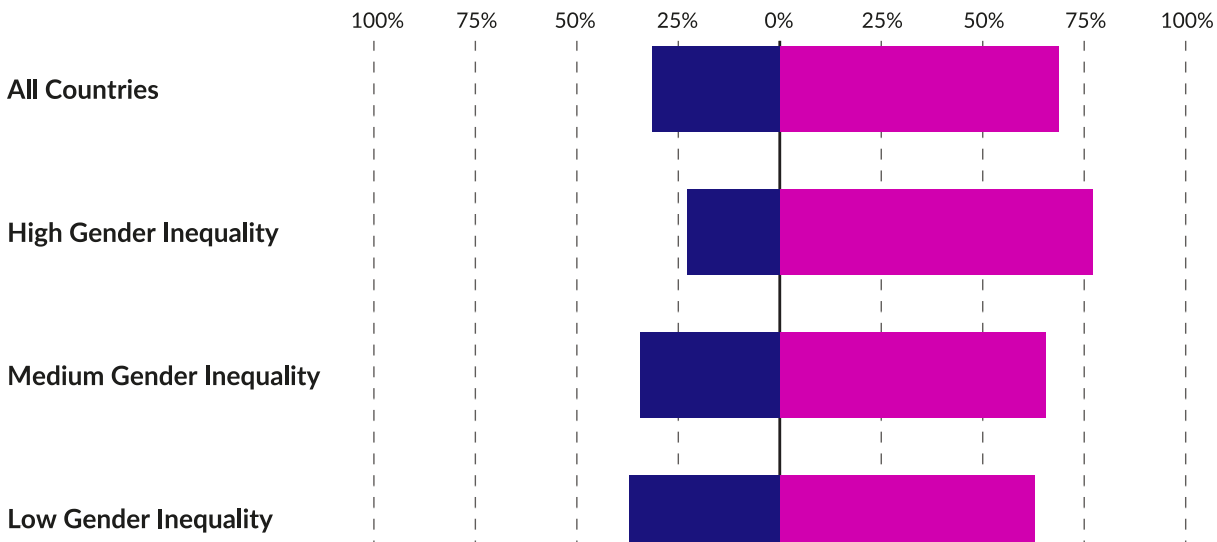
► ONE OR MORE LEGAL PROBLEMS

Percentage of countries where...**

- More men than women are in the justice gap
- More women than men are in the justice gap

Women face greater barriers to justice than men in nearly 70% of the countries surveyed.

This gender disparity in access to justice is observed in nearly 80% of countries with a high level of gender inequality.†



* The country categorization presented in this section relies on the GII.¹⁸ For additional information, see Table A2. For a country level aggregated analysis of the justice gap, see Section IV of Part I in this series.

** The blue bar indicates the proportion of countries where more men than women face significant barriers to justice and thus have unmet civil and administrative justice needs (i.e., they are in the justice gap). The purple bar indicates the proportion of countries where more women than men are in the justice gap. Percentages of people experiencing barriers to justice are taken as a proportion of the population with legal problems.

† These findings are statistically consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a difference of +/-0.01% between women's and men's experience of barriers to justice; and (b) looking only at the countries where the gender-based differences in barriers to justice are statistically significant.

CHART 1.3

Gender Disparities in Hardships*

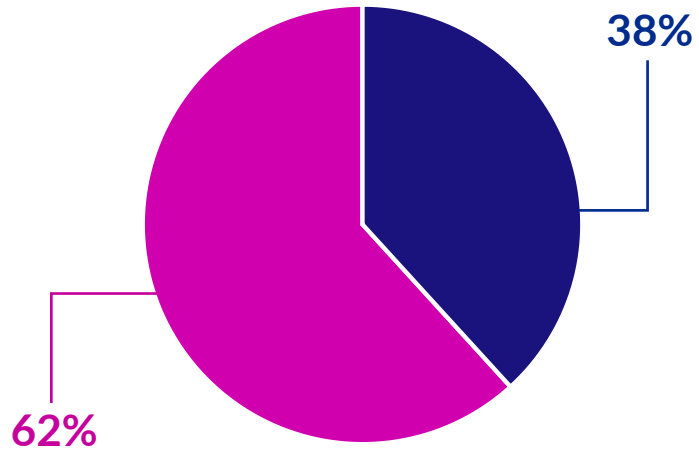
Gender-Based Disadvantages and Hardships Faced by Women and Men as a Consequence of Their Legal Problems

While women tend to experience fewer legal problems than men, in 62% of the countries surveyed they also face a greater number of hardships as a consequence of their legal problems.†

► ONE OR MORE HARDSHIPS

Percentage of countries where...**

- More men than women face hardships
- More women than men face hardships



* Section V of Part I in this series provides a country-level overview of the hardships people face as a consequence of their legal problems. For a list of the types of hardships considered, see Table A4.

** The blue slice indicates the proportion of countries where more men than women face one or more hardships as a result of their legal disputes. The purple slice indicates the proportion of countries where more women than men face one or more hardships. Percentages of people experiencing hardships are taken as a proportion of the population with legal problems.

† This finding is consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a difference of +/-0.01% between women's and men's experience of hardships; and (b) looking only at the countries where the gender-based differences in hardship are statistically significant. Estimates include Algeria and Indonesia, for which the sample sizes of women and men who experienced hardship are smaller than 15. For more information, see Table A3.

SECTION II

**WEALTH INEQUITY
IN ACCESS TO JUSTICE**

Poverty makes people disproportionately vulnerable to experiencing legal problems and barriers to justice.¹⁹ At the same time, unmet legal needs can trap people in poverty as legal problems cause hardships, including but not limited to financial hardships. Individuals experiencing poverty can be excluded not only from the protection of justice institutions, but also from crucial social services, and basic levels of security and well-being. Finally, informality and poverty overlap and reinforce each other. People living in poverty are more frequently excluded from the formal economy and not reached by formal institutions.²⁰

This section provides evidence on the degree to which those living in poverty disproportionately experience legal problems and do not have their justice needs met compared to those who are not living in poverty. **In summary:**

- » **In at least 70% of the countries surveyed, people living in poverty tend to experience more legal problems than the rest of the population.**
- » **The greatest wealth-based disparities in the experience of disputes are around access to public services—for example, difficulties obtaining public benefits—and family-related legal problems, which include, among other things, disagreements over a will or threats of intimate partner violence.**
- » **In almost 80% of the countries surveyed, people living in poverty experience disputes related to family matters or public services more frequently than people who are not living in poverty.**
- » **In around 70% of countries surveyed, people living in poverty are more likely to experience legal problems that occur outside of formal processes and institutions or the formal economy, such as threats from debt collectors or becoming homeless. These problems are by definition further from the protection of the law.**
- » **People living in poverty encounter greater barriers to justice in 90% of the surveyed countries, and suffer greater hardships as a result of their legal problems in 82% of these countries.**

2. WEALTH-BASED INEQUALITY AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

CHART 2.1

Wealth-Based Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems

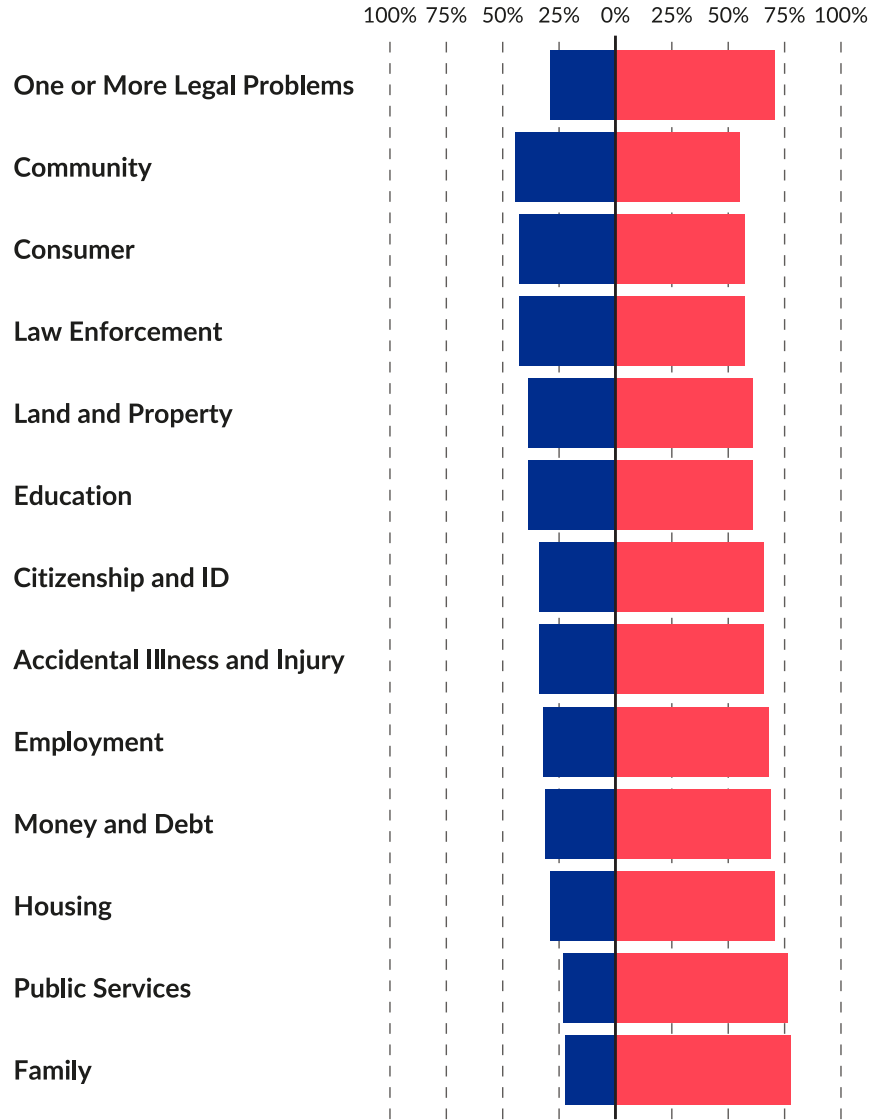
► **PREVALENCE OF PROBLEMS AMONG PEOPLE LIVING IN POVERTY AND PEOPLE NOT LIVING IN POVERTY***

Percentage of countries where...**

- More people not living in poverty experience legal problems than people living in poverty
- More people living in poverty experience legal problems than people not living in poverty

In at least 70% of the countries surveyed, people living in poverty experience more legal problems than people not living in poverty.

The proportion of countries where this disparity occurs depends on the type of problem, ranging from 55% of observed countries for community-related problems to 78% for family-related problems.†



* We take a conservative approach to categorizing people as “living in poverty”. We consider those respondents to be living in poverty whose household financial situation is such that money is not enough even for basic necessities or who can afford basic products but for whom buying clothes is difficult. In turn, we consider “not living in poverty” those respondents who can afford essential products and clothes but not long-term goods, those who can buy long-term goods but not expensive goods, and those who can afford expensive goods. These values have been validated and are generally consistent with country level patterns of socioeconomic development.

** The blue bar indicates the proportion of countries where people not living in poverty experience more non-trivial legal problems than people living in poverty. Conversely, the orange bar indicates the proportion of countries where people living in poverty experience relatively more non-trivial legal problems. We understand non-trivial legal problems as those that respondents label with a severity higher than or equal to 4 out of 10. For a list of the individual variables from the WJP Global Legal Needs Survey used to create the problem categories, see Table A1. Percentages of people experiencing legal problems are taken as a proportion of the population.

† These findings are consistent when excluding the countries where there is only a +/-0.05% difference in the degree to which the two different socioeconomic groups analyzed experience legal problems. Except for consumer-related legal problems, we also found consistent patterns of problem experience when looking only at the countries where the wealth-based differences in the experience of legal problems are statistically significant.

CHART 2.2

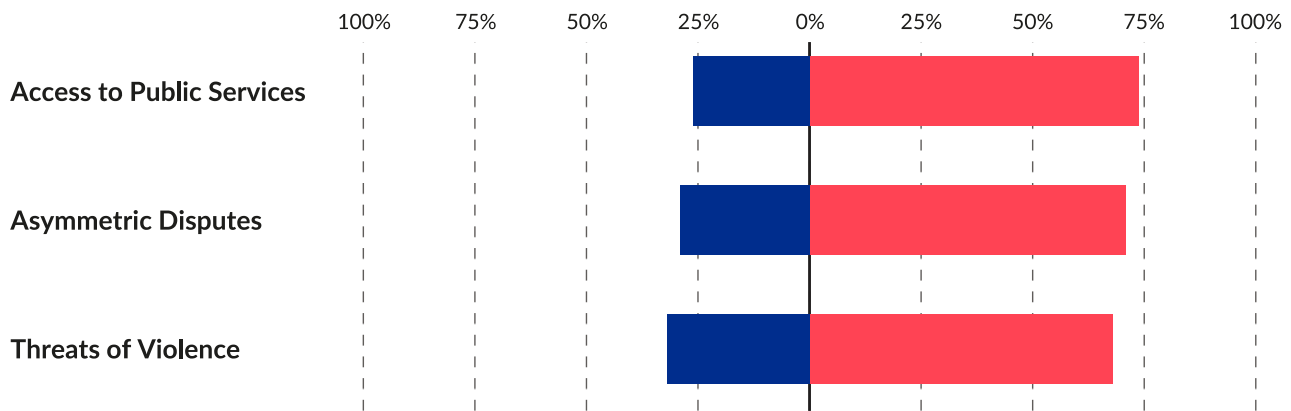
Wealth-Based Disparities and Informality

► PREVALENCE OF PROBLEMS THAT DO NOT REQUIRE ENGAGING IN FORMAL PROCESSES (ONE OR MORE PROBLEMS)*

Percentage of countries where...**

- More people not living in poverty experience legal problems than people living in poverty
- More people living in poverty experience legal problems than people not living in poverty

Poverty and informality overlap. In close to 70% of the countries surveyed, those living in poverty experience more problems that tend to occur outside of formal processes, such as problems accessing public services or those involving threats of violence.†



* We take a conservative approach to categorizing those “living in poverty”. We consider those respondents to be living in poverty whose household financial situation is such that money is not enough even for basic necessities or who can afford basic products but for whom buying clothes is difficult. In turn, we consider “not living in poverty” those respondents who can afford essential products and clothes but not long-term goods, those who can buy long-term goods but not expensive goods, and those who can afford expensive goods. These values have been validated and are generally consistent with country level patterns of socioeconomic development. For a brief discussion of informality and more detail on how legal problems that arise outside of formal processes were categorized, see Table A5.

** The blue bar indicates the proportion of countries where people not living in poverty experience more non-trivial legal problems than people living in poverty. The orange bar indicates the proportion of countries where people living in poverty experience relatively more non-trivial legal problems. We understand non-trivial legal problems as those that respondents label with a severity higher than or equal to 4 out of 10. Percentages of people experiencing legal problems are taken as a proportion of the population.

† These findings are consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a +/-0.05% difference in the degree to which the two different socioeconomic groups analyzed experience legal problems; and (b) looking only at the countries where the wealth-based differences in the experience of legal problems are statistically significant.

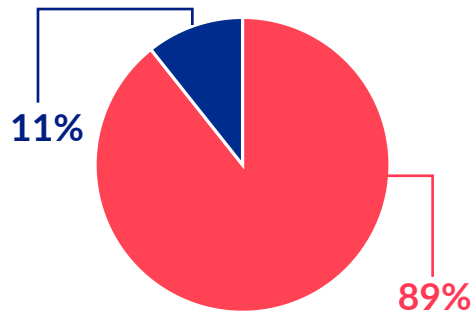
CHART 2.3

Wealth-Based Disparities in the Justice Gap

► UNMET CIVIL AND ADMINISTRATIVE JUSTICE NEEDS FACED BY PEOPLE LIVING IN POVERTY AND PEOPLE NOT LIVING IN POVERTY*

Percentage of countries where...**

- More people not living in poverty face barriers to justice than people living in poverty
- More people living in poverty face barriers to justice than people not living in poverty



There is a wealth-based disparity in access to justice in nearly 90% of the countries surveyed. People living in poverty tend to face greater barriers to justice and have more unmet civil and administrative justice needs.†

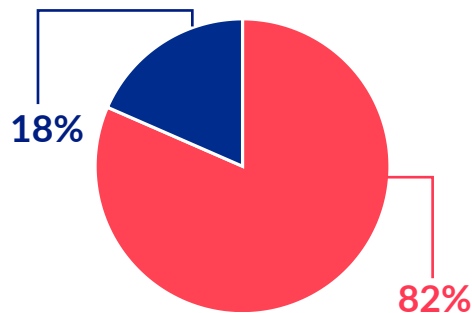
CHART 2.4

Wealth-Based Disparities in Hardship

► HARDSHIPS FACED BY PEOPLE LIVING IN POVERTY AND PEOPLE NOT LIVING IN POVERTY

Percentage of countries where...**

- More people not living in poverty face hardship than people living in poverty
- More people living in poverty face hardship than people not living in poverty



There is a wealth-based disparity in hardship in more than 80% of surveyed countries.†

* We take a conservative approach to categorizing those "living in poverty". We consider those respondents to be living in poverty whose household financial situation is such that money is not enough even for basic necessities or who can afford basic products but for whom buying clothes is difficult. In turn, we consider "not living in poverty" those respondents who can afford essential products and clothes but not long-term goods, those who can buy long-term goods but not expensive goods, and those who can afford expensive goods. These values were validated and are generally consistent with country level patterns of socioeconomic development.

** The orange slice indicates the proportion of countries where people not living in poverty experience more barriers to justice/hardship than people living in poverty. The blue slice indicates the proportion of countries where people living in poverty experience relatively more barriers to justice/hardship. Percentages of people experiencing barriers to justice/hardship are taken as a proportion of the population with legal problems.

† These findings are consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a +/-0.01% difference in the degree to which the two different socioeconomic groups analyzed experience barriers to justice/hardship; and (b) looking only at the countries where the wealth-based differences in the experience of barriers to justice/hardship are statistically significant. For a country level, aggregated analysis of the justice gap and the hardships caused by legal problems, see Sections IV and V of Part I in this series. Table A5 lists the types of hardship considered.

SECTION III

LEGAL

VULNERABILITY AND

ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Beyond the barriers to justice that people might face when legal problems arise, people can also lack the legal tools necessary to prove who they are, what they own or how they work.

- » Globally, 850 million people lack official proof of their identity.²²
- » 58% of the employed population—2 billion workers—were in informal employment in 2022.²³
- » Based on the most recent estimate from the WJP, 2.34 billion people lack proof of housing or land tenure in 2023.
 - This figure is equal to 29% of the global population, indicating a decrease of one percentage point compared to the percentage of the population estimated in 2019.

Moreover, legal vulnerability disproportionately affects those living in lower-income countries, as well as populations at a disadvantage because of their ethnicity, their gender,²⁴ or because they are living in poverty.²⁵ Based on the data from the WJP General Population Poll, women and people living in poverty more frequently lack official documents, which increases their level of vulnerability and puts them at a higher risk of being denied their legal rights.

- » In most (80% of) countries with a high overall level of gender inequality, more women lack official proof of identity than men.
- » Women's access to proof of housing or land tenure is lower than that of men in 70% of the countries surveyed, reflecting underlying inequities in property rights.
- » In more than two-thirds (70%) of the countries surveyed, people living in poverty more frequently lack official proof of identity.
- » In a large majority (94%) of the countries surveyed, people living in poverty are more likely to lack proof of housing or land tenure.

Documentation of official identity and civil status, proof of housing or land tenure, and formal working arrangements empowers people to engage with all kinds of authorities and obtain public services, retain their property, and protect their livelihoods. The absence of such documentation substantially undermines people's ability to resolve their unmet legal needs,²⁶ and ultimately sustainable development more generally.²⁷

3. LEGAL VULNERABILITY AROUND THE WORLD

TABLE 3.1

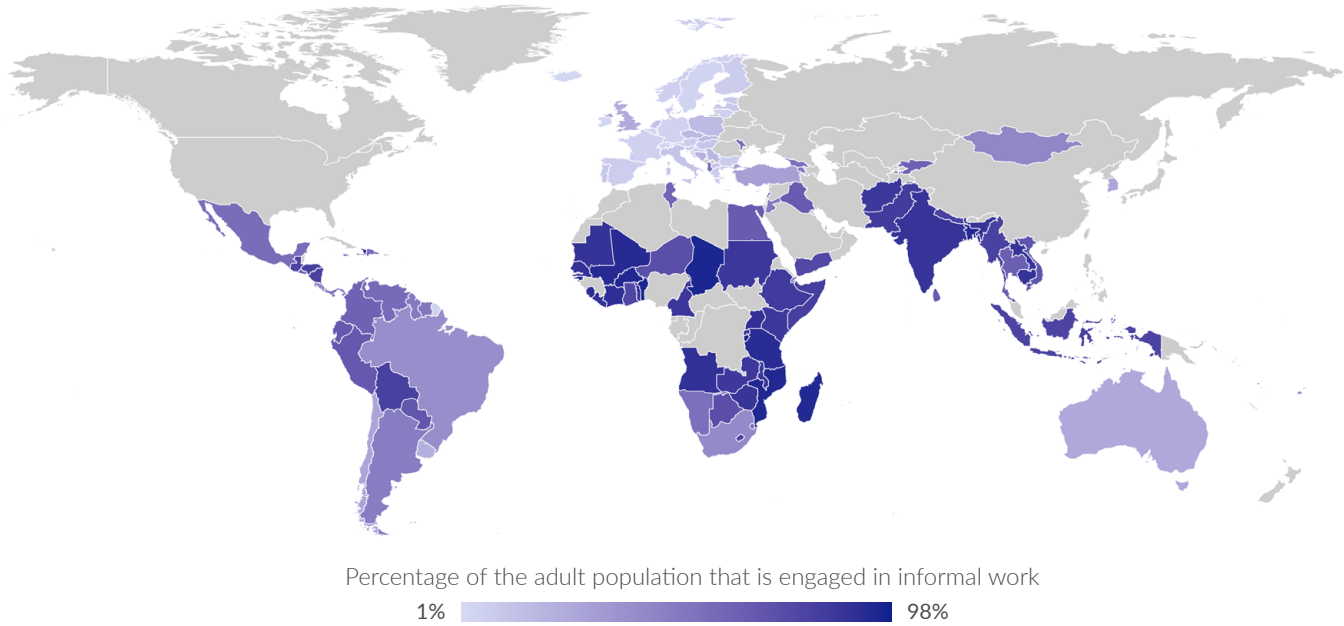
Lack of Official Identification Around the World*

	Number of countries	Estimated People without ID in 2021 (Millions)			Percent of Total
		Children	Adults	Total	
WORLD	194	426	417	843	100%
REGION					
East Asia Pacific (EAP)	31	45	30.4	75.4	8.90%
Europe and Central Asia (ECA)	53	0.7	20.6	21.4	2.50%
Latin America and Caribbean (LAC)	33	8.2	24.7	32.9	3.90%
Middle East and North Africa (MNA)	21	10.9	27.9	38.8	4.60%
North America	2	-	0.7	0.7	0.10%
South Asia (SAR)	8	129.6	72.5	202.1	24.00%
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	46	231.9	240	471.9	56.00%
INCOME					
High-Income Countries (HICs)	60	0.2	16.2	16.4	1.90%
Upper-Middle Income Countries (UMICs)	54	23.2	37.3	60.4	7.20%
Lower-Middle Income Countries (LMICs)	54	236.6	264.1	500.7	59.40%
Low-Income Countries (LICs)	25	164.9	99.1	264	31.30%

* The World Bank's Identification for Development Initiative (ID4D) estimated the number of people without government-recognized proof of identity (ID) in 2018 and 2021. The data included in this table comes from *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*²⁸ (Table 4). The ID4D Global Dataset 2021 presents coverage estimates at the regional level, based on data for 194 countries. The 2021 estimates are based on an improved methodology that, in combination with the progress countries have made in improving ID coverage and changing demographics, updates the global estimate presented in 2018. These calculations are based on data from the 2021 and 2017 ID4D-Findex survey, administrative data collected by ID4D in 2019–2021, birth registration data, voter registration data, and World Population Prospects. Although the 2021 data marks a methodological improvement compared to the 2018 measurement, the results are presented at the regional level rather than the country level.

CHART 3.2

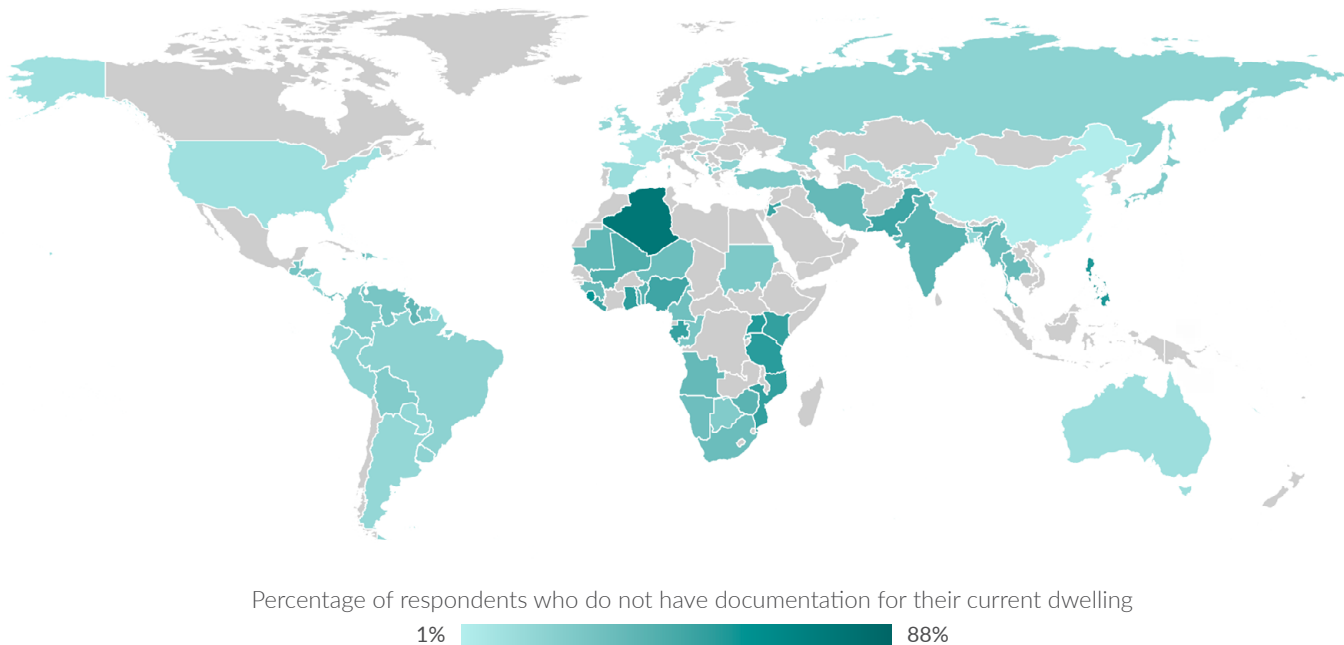
Informal Employment Around the World*



Source: International Labour Organization, Department of Statistics (ILOSTAT). Statistics on the informal economy. <https://ilostat ilo.org/topics/informality/>. Accessed July 28, 2023.

CHART 3.3

Proof of Housing or Land Tenure Rate Around the World**



Source: WJP General Population Poll, 2018, 2019, 2021, 2022, and 2023.

* The Informal Employment Rate is defined as informal employment as a proportion of total employment. It includes own-account workers, contributing family workers, and employees holding informal jobs, as defined in the Labour Force Statistics database description.²⁹ Data was obtained from the International Labour Organization Department of Statistics.³⁰ Only the most recent and comparable data available for each country is considered. For specific country-year information, see Table A6.

** The Proof of Housing or Land Tenure Rate is defined as the country level proportion of people responding “No” to the WJP General Population Poll (GPP) question: “Does your household have any of the following documents for your current dwelling: a title, deed, certificate of ownership, rental contract, or lease?” The complete survey item, and the years of data collection are included in Table A7.

4. LEGAL VULNERABILITY AND INEQUALITY

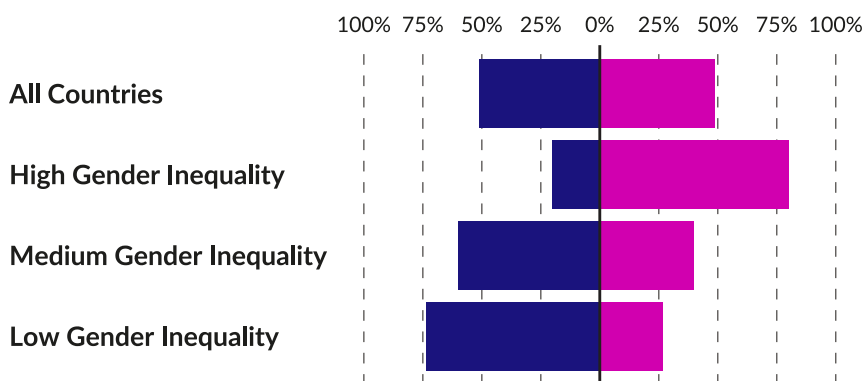
CHART 4.1

Gender Disparities in Lack of Official Proof of Identity and Lack of Proof of Housing or Land Tenure*

Percentage of countries where...**

- More men are in legal vulnerability than women
- More women are in legal vulnerability than men

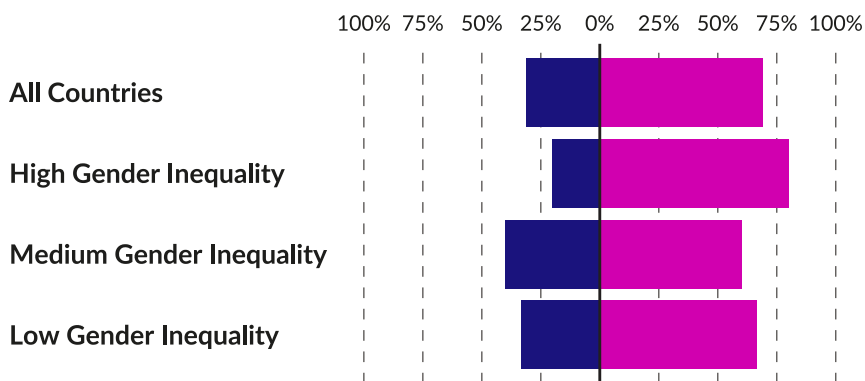
► LACK OF OFFICIAL PROOF OF IDENTITY



More women than men lack official proof of identity in most (80% of) countries with a high level of overall gender inequality.^{†‡}

In 70% of the surveyed countries, women lack proof of housing or land tenure more frequently than men. This gender disparity in legal vulnerability is more pronounced in countries with high levels of overall gender inequality.[†]

► LACK OF PROOF OF HOUSING OR LAND TENURE



* The country categorization presented in this section relies on the Gender Inequality Index (GII).³¹ For additional information, see Table A2.

** The bars in blue indicate the proportion of countries where men more frequently lack official proof of identity / proof of housing or land tenure than women. The bars in purple indicate the proportion of countries where women more frequently lack official proof of identity / proof of housing or land tenure than men. Data on official proof of identity and proof of housing and land tenure is based on the WJP's GPP, as detailed in Table A7.

† These findings are consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a +/-0.05% difference between women's and men's lack of official proof of identity/proof of housing or land tenure; and (b) looking only at the countries where the gender-based differences in the lack of official proof of identity/proof of housing or land tenure are statistically significant.

‡ In aggregate, looking at the surveyed countries without distinguishing between their overall level of gender inequality, gender disparities in access to official proof of identity are not statistically significant or greater than +/-0.05%. The same applies to gender differences in countries with medium and low overall levels of gender inequality.

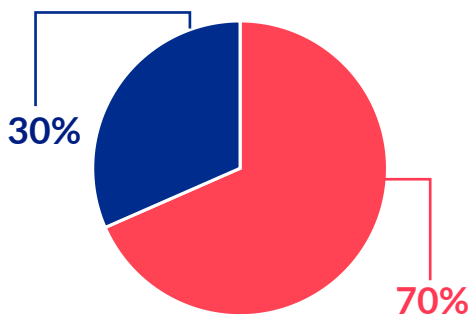
CHART 4.2

Wealth-Based Disparities in Lack of Official Proof of Identity and Lack of Proof of Housing or Land Tenure

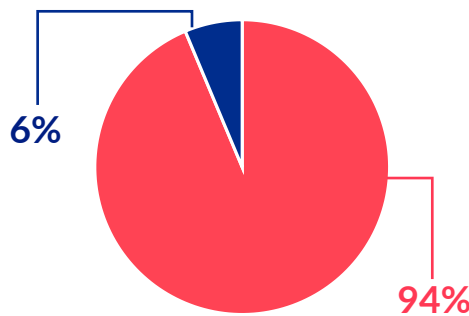
Percentage of countries where...*

- More people not living in poverty are in legal vulnerability than people living in poverty
- More people living in poverty are in legal vulnerability than people not living in poverty

► LACK OF OFFICIAL PROOF OF ID



► LACK OF PROOF OF HOUSING OR LAND TENURE



Poverty and legal vulnerability are closely related to each other.

People living in poverty more frequently lack official proof of identity in more than two-thirds (70%) of the surveyed countries.

*In the vast majority of countries analyzed (94%), people living in poverty are more likely to lack proof of housing or land tenure.***

* Data on official proof of identity and proof of housing or land tenure is based on WJP's GPP, see Table A7.

** These findings are statistically consistent when: (a) excluding the countries where there is only a +/-0.05% wealth-based difference in official proof of identity/housing or land tenure; and (b) restricting the analysis to countries where wealth-based disparities in official proof of identity/housing or land tenure are statistically significant.

SECTION IV

**INFORMAL JUSTICE
AND ALTERNATIVE
DISPUTE RESOLUTION
MECHANISMS**

People resort to a plurality of pathways to justice, which include but are not limited to formal justice mechanisms.³² The availability of diverse pathways is especially important, given the persistent lack of access to justice. In addition to formal justice mechanisms, informal pathways to justice are characterized by a combination of features: they are “unofficial, non-coercive (dependent on rhetoric rather than force), non-bureaucratic, decentralized, relatively undifferentiated, and non-professional”.³³ Alternative dispute resolution mechanisms involve similar processes, such as negotiation, mediation, conciliation, and arbitration, which are collaborative, non-adversarial, and differ from conventional court-based mechanisms involving adjudication by a judge.³⁴ Informal and alternative justice systems can, under the right circumstances, provide an effective avenue for people to meet their justice needs,³⁵ particularly in contexts where formal institutions might be beyond the reach of rural or marginalized sectors of the population.³⁶

There have recently been calls for more attention to be paid to informal and alternative mechanisms, in terms of both resources,³⁷ and data collection.³⁸ This section looks at patterns of use of informal and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms based on the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*. Systematic measurement of people’s experiences using alternative or informal justice poses a number of methodological challenges.³⁹ While acknowledging these difficulties, the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* collects consistent and comparable data on people’s justice journeys. This provides a fundamental picture of the extent of use of informal justice, or more specifically of informal justice and alternative dispute resolution mechanisms.

- » **In 40% of the countries surveyed, at least half of the people who accessed a dispute resolution mechanism relied on an informal or an alternative dispute resolution mechanism.***
- » **Informal justice and alternative dispute resolution might be beneficial options for people who need formal dispute resolution mechanisms but encounter barriers to accessing them.**

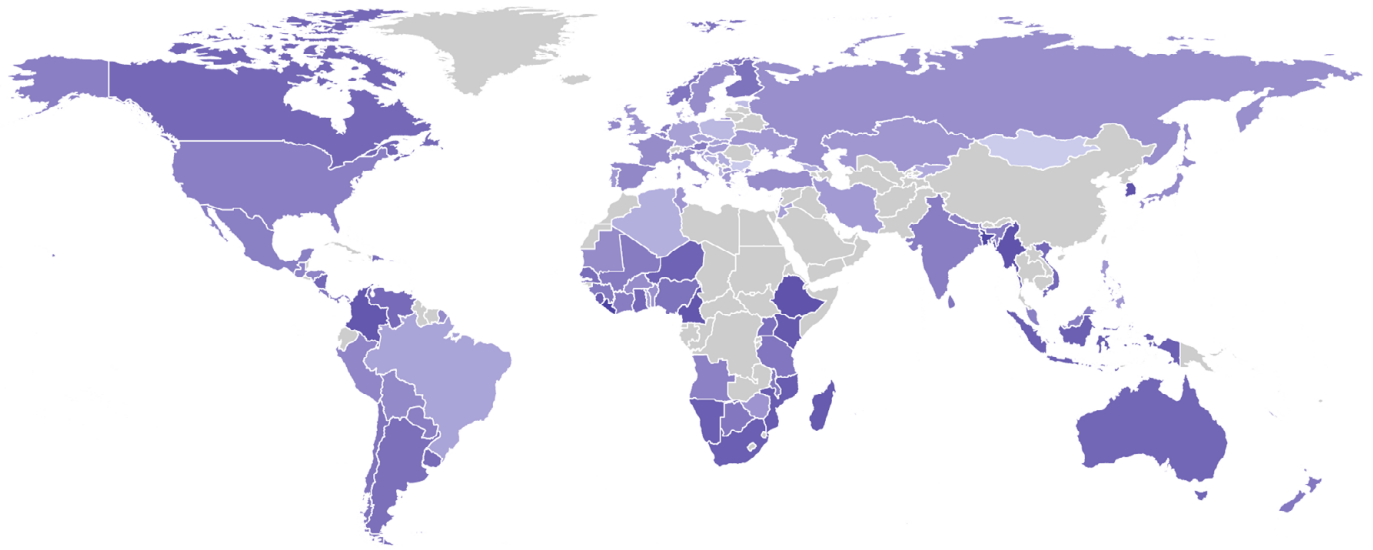
* This includes people who only used an alternative or informal mechanism, as well as those who relied both on these mechanisms and on formal dispute resolution.

5. GLOBAL OVERVIEW OF INFORMAL JUSTICE AND ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION MECHANISMS

CHART 5.1

Use of Informal or Alternative Dispute Resolution Around the World

*In at least 40% of the countries surveyed, one in every two persons who accessed a dispute resolution mechanism relied on an informal justice or an alternative dispute resolution mechanism.**



Percentage of people per country who used an informal or alternative dispute resolution mechanism



* Based on the current phrasing of the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* questionnaire, people using informal or alternative justice include those who turned to: (a) a religious authority or community leader or organization; (b) a third party to mediate the problem; or (c) formal conciliation or arbitration. Chart 5.1 plots, out of the people who accessed a dispute resolution mechanism, the percentage who used an informal or alternative mechanism, including people who relied on both informal or alternative and formal dispute resolution mechanisms. Subsample sizes for Hong Kong SAR-China and Vietnam are smaller than 15. For more information, see Table A3.

SECTION V

CRIME PREVENTION
AND CRIMINAL
JUSTICE NEEDS

Non-violent and violent crimes affect people's lives in painful and significant ways. They cause financial hardship and affect victims' property, health, and quality of life, and create intangible outcomes such as fear of crime and reduced trust in and perception of fairness of institutions.⁴⁰ Violent crime also negatively impacts macroeconomic outcomes such as foreign direct investment, output, and growth.⁴¹

Because of a multiplicity of factors, including fear of retaliation, mistrust of authorities, institutional barriers to access, and low legal capability, victims of crime seldom report their experiences to the authorities.⁴² Hence, despite the consequences, many criminal justice needs remain unresolved because the authorities fail to address the full extent and nature of victimization.

Successfully addressing the challenges of providing criminal justice involves a comprehensive set of policies and programs for crime prevention, victim protection, rehabilitation and reintegration, and resolution.⁴³ Measuring the effectiveness and adequacy of these policies in meeting people's unique needs and contexts requires reliable, standardized, and people-centered data. This data must focus on the extent, nature, and effects of crime on victims; the population groups most vulnerable to crime; the factors influencing its underreporting; and the individual motivations, social processes, and collective relations around which crime occurs.⁴⁴

The international community has made substantial progress on the standardization, collection, and analysis of criminal justice data.⁴⁵ Nonetheless, efforts to collect and report on essential comparable data on crime victimization and reporting are still insufficient. Far more resources and political will are needed to gain a clearer picture of the justice needs of victims of crime; the experiences of detainees, whether detained pre-trial or post-trial; the capacities of police and other criminal justice system actors; and the specific barriers people face in the criminal justice system.

Examining victimization and the reporting of non-violent and violent crime—burglary and assault, respectively—for which there is more standardized data available:

- » **In over a quarter (27%) of countries with data available, five in every 100 people have been victims of burglary the past year, but only around half of those reported the crime.⁴⁶**
 - **In Latin America, the victimization rate is slightly higher than the global rate (in 33% of the countries there rather than 27%), but the reporting rate is lower: only two in every five people reported their burglary.⁴⁷**
- » **In more than a quarter (27%) of reporting countries, around three in every 100 people have been victims of assault. Of those victimized, only one in every three people report the assault.⁴⁸**
 - **Violent crime is particularly serious in Latin America. Looking at intentional homicides, around one-third of murders globally take place in the region.⁴⁹**

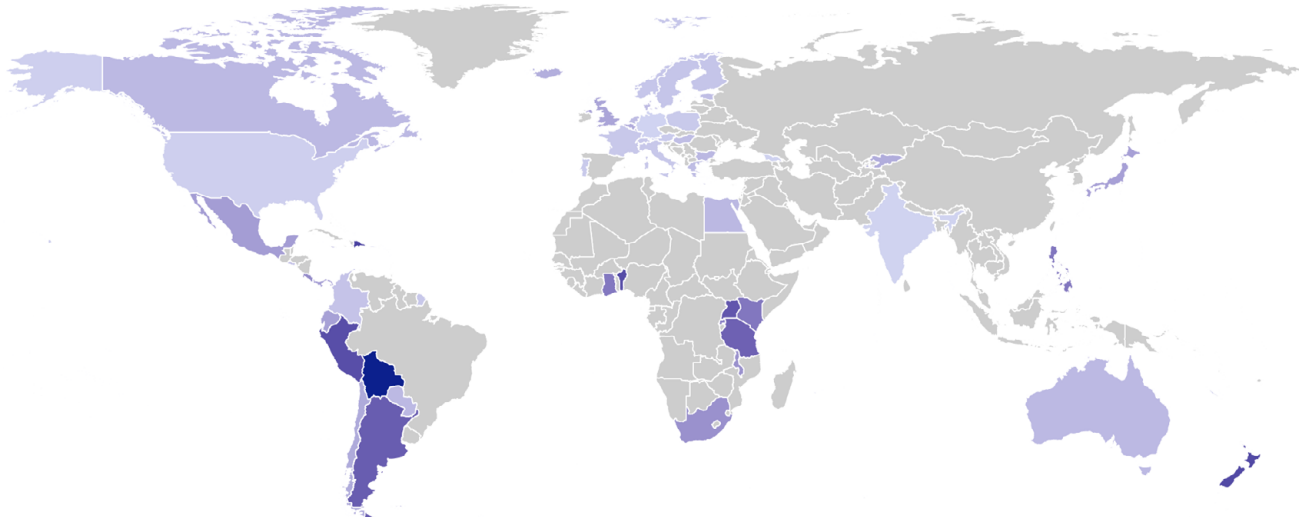
6. AVAILABLE DATA ON VICTIMIZATION AND REPORTING OF CRIME*

CHART 6.1

Non-Violent Crime: Victimization and Reporting

► PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO WERE VICTIMS OF BURGLARY

In over a quarter (27%) of countries, five in every 100 people have been victims of burglary. In Latin America, the victimization rate is slightly higher than the global rate (33% of countries rather than 27%).

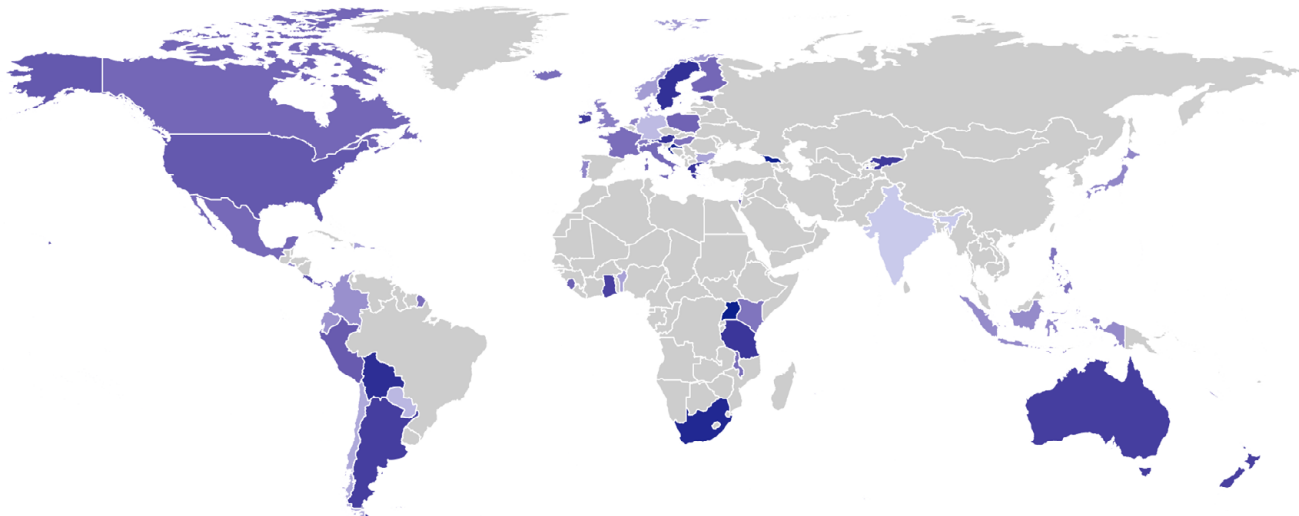


Percentage of people per country who were victims of burglary

0%  46%

► PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO REPORTED TO AN AUTHORITY THAT THEY HAD BEEN VICTIMS OF BURGLARY

Globally, only half of those victimized report the crime. Furthermore, in Latin America only two in every five victims of burglary report the crime.



Of those who experienced a burglary, percentage of people who reported the crime to an authority

3%  88%

Sources: Inicio / VicLab / Atlas - Atlas de documentos" UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, Last Updated January 16, 2023. Accessed June 13–16, 2023, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/mapa-2/#1> ; "Inicio / VicLab / Atlas" UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, 2023. Accessed June 7, 2023, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/atlas-en/> ; and UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, Atlas of Criminal Victimization Surveys, Accessed January 15, 2019.

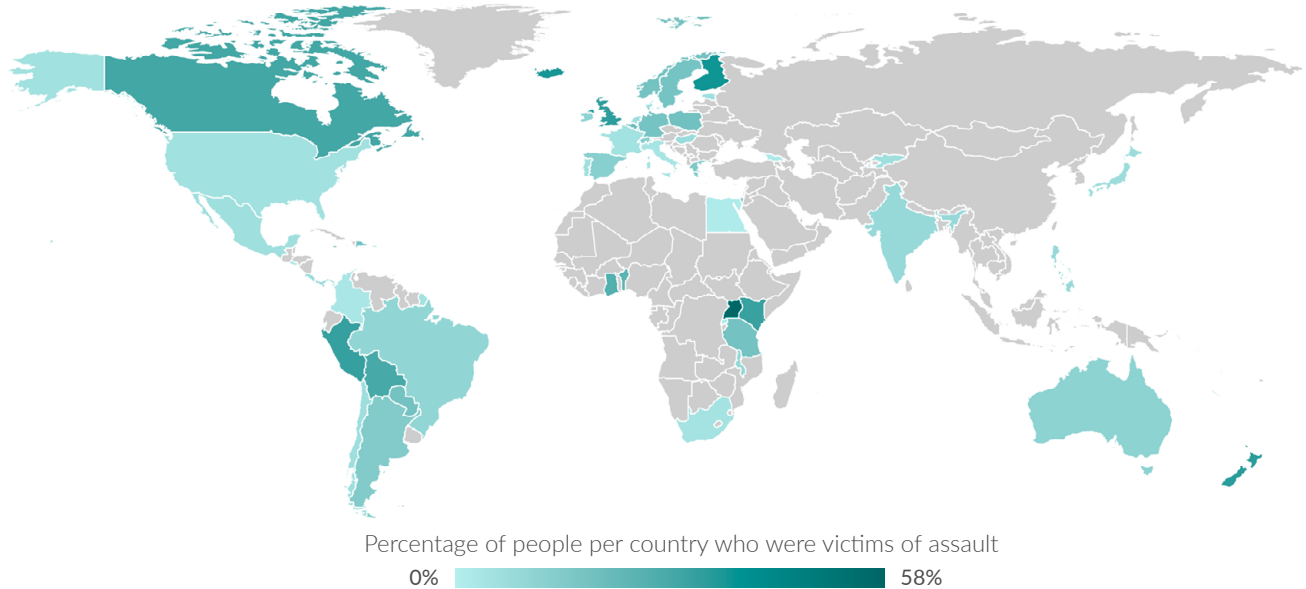
* The figures presented here are restricted to burglary and may therefore underestimate the true extent of crime victimization. The aggregate percentages are not adjusted for underreporting.

CHART 6.2

Violent Crime: Victimization and Reporting*

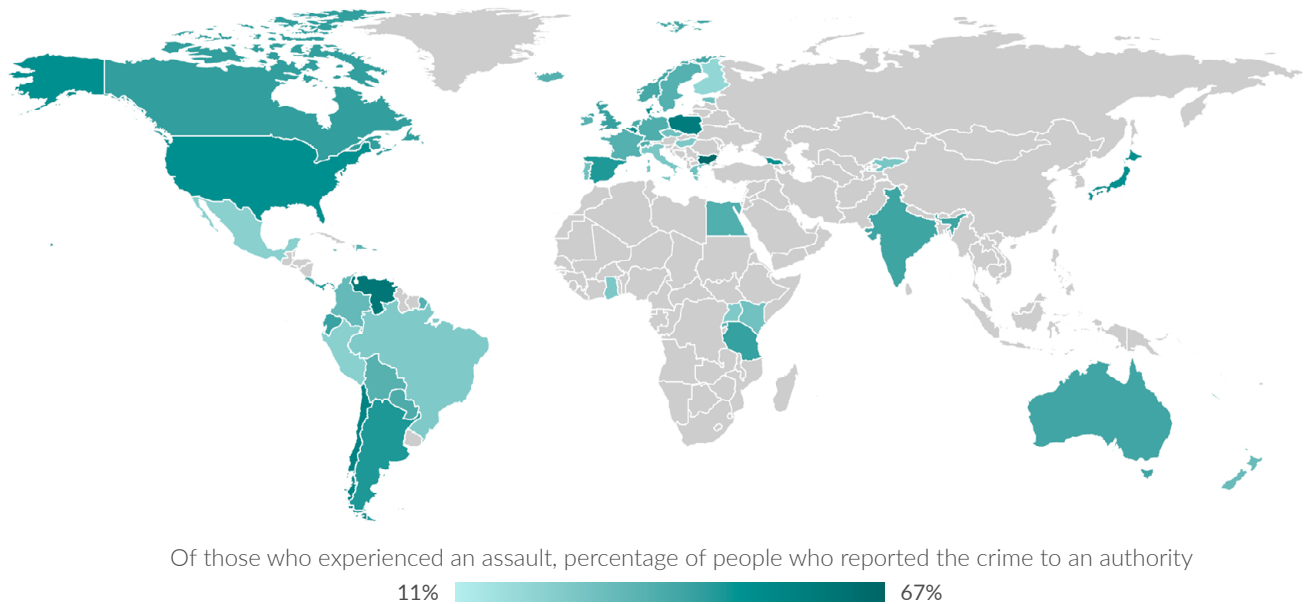
▶ PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO WERE VICTIMS OF ASSAULT

In more than a quarter (27%) of reporting countries, three in every 100 people have been victims of assault.



▶ PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO REPORTED TO AN AUTHORITY THAT THEY HAD BEEN A VICTIM OF ASSAULT

Only one in every three people from the countries with data available report their assault.



Sources: Inicio / VicLab / Atlas - Atlas de documentos” UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, Last Updated January 16, 2023. Accessed June 13-16, 2023, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/mapa-2/#1>; “Inicio / VicLab / Atlas” UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, 2023. Accessed June 7, 2023, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/atlas-en/>; and UNODC and UNODC-INEGI CdE, Atlas of Criminal Victimization Surveys, Accessed January 15, 2019.

* The figures presented here are restricted to assault and may therefore underestimate the true extent of crime victimization. The aggregate percentage is not adjusted for underreporting.

SECTION VI

**THE INSTITUTIONAL
VIEW OF JUSTICE
PROVISION**

Each year, the WJP produces the *WJP Rule of Law Index*, a systematic and comprehensive overview of the rule of law. Eight different factors are considered to produce a score that reflects a country's adherence to the rule of law.⁵⁰ Using household survey and expert survey data from in-country legal practitioners, experts, and academics in different areas of the law, Factors 7 and 8 of the Index assess the effectiveness of the civil and criminal justice systems.⁵¹ The Index's rigorous assessment of key justice factors offers valuable insights into relevant institutional characteristics of civil and criminal justice systems around the world and trends of improvement or deterioration over time.

Factor 7 of the Index measures whether ordinary people can resolve their grievances peacefully and effectively through the civil justice system. This factor includes an assessment of the accessibility and affordability of the civil courts, legal advice, and representation services; barriers to access in the court system; the presence of discrimination, corruption, and improper government or political influence; the effectiveness and timeliness of proceedings and decisions; and whether alternative dispute resolution mechanisms (ADRs) are affordable, efficient, enforceable, and free of corruption. Factor 8 evaluates a country's criminal justice system by assessing the effectiveness of criminal investigation, adjudication, and correctional systems; the impartiality of the criminal justice system; the presence of corruption and improper government influence; and respect for due process and the rights of the accused.

In recent years, the *WJP Rule of Law Index* has identified concerning trends. A majority of countries are experiencing deteriorating conditions with regard to the rule of law and access to justice. The most recent assessment of the supply of justice institutions in the *WJP Rule of Law Index 2023* indicates a persistent deterioration in the effectiveness of the civil and criminal justice systems.⁵²

- » **Factor 7: Civil Justice is the area that deteriorated in the most countries: two out of three countries experienced a decline in this indicator between 2022 and 2023.**
- » **Factor 8: Criminal Justice fell in 56% of countries in the same period.**

7. THE CAPACITY AND INTEGRITY OF JUSTICE INSTITUTIONS

CHART 7.1

The Capacity and Integrity of Civil Justice Institutions

Factor 7 Scores of the WJP Rule of Law Index 2023

Factor 7: Civil Justice is the area that deteriorated in the most countries: two out of three countries experienced a decline in this indicator between 2022 and 2023.

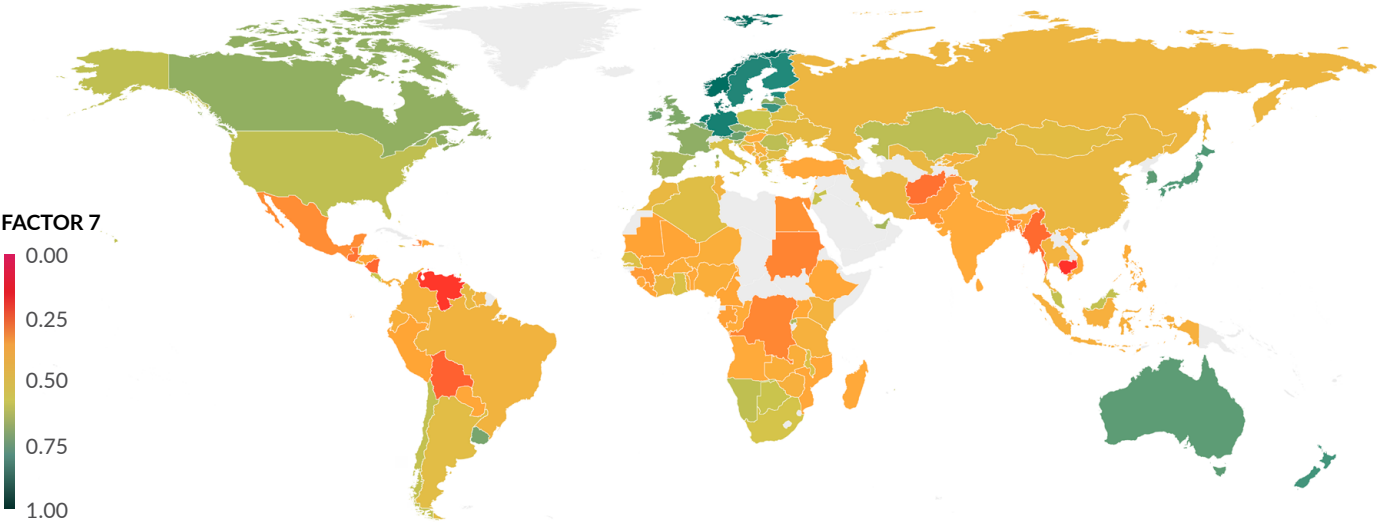
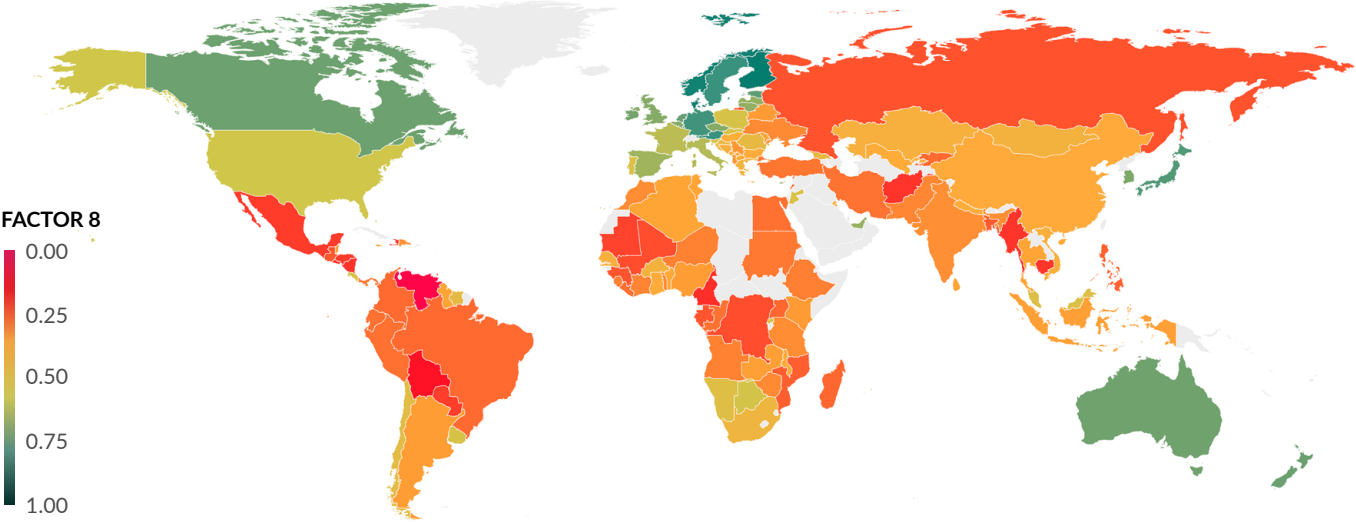


CHART 7.2

The Capacity and Integrity of Criminal Justice Institutions

Factor 8 Scores of the WJP Rule of Law Index 2023

Factor 8: Criminal Justice fell in 56% of countries between 2022 and 2023.



SECTION VII

ACCESS TO JUSTICE
AND THE COVID-19
PANDEMIC

The COVID-19 pandemic was a shock that upended lives and justice journeys worldwide. The prevalence of different types of legal problems was significantly impacted by the pandemic and the resulting government responses. The pandemic also posed significant challenges for civil and criminal justice systems, which resulted in mounting unmet justice needs.⁵⁴

There is a substantial amount of evidence to indicate that the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the prevalence of legal problems. Research suggests an increase in certain legal problems associated with the pandemic. Based on quantitative case-based evidence, legal disputes related to health, education, and housing increased, with particularly adverse effects on economically disadvantaged groups.⁵⁵ Qualitative evidence illustrates how the economic and health effects of the pandemic disproportionately affected vulnerable populations such as those who lack official proof of identity or proof of housing or land tenure. Individuals in informal employment; groups facing discrimination because of their gender, migration status, or ethnic identity; and incarcerated individuals were also disproportionately impacted by the pandemic.⁵⁶ Similarly, based on problem-focused research, there is a consensus around the spike in violence against women due to circumstances exacerbated by COVID-19.⁵⁷

At the same time, recent country-based studies indicate that the effects of the pandemic on legal problems were not homogeneous. Specific criminal and civil disputes decreased in association with the requirements of social distancing and the tenuous nature of jobs.⁵⁸ For example, harassment and discrimination became less frequent in labor disputes.⁵⁹ Moreover, depending on the context, some legal problems that decreased in frequency became more common later in the pandemic, such as those related to eviction and home mortgages in the United States.⁶⁰

This context-based heterogeneity may have been a partial response to how well-prepared countries were to face a pandemic. Another contributing factor could be the effect of measures that governments passed and were able to enforce to contain the spread of COVID-19 while also trying to keep the world economy afloat. The interaction between these factors requires further systematic exploration.

In terms of the resolution of legal disputes, the pandemic and the social distancing measures implemented made it difficult, and in some cases impossible, for decision makers to continue to provide justice services. This resulted in further delays in proceedings and an increase in the backlog of cases worldwide.⁶¹ Nonetheless, the challenges presented by COVID-19 catalyzed innovative policy responses. These policies include partial amnesties, restraint in the prosecution of low-level offenses, and other measures to reduce jail overcrowding and case backlogs in the criminal justice space.⁶² In addition, the use of Information and Communications Technology, as well as procedural changes that allowed for the continuation of services in the context of social distancing, are among the other examples of justice solutions accelerated by COVID-19.⁶³

This body of research raises crucial questions and provides findings relevant to these specific contexts. However, there remains a need for research with more generalizable, global findings. The pandemic opened a window of opportunity to learn not only from the deficiencies it revealed in justice services, but also from the innovations to improve how such services respond to people's needs. The community of justice actors at the global and local levels needs better evidence on which justice solutions worked and how to replicate them. For decision makers to extract actionable lessons from COVID-19, local findings need to be included in a more comprehensive conversation. This conversation would also benefit from findings based on a

systematic, comparable body of research that allows data disaggregation based on the types of legal problems, and the justice solutions people might access throughout their justice journeys.

While this research would exceed the timeframe and extent of this report, based on the *WJP Rule of Law Index* this section provides systematic evidence of the degree to which the COVID-19 pandemic posed major challenges to civil and criminal justice systems globally.⁶⁴ The *WJP Rule of Law Index* measures overall trends in criminal and civil justice institutions, allowing analysis of change over time. Between 2020 and 2022:

- » **92% of countries and jurisdictions experienced increased delays in administrative, civil, and/or criminal proceedings.**
- » **75% of countries and jurisdictions saw declines in the overall effectiveness of their civil justice systems.**
- » **67% of countries and jurisdictions experienced declines in the effectiveness of their criminal justice systems.**

8. INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSE TO CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE NEEDS BEFORE AND AFTER COVID-19*

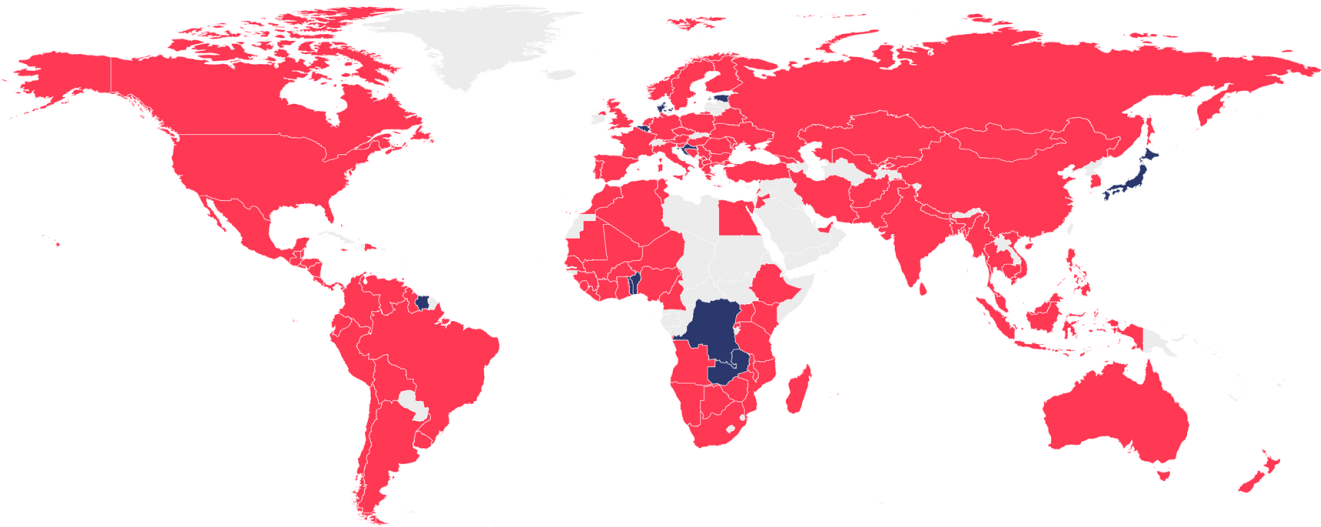
CHART 8.1

Delays in Civil Justice, Criminal Justice, and Administrative Proceedings Before and After COVID-19**

▶ DELAYS IN ADMINISTRATIVE, CIVIL, AND/OR CRIMINAL PROCEEDINGS, 2020 TO 2022

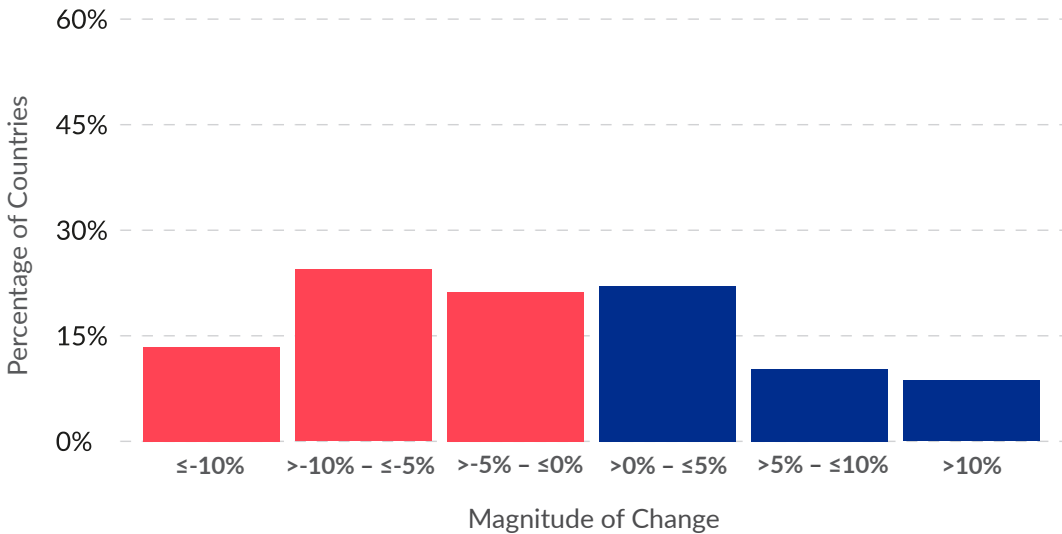
- Countries that experienced a decline
- Countries that experienced an improvement

Between 2020 and 2022, 92% of countries and jurisdictions in the WJP Rule of Law Index experienced increased delays in administrative, civil, and/or criminal proceedings.



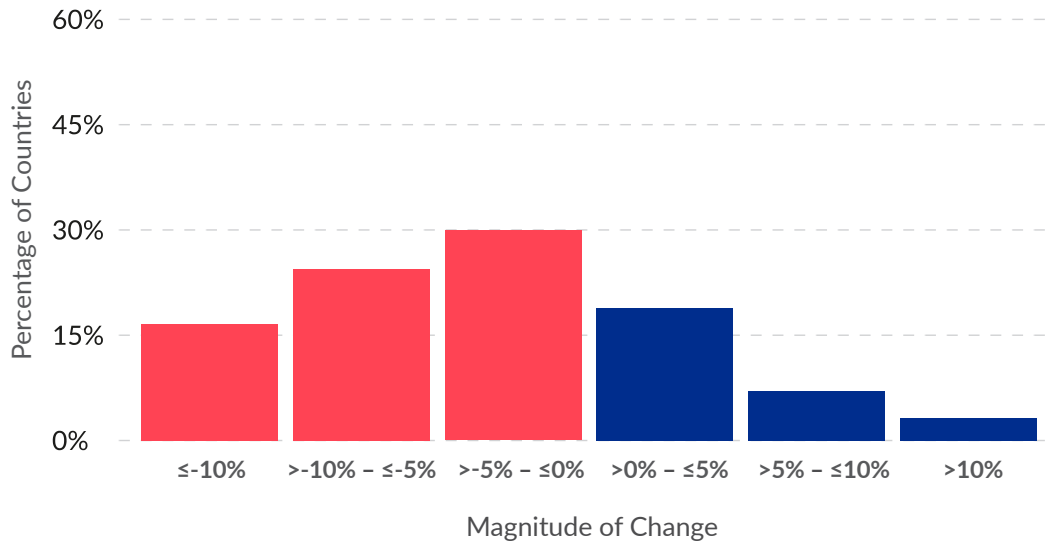
▶ DELAYS IN ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEEDINGS FROM 2020 TO 2022 (SUB-FACTOR 6.3)

- Percentage of countries that experienced a decline
- Percentage of countries that experienced an improvement



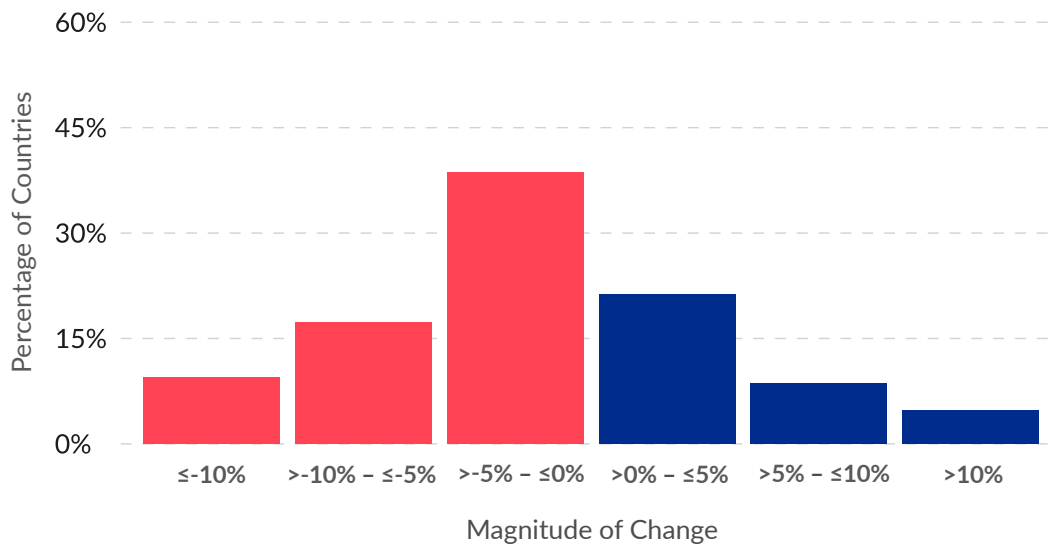
Specifically, delays in administrative proceedings (sub-factor 6.3) grew in 59% of countries and jurisdictions in the Index.

► DELAYS IN CIVIL JUSTICE (SUB-FACTOR 7.5) GREW IN 71% OF COUNTRIES AND JURISDICTIONS.



Delays in civil justice (sub-factor 7.5) grew in 71% of countries and jurisdictions.

► DELAYS IN CRIMINAL ADJUDICATION (SUB FACTOR 8.2) FROM 2020 TO 2022



Looking at criminal adjudication (sub-factor 8.2), 65% of countries and jurisdictions experienced increased delays.

* For more information on the factors and sub-factors in the *WJP Rule of Law Index* used in this section, see Table A9.

** This analysis does not consider countries and jurisdictions included in the Index after 2020. Sub-factor 6.3 considers whether administrative proceedings are conducted without unreasonable delay. Sub-factor 7.5 assesses whether civil justice is subject to unreasonable delay. Sub-factor 8.2 considers the timeliness and effectiveness of the criminal adjudication system. Reported percentages of countries with increased delays also include countries that had no change in these subfactor scores.

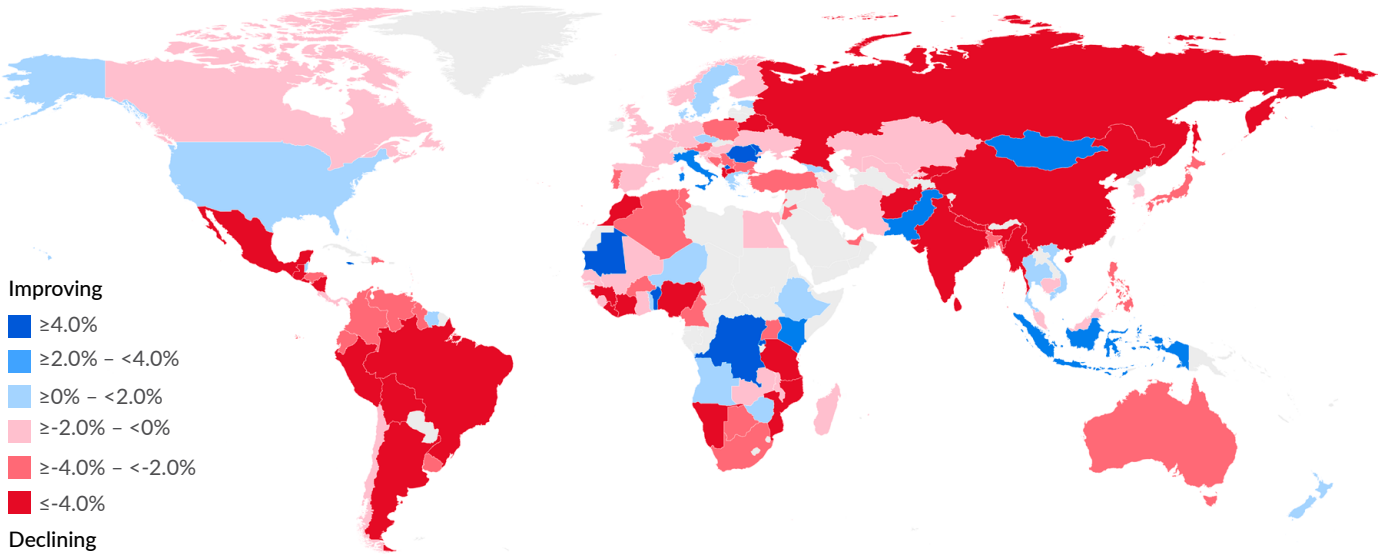
CHART 8.2

Effectiveness of the Civil Justice Systems Before and After COVID-19

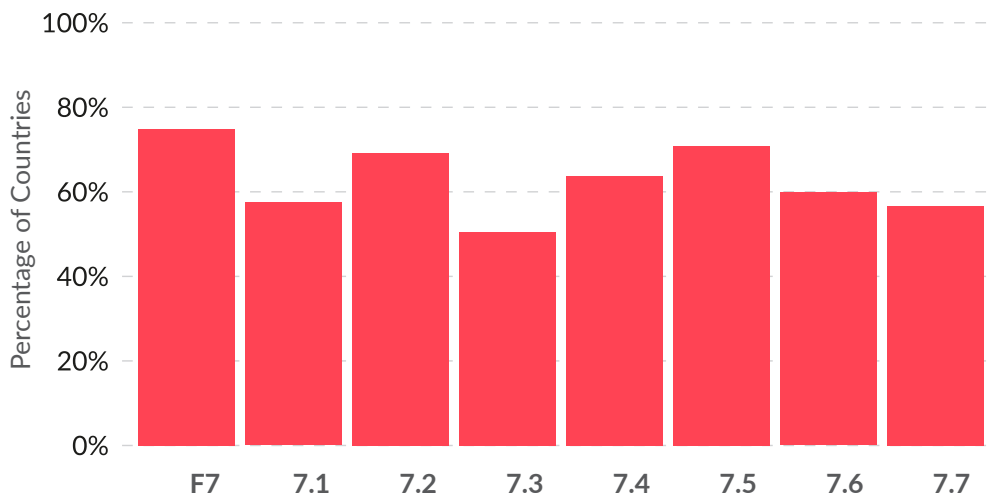
Percentage change in Factor 7: Civil Justice scores in each country from 2020 to 2022*, **

► PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES THAT:

Improved ↑ 25% Declined ↓ 75%



► PERCENTAGES OF COUNTRIES THAT DECLINED IN EACH SUB-FACTOR OF FACTOR 7



7.1 Accessibility and affordability

7.2 No discrimination

7.3 No corruption

7.4 No improper government influence

7.5 No unreasonable delay

7.6 Effective enforcement

7.7 Impartial and effective alternative dispute resolution

* This analysis does not consider countries and jurisdictions that were included in the Index after 2020.

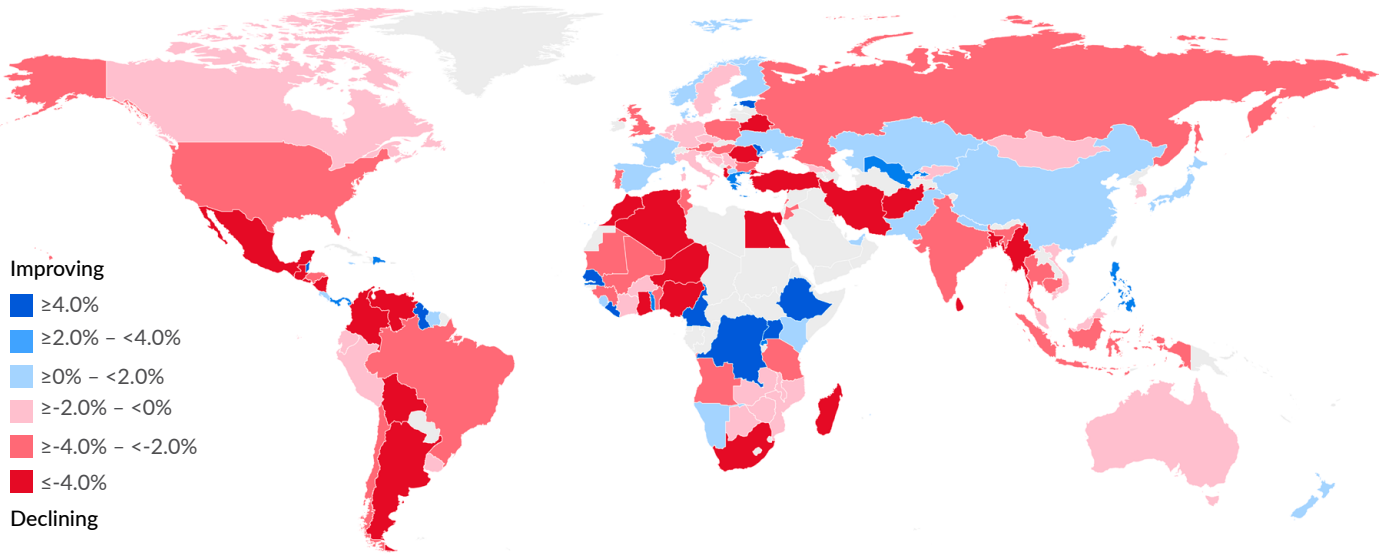
** Annual percentage change in Factor 7: Civil Justice score is rounded to one decimal place. Countries with annual percentage changes in this factor's scores that round to 0.0% have been graphed according to their unrounded score in order to show changes. Reported percentages of countries with changes in their factor and sub-factor scores also include countries that had no change.

CHART 8.3

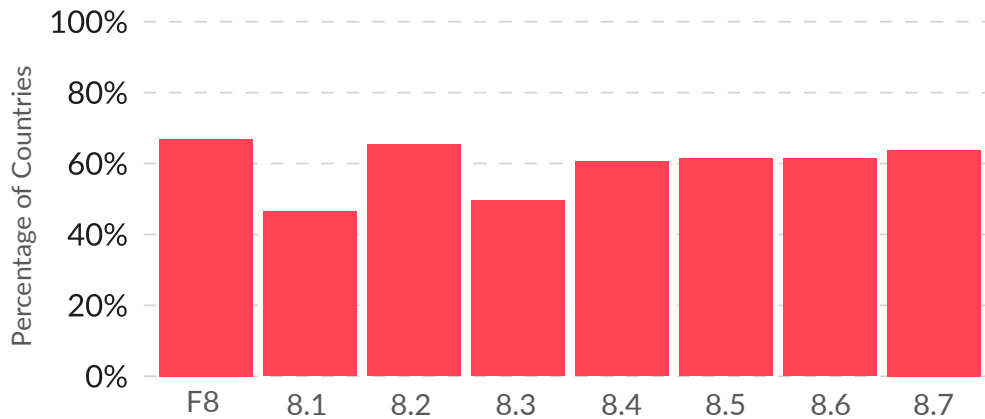
Effectiveness of the Criminal Justice Systems Before and After COVID-19

Percentage change in Factor 8: Criminal Justice, scores in each country from 2020 to 2022

► **PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES THAT:**



► **PERCENTAGES OF COUNTRIES THAT DECLINED IN EACH SUB-FACTOR OF FACTOR 8**



8.1 Effective investigation system

8.2 Timely and effective adjudication system

8.3 Effective correctional system

8.4 Impartiality

8.5 Freedom from corruption

8.6 Freedom from improper government influence

8.7 Due process

* This analysis does not consider countries and jurisdictions that were included in the Index after 2020.

** Annual percentage change in Factor 8: Criminal Justice score is rounded to one decimal place. Countries with annual percentage changes in this factor's scores that round to 0.0% have been graphed according to their unrounded score to show changes. Reported percentages of countries with changes in their factor and sub-factor scores also include countries that had no change.

SECTION VIII

A DATA ECOSYSTEM
FOR PEOPLE-CENTERED
JUSTICE

A robust data ecosystem is essential if justice actors are to assess and resolve people's justice needs through effective services. A successful justice data ecosystem is reliant on two interdependent factors: first, a community of actors that use and demand people-centered data to inform and improve justice services; and, second, a timely supply of relevant data on justice outcomes that is not only tailored to respond to this specific demand, but also standardized to be useful in other settings.

On the demand side, there is a community of stakeholders that includes policymakers at all levels of government, international organizations operating regionally and globally, civil society and community-based organizations, and academics. These stakeholders can guide the data collection agenda by investigating topics such as critical justice problems in their communities, which population groups disproportionately experience these problems, the prominent barriers to resolving them, and the most effective types of justice solutions. On the supply side, justice actors can combine data from a variety of sources to answer these policy questions. These sources include systematized court decisions, administrative data on the resources available to judiciaries and other actors, case management data, user satisfaction surveys, legal needs surveys, and qualitative case studies. Data may also be produced by intentionally repurposing existing datasets, generating new ones, and leveraging collaborations with various service providers and organizations. Ultimately, the virtuous cycle between the supply and demand of justice data will enhance policies on meeting people's needs. More precise data on people's justice needs can be supplied as more justice data is demanded to answer policy questions and provide new insights on how to improve policy responses to people's justice needs.

Structural and environmental conditions—such as the possibility of collaborations, necessary political will, and availability of resources to collect and use data—can reinforce the virtuous cycle between data supply and demand. Moreover, the sustainability of people-centered justice as a data-driven effort largely depends on actors adopting a mindset of constant learning. Under a framework of constant learning, evaluation, and policy experimentation, justice actors can motivate the continuous demand and use of data to inform policy innovation.

Producing and using data for people-centered justice requires a collaborative and sustained effort between service providers, decision makers, justice champions, and researchers in international organizations, government, academia, and civil society. While some of these actors might generate data and operationalize the measurement of justice outcomes, other justice stakeholders can use this data to improve and innovate service provision and address people's needs. In short, data production and analysis need to be co-designed with its audience and directly aimed at the resolution of people's needs.

The call for a healthy and functional data ecosystem is more relevant now than in 2021.⁶⁵ People-centered justice and its demand for data have taken on a new urgency after the COVID-19 pandemic. Growing poverty and inequality, the rise of authoritarianism worldwide,⁶⁶ and the full array of forms of political violence—including invasion by a foreign power, civil war, ethnic violence, and criminal violence—unraveling globally serve to further underline this need.

Justice actors still have the task of systematically assessing the existing supply of justice data. Within the current justice data ecosystem, there is no systematic analysis of the types of information that have not yet been collected, how existing sources might complement each other, or which standardized monitoring and evaluation indicators can be used to assess justice services.

Nonetheless, valuable efforts are pointing the data ecosystem in the right direction. First, the custodian agencies of SDG 16.3 have developed survey methodologies for countries to measure in a standardized way fundamental indicators of the rule of law and equal access to justice. These agencies then compile and verify that data to facilitate its publication and monitoring.⁶⁷ In turn, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the Center for Excellence at Mexico's National Statistics Office (INEGI) map the victimization surveys available and offer standardized indicators on criminal justice worldwide.⁶⁸ Similarly, the World Justice Project, through its Atlas of Legal Needs Surveys, builds on the efforts by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Open Society Foundations to document all legal needs surveys,⁶⁹ and to identify remaining gaps in legal needs survey research. These gaps in the data include its geographic coverage, target population, source (official or unofficial), and focus on vulnerable population groups.⁷⁰ Based on these assessments, there is a long road ahead to build a robust data ecosystem. Civil society and other organizations around the world have taken the first steps to providing data on people's experiences and perspectives on addressing their unmet legal needs. Nonetheless, data on justice needs and outcomes is still scarce.

- » **Civil society and international organizations have led the effort to conduct legal needs surveys (LNS) across the world:**
 - **Of the 108 countries where legal needs surveys have been conducted, only 14 countries have collected their own official data from LNS to add to the data collection efforts by international and civil society organizations (CSOs). International organizations and CSOs are the only source of LNS data for most countries with available data: 94 countries rely solely on unofficial LNS data.**⁷¹
- » **Similarly, only five countries have officially measured and reported official data on SDG Indicator 16.3.3 in the SDG Database.**⁷²
- » **Looking at the victimization and the reporting of crime, on which there is more standardized data available:**
 - **Just under one in four (24%) countries and jurisdictions have reported data on victimization and the reporting of burglary as a type of nonviolent crime.**⁷³
 - **Regarding violent crime, only 22% of countries and jurisdictions (49 in total) have produced and released data on victimization and the reporting of assault.**⁷⁴

In light of these observations, it becomes all the more urgent to act through concerted, collaborative, multistakeholder efforts to bring innovation and learning on people's needs to justice services and policies. There are several aspects where decision makers could foster innovation. Actors in the official arena should open the door to new actors contributing to data production. New technologies can be responsibly embraced to process the enormous amounts of data becoming available—for example, by using natural language processing techniques. These new technologies can also be used to manage this data and measure justice outcomes, and even to generate new insights—for instance, through artificial intelligence. The scarcity of resources, the urgency of people-centered justice, and competing priorities mean that building a solid data ecosystem will require creative leveraging of collaborations to make the best of the resources available for data collection, analysis, and use as shown in the above examples.

9. PEOPLE-CENTERED JUSTICE AS A DATA-DRIVEN EFFORT

TABLE 9.1

Countries Measuring Indicator 16.3.3 of the Sustainable Development Goals

As of September 2023, only five countries and jurisdictions have officially reported on SDG Indicator 16.3.3.

Country/Jurisdiction	Year of Data Collection
Canada	2022
Colombia	2022
The Gambia	2021
Peru	2021
State of Palestine*	2021

CHART 9.2

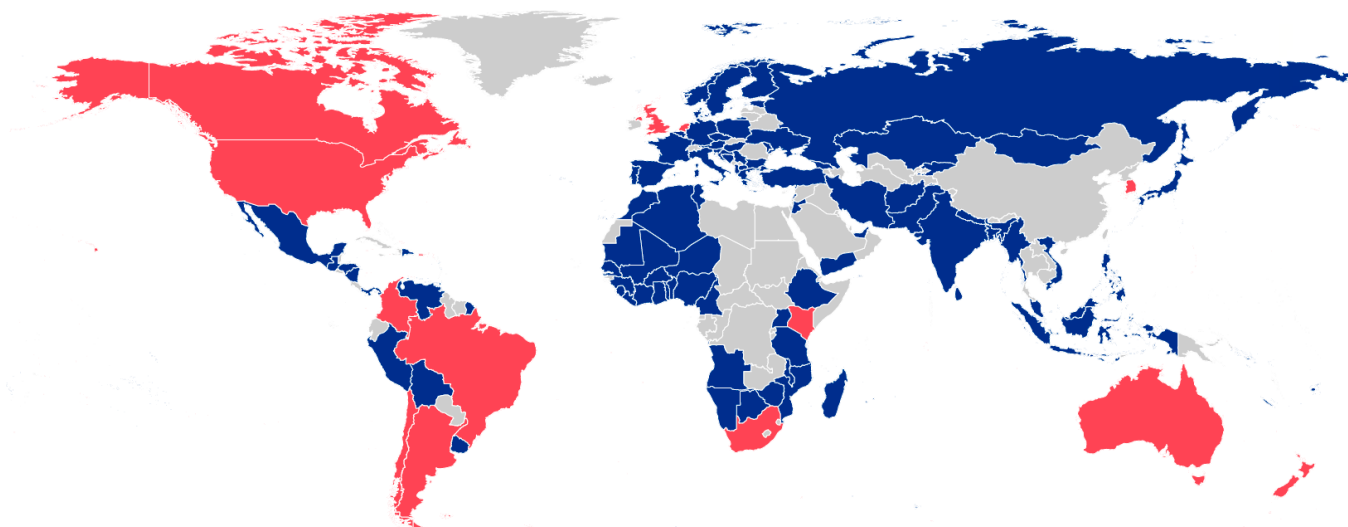
Official and Non-Official Legal Needs Surveys

Only 14 countries have implemented their own official LNSs, which add to the data collection efforts by international and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in these settings.

International organizations and civil society organizations (CSOs) are the only source of LNS data for most countries with available data: 94 countries rely solely on unofficial LNS data.**

■ Countries that have official legal needs surveys

■ Countries that only have unofficial legal needs surveys



Source: Atlas of Legal Needs Surveys, World Justice Project, accessed June 7, 2023.

<https://worldjusticeproject.org/legal-needs-atlas>

* In this report, the State of Palestine is referred to as such in line with the naming convention utilized by the UN SDG Indicators Database.

** CSOs, with some participation from academic institutions and professional organizations, have led efforts to conduct unofficial legal needs surveys. Only three of the unofficial surveys featured in the Atlas of Legal Needs Surveys were carried out by international organizations.⁷⁵ However, it is worth noting that international organizations play a significant role in methodological standardization and the promotion of this type of survey.

| PROJECT DESIGN

51 Methodology

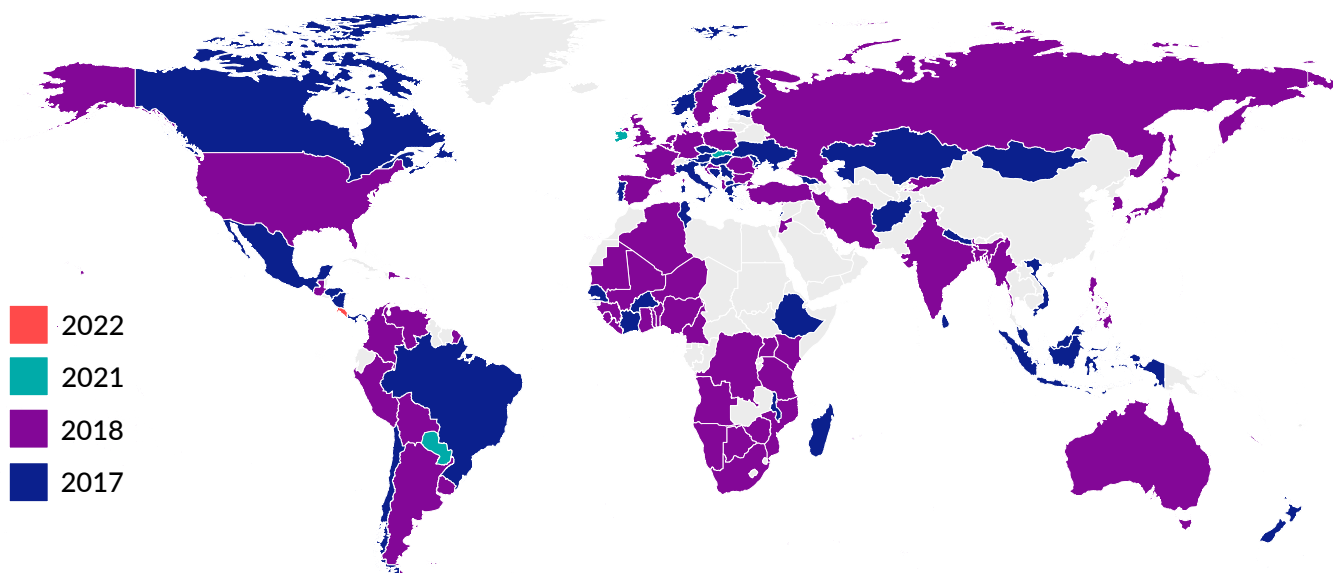
METHODOLOGY

GENERAL POPULATION POLL & THE WJP GLOBAL LEGAL NEEDS SURVEY

The data presented in this report is derived from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*, a module that has been administered as part of the WJP's General Population Poll (GPP), in addition to demographic data from the GPP. The legal needs survey (LNS) data that informs this report was collected between 2017 and 2022: 43 countries were surveyed in 2017, 56 countries were surveyed in 2018, three countries were surveyed in 2021, and one country was surveyed for the first time in 2022 (See Figure M1). The demographic data that informs the analysis in this report was collected between 2018 and 2023: 31 of the countries included in this report use only GPP demographic data (See Figure M1). The complete list of countries and the year of data collection for the GPP demographic data are shown in Table A7. For more information on specific country coverage and the polling methodology, see Table M1.

FIGURE M1.

Justice Data Graphical Report II (*WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*)



DATA VALIDATION

The data and analysis presented in this report have undergone four layers of validation.

1. First, development of the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* involved extensive research, consultation, and vetting. The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* was developed in consultation with organizations such as the Open Society Justice Initiative (OSJI) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), as well as government, multilateral, civil society, and academic actors from various countries. Data collected in 2017 and 2018 went through a multi-step validation protocol prior to publication. For further details regarding the development and implementation of the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* and the data validation process, see *Global Insights on Access to Justice: Project Design and Methodology*.
2. The second layer of the data validation process focused on four countries that were added to the data set following publication of the *Global Insights on Access to Justice* report in 2019. Building on the existing database of countries referenced in that report, this report includes Costa Rica, Ireland, Paraguay, and the Slovak Republic, all countries that were surveyed for the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* in 2021 and 2022. In order to ensure the validity and quality of this data, the country-level estimates were compared to those of regional and economic peer countries, as well as to the country's performance on relevant factors in the *WJP Rule of Law Index*. This process comprised two complementary reviews: one internal and one external. The internal review considered the duration of the survey interview (maximum, minimum, and average duration), and a comparison of data between new countries and countries previously included, selected according to their geographical proximity, their overall *World Justice Project Rule of Law Index* scores, and their scores in Factor 7: Civil Justice and Factor 8: Criminal Justice of the Index. The external validation process utilized news sources, and independent reports about the rule of law and access to justice in each country.
3. Third, the data was validated in a rigorous data cleaning process. The raw survey data has been reviewed for abnormalities. For example, responses were dropped if the respondent indicated that they had experienced more than 25 disputes (with a severity greater than or equal to 4) in the two years prior to being surveyed. This threshold was identified after considering multiple approaches, including the use of standard deviation-based thresholds, and is intended to strike a balance between validity and authenticity.
4. Lastly, the statistical analysis has been vetted by colleagues at the WJP who have independently reviewed and replicated the programming needed for this analysis. This step is intended to ensure accuracy in the analytical approach, and to minimize the margin for human error.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* is the first to capture comparable data on adults' legal needs and access to justice from a large number of countries. While the majority of the existing legal needs surveys varied greatly from country to country and focused primarily on developed nations, this standardized survey allows cross-country comparison, thereby providing general benchmarks for understanding legal needs and access to justice, as well as additional indicators for measuring access to justice at the global level.

The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* sample sizes are relatively large, at approximately 1,000 respondents per country. Furthermore, the module is comprehensive and detailed, comprising

128 questions that strike a careful balance between inclusion of key components of a legal needs survey while ensuring quality data collection and minimizing the risk of survey fatigue. Additionally, the variety of questions included in a single questionnaire allows disaggregation and analysis of the data across relevant socioeconomic characteristics to identify the disproportionate experience of justice needs of vulnerable groups. That said, as with any survey, there tend to be statistical power issues when conducting hyper-disaggregated analysis. For that reason, any estimates based on sample sizes of fewer than 15 respondents are noted in the footnotes of the corresponding graphics.

Finally, the WJP has engaged in a deliberate survey development and implementation process that includes careful consideration of the sample frame to ensure representativeness. For 58 of the countries, data was collected in three major urban areas in each country. To ensure that this sampling strategy does not erode the representativeness of the survey, the WJP undertook a validation exercise which compared data collected from 1,000 households in the three largest cities of Romania and Afghanistan against nationally representative studies of more than 3,000 households.⁷⁶ The WJP found consistent patterns in the data collected from the urban and nationally representative samples. This included consistency in the incidence of problem types, sources of help, courses of action to resolve problems, and preferred resolution mechanisms. The other 49 countries were polled using a nationally representative sample stratification method.

TABLE M1.

Country Coverage and Polling Methodology

Country/Jurisdiction	Coverage	Polling Company	Methodology	Sample	Year	GLNS*
Albania	Nationally Representative	IDRA Research & Consulting	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Algeria	Nationally Representative	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Angola	Nationally Representative	Marketing Support Consultancy	Face-to-face	1010	2018	Yes
Antigua and Barbuda	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	513/500	2018/2022	
Argentina	Nationally Representative	Statmark Group	Face-to-face	1010/759	2018/2022	Yes
Australia	Nationally Representative	Big Picture Marketing Strategy and Research	Online	1067	2018	Yes
Austria	Vienna, Graz, Linz	YouGov	Online	1008	2017	Yes
The Bahamas	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Bangladesh	Dhaka, Chittagong, Khulna	Org-Quest Research Limited	Face-to-face	1000	2016/2018	Yes
Barbados	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Belgium	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1007	2018	Yes
Belize	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	2004	2021	
Benin	Nationally Representative	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	1010	2018	Yes
Bolivia	Nationally Representative	Captura Consulting	Face-to-face	1000/1000	2018/2022	Yes
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Sarajevo, Banja Luka, Tuzla	Kantar TNS MIB	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Botswana	Nationally Representative	BJKA Consulting	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Brazil	São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Salvador**/Nationally Representative	Datum Internacional/About Brazil Market Research	Face-to-face	1049/1079	2017/2022	Yes
Bulgaria	Sofia, Plovdiv, Varna	Alpha Research Ltd.	Face-to-face	1001	2018	Yes
Burkina Faso	Ouagadougou, Bobo Dioulasso, Koudougou	Kantar TNS	Face-to-face	1029	2017	Yes
Cameroon	Nationally Representative	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	1006	2018	Yes
Canada	Toronto, Montreal, Calgary	YouGov	Online	1000	2017	Yes
Chile	Santiago, Valparaíso/Viña del Mar, Antofagasta	Datum Internacional S.A./ Cadem S.A.	Face-to-face	1011	2017	Yes
China	Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	508	2018	
Colombia	Nationally Representative	Tempo Group	Face-to-face	1000/1000	2018/2022	Yes
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Kinshasa, Lubumbashi, Mbuji-Mayi	Kantar Public at TNS RMS Senegal	Face-to-face	1083	2018	Yes
Congo, Rep.	Nationally Representative	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	517	2021	
Costa Rica	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	1005	2022	Yes
Côte d'Ivoire	Abidjan, Bouaké, Daloa	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	1011	2017	Yes
Croatia	Nationally Representative	Ipsos	Face-to-face	1010	2018	Yes
Cyprus	Nationally Representative	Oulse Market Research	Online	504	2021	
Czechia	Prague, Brno, Ostrava	YouGov	Online	1013	2017	Yes

* All countries in this table were surveyed using the General Population Poll (GPP). Countries included in this column were surveyed using the Global Legal Needs Survey (GLNS) in addition to the GPP.

** Table M1 in the WJP Justice Data Graphical Report Part I, incorrectly lists the locations used for the data collection in Brazil. The information included in this table corrects that mistake.

Country/Jurisdiction	Coverage	Polling Company	Methodology	Sample	Year	GLNS*
Denmark	Copenhagen, Aarhus, Aalborg	YouGov	Online	1016	2017	Yes
Dominica	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Dominican Republic	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	1002/1002	2018/2022	Yes
Ecuador	Nationally Representative	StatMark Group	Face-to-face	1005	2022	
El Salvador	Nationally Representative	CID Latinoamerica	Face-to-face	1000	2018	
Estonia	Tallinn, Tartu, Narva	Norstat Eest	Online	1010	2017	Yes
Ethiopia	Addis Ababa, Gondar, Nazret	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1037	2017	Yes
Finland	Helsinki, Espoo, Tampere	YouGov	Online	1014	2017	Yes
France	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1040	2018	Yes
Gabon	Nationally Representative	Marketing Support Consultancy Ltd.	Face-to-face	513	2022	
The Gambia	Nationally Representative	Infinite Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	1030	2019	
Georgia	Tbilisi, Batumi, Kutaisi	ACT Market Research and Consulting Company	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Germany	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1048	2018	Yes
Ghana	Nationally Representative	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1103	2018	Yes
Greece	Athens, Thessaloniki, Patras	YouGov	Online	1015	2017	Yes
Grenada	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Guatemala	Nationally Representative	Mercaplan	Face-to-face	1008/2508	2018/2021	Yes
Guinea	Conakry, Nzerekore, Kankan	Kantar Public at TNS RMS Senegal	Face-to-face	1065	2018	Yes
Guyana	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Haiti	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	507	2022	
Honduras	Tegucigalpa, San Pedro Sula, Choloma/Nationally Representative	CID-Gallup Latin America	Face-to-face	1000/3003	2017/2021	Yes
Hong Kong SAR, China	Hong Kong	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1004	2017	Yes
Hungary	Budapest, Debrecen, Szeged	Ipsos Hungary	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
India	Nationally Representative	Market Xcel Data Matrix Pvt. Ltd	Face-to-face	1059	2018	Yes
Indonesia	Jakarta, Surabaya, Bandung	MRI (Marketing Research Indonesia)	Face-to-face	1004	2017	Yes
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Tehran, Mashhad, Isfahan	BJKA consulting with local partner MHA Research	Face-to-face	1010	2018	Yes
Ireland	Nationally Representative	Dynata	Online	1027	2021	Yes
Italy	Rome, Milan, Naples	YouGov	Online	1004	2017	Yes
Jamaica	Nationally Representative	StatMark Group	Face-to-face	531	2022	
Japan	Nationally Representative	Acorn Marketing & Research Consultant (M) Sdn Bhd	Online	1000	2018	Yes
Jordan	Nationally Representative	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Kazakhstan	Almaty, Nur-Sultan (formerly Astana), Shymkent	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Kenya	Nationally Representative	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1099	2018	Yes

Country/Jurisdiction	Coverage	Polling Company	Methodology	Sample	Year	GLNS*
Korea, Rep.	Nationally Representative	Acorn Marketing & Research Consultant (M) Sdn Bhd	Online	1000	2018	Yes
Kosovo	Nationally Representative	IDRA Research & Consulting	Face-to-face	1000	2019	
Kyrgyz Republic	Nationally Representative	Ipsos	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Latvia	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1049	2021	
Lebanon	Beirut, Tripoli, Sidon	REACH SAL	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Liberia	Monrovia, Gbarnga and Buchanan	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1113	2018	Yes
Lithuania	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1066	2021	
Luxembourg	Nationally Representative	TNS Ilres	Online	651	2021	
Madagascar	Antananarivo, Toamasina, Antsirabe	DCDM Research	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Malawi	Lilongwe, Blantyre, Mzuzu	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1039	2017	Yes
Malaysia	Klang Valley, Johor Bahru, Ipoh	Acorn Marketing & Research Consultant (M) Sdn Bhd	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Mali	Nationally Representative	Marketing Support Consultancy	Face-to-face	1012	2018	Yes
Malta	Nationally Representative	MISCO International Limited	Face-to-face	500	2021	
Mauritania	Nationally Representative	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Mauritius	Nationally Representative	DCDM Research	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Mexico	Mexico City, Guadalajara, Monterrey	Data Opinión Pública y Mercados	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Moldova	Chisinau, Balti, Cahul	Georgian Opinion Research Business International (GORBI) in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1043	2017	Yes
Mongolia	Ulaanbaatar, Erdenet, Darkhan	Mongolian Marketing Consulting Group LLC	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Montenegro	Nationally Representative	Indago / Smart Plus Research d.o.o.	Face-to-face	1000	2023	
Mozambique	Nationally Representative	Quest Research Services	Face-to-face	1009	2018	Yes
Myanmar	Yangon, Mandalay, Nay Pyi Taw	Myanmar Survey Research Co., Ltd (MSR)	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Namibia	Nationally Representative	Quest Research Services	Face-to-face	1001	2018	Yes
Nepal	Kathmandu, Pokhara, Lalitpur	Solutions Consultant	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Netherlands	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1113	2018	Yes
New Zealand	Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch	Big Picture Marketing Strategy & Research	Online	1000	2017	Yes
Nicaragua	Managua, Masaya, Leon/ Nationally Representative	CID-Gallup Latin America	Face-to-face	1000/1000	2017/2019	Yes
Niger	Niamey, Zinder, Maradi	Liaison Marketing	Face-to-face	1011	2018	Yes
Nigeria	Nationally Representative	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1083	2018	Yes
North Macedonia	Skopje, Kumanovo, Bitola/ Nationally Representative	Ipsos dooel Skopje	Face-to-face		2017/2023	Yes
Norway	Oslo, Bergen, Trondheim	YouGov	Online	1007	2017	Yes
Pakistan	Nationally Representative	Gallup Pakistan	Face-to-face	1000	2019	
Panama	Panama, San Miguelito, Las Cumbres/ Nationally Representative	Gallup Panamá/CID Gallup	Face-to-face	1000/2502	2017/2021	Yes
Paraguay	Nationally Representative	Datum Internacional/BM Business Partners	Face-to-face	1000	2021	Yes

Country/Jurisdiction	Coverage	Polling Company	Methodology	Sample	Year	GLNS*
Peru	Nationally Representative	Datum Interacional S.A.	Face-to-face	1000/897	2018/2022	Yes
Philippines	Manila, Cebu, Davao	APMI Partners	Face-to-face	1008	2016/2018	Yes
Poland	Warsaw, Krakow, Lodz	IQS Sp. z o.o	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Portugal	Lisbon, Porto, Amadora	YouGov	Online	1016	2017	Yes
Romania	Nationally Representative	Alpha Research Ltd. in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Russian Federation	Nationally Representative	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Rwanda	Kigali	Infinite Inisht Ltd.	Face-to-face	316	2018	
Senegal	Pikine, Dakar, Thiès	Kantar TNS	Face-to-face	1012	2017	Yes
Serbia	Belgrade, Novi Sad, Niš	Ipsos Strategic Marketing d.o.o.	Face-to-face	1002	2017	Yes
Sierra Leone	Nationally Representative	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1165	2018	Yes
Singapore	Singapore	Survey Sampling International	Online	1000	2017	Yes
Slovak Republic	Nationally Representative	WJP in collaboration with local partner	Online	1022	2021	Yes
Slovenia	Ljubljana, Maribor, Celje	Ipsos d.o.o.	Face-to-face	1006	2017	Yes
South Africa	Nationally Representative	Quest Research Services	Face-to-face	1014	2018	Yes
Spain	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1051	2018	Yes
Sri Lanka	Colombo, Kaduwela, Maharagama	Kantar LMRB	Face-to-face	1010	2017	Yes
St. Kitts and Nevis	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2018	
St. Lucia	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	Nationally Representative	DMR Insights Ltd.	Face-to-face	500	2022	
Sudan	Nationally Representative	Sudan Polling and Statistics Center	Face-to-face	500	2021	
Suriname	Nationally Representative	D3: Designs, Daya, Decisions	Face-to-face	522	2022	
Sweden	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1049	2018	Yes
Tanzania	Dar es Salaam, Mwanza, Arusha	Infinite Insight Ltd.	Face-to-face	1037	2018	Yes
Thailand	Bangkok, Nakhon Ratchasima, Udon Thani	Infosearch Limited	Face-to-face	1000	2018	
Togo	Nationally Representative	Marketing Support Consultancy	Face-to-face	1005	2018	Yes
Trinidad and Tobago	Nationally Representative	CID Gallup	Face-to-face	1006/1001	2018/2022	Yes
Tunisia	Big Tunis, Sfax, Sousse	BJKA Consulting	Face-to-face	1001	2017	Yes
Türkiye	İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir	Kantar Insights	Face-to-face	1039	2018	Yes
Uganda	Kampala, Nansana, Kira	Kantar Public East Africa	Face-to-face	1062	2018	Yes
Ukraine	Kyiv, Kharkiv, Odessa	GfK Ukraine	Face-to-face	1079	2017	Yes
United Kingdom	Nationally Representative	YouGov	Online	1056	2018	Yes
United States	Nationally Representative	YouGov Nordic	Online	1086/1258	2018/2021	Yes
Uruguay	Nationally Representative	BM Business Partners	Face-to-face	1000	2018	Yes
Uzbekistan	Nationally Representative	Info Sapiens International LLC	Face-to-face	507	2021	
Venezuela, RB	Nationally Representative	StatMark Group	Face-to-face	1015	2018	Yes
Vietnam	Ho Chi Minh City, Hanoi, Hai Phong	Indochina Research (Vietnam) Ltd.	Face-to-face	1000	2017	Yes
Zimbabwe	Nationally Representative	Quest Research Services	Face-to-face	1001	2018	Yes

| APPENDIX

59 Appendix

82 About the WJP

83 Related Publications

APPENDIX

WJP GLOBAL LEGAL NEEDS SURVEY

The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* within the General Population Poll (GPP) draws on a comprehensive review of past legal needs surveys and builds on what is known in the literature as the “Paths to Justice” tradition, highlighting the most common legal problems, respondents’ assessment of their legal capability, and sources of help. In addition, the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* also gathers information on the status of people’s problems, the resolution process, and the impact of their justice problems on their life. The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* was developed in consultation with an advisory team of expert stakeholders and comprises 128 of the 340 questions of the standard GPP survey instrument.

[WJP Global Legal Needs Survey](#)

TABLE A1

Categorization of Legal Problems from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*

Table A1 lists the individual variables from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*, part of the General Population Poll, that were used to create the problem grouping labels that feed into the analysis in this report.

Problem Grouping Label	Problem Type
Accidental Illness and Injury	F1: Injuries or health problems sustained as a result of an accident or due to poor working conditions F2: Injuries or health problems sustained as a result of negligent or wrong medical or dental treatment
Citizenship and ID	J1: Difficulties obtaining birth certificates for you or your children J2: Difficulties obtaining a government-issued ID card J3: Problems with you or your children's citizenship, residency, or immigration status
Community	E3: Problems with gangs, vandalism, or consumption of drugs or alcohol on the streets C3: Problems with your neighbors over noise, litter, parking spots, or pets
Consumer	A1: Problems related to poor or incomplete professional services (for example, services from a lawyer, builder, mechanic, etc.) A2: Problems related to obtaining a refund for faulty or damaged goods A3: Major disruptions in the supply of utilities (e.g. water, electricity, phone) or incorrect billing
Employment	G1: Being dismissed from a job unfairly G2: Difficulties obtaining wages or employment benefits that were agreed on in advance G3: Harassment at work
Education	E1: Difficulties obtaining a place at a school or other educational institution that you or your children are eligible to attend E2: You or your children being bullied or harassed at school or another educational institution
Family	D1: Divorce or separation D2: Difficulties obtaining child support payments D3: Difficulties paying child support D4: Dispute over child custody or visitation arrangements D5: Threats or physical violence from a current partner, ex-partner or other household member D6: Disagreement over the content of a will or the division of property after the death of a family member
Housing	C1: Problems with a landlord about rental agreements, payments, repairs, deposits, or eviction C2: Problems with a tenant about rental agreements or property damage C4: Becoming homeless
Land and Property	B1: Problems obtaining land titles, property titles, or permission for building projects for your own home B2: Problems related to squatting and land grabbing B3: Problems with your neighbors over boundaries or the right to pass through property, fences, or trees B4: Problems with co-owners or community members over selling property
Law Enforcement	I1: Being beaten up or arrested without justification by a member of the police or the military
Money and Debt	L1: Difficulties collecting money owed to you L2: Insurance claims being denied K1: Being behind on and unable to pay credit cards, utility bills (e.g. water, electricity, gas), or a loan K2: Being threatened by debt collectors over unpaid loans or bills K3: Being threatened, harassed, or extorted by a mob, a gang or another criminal organization.
Public Services	H1: Difficulties obtaining public benefits or government assistance, such as cash transfers, pensions, or disability benefits H2: Difficulties accessing care in public clinics or hospitals H3: Lack of access to water, sanitation, and/or electricity J4: Tax disputes or disputes with other government bodies

TABLE A2

Gender Inequality Index (Countries Included in this Report)

The Gender Inequality Index measures women’s access to work, education, health, and political power at the country level. As suggested by the analyses in this report, broader gender inequality and women’s empowerment may be associated with women’s greater exposure to legal problems occurring in the public sphere, the degree to which women have a voice and acknowledge their legal problems, and the barriers to justice and hardships women face due to their legal disputes.

Using the GII, the countries analyzed in Section I and Section III (Chart 3.4) were grouped into *Low* gender inequality countries, *Medium* gender inequality countries, and *High* gender inequality countries. Table A2 presents the GII tercile groupings according to the year in which the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*—analyzed in Section I—and the General Population Poll (GPP)—specifically the survey items measuring legal vulnerability outcomes—were conducted in each country.

The tercile groupings for this exercise were organized relative to the 104 countries and jurisdictions included in this report, and therefore may not always align with the rankings in the official GII. There are some discrepancies between the GII tercile categorization used for Section I* and that used for Section III**, as the distribution of country/values observed in the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* is different from the distribution of country/values observed in the GPP. In addition, 15 countries included in the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* and/or the GPP are not covered in the GII and are thus excluded from this analysis.†

Country	WJP Global Legal Needs Survey			WJP General Population Poll (GPP)		
	Survey Year	GI Score for Survey Year	Tercile	Survey Year	GI Score for Survey Year	Tercile
Albania	2018	0.164	1	2018	0.164	1
Algeria	2018	0.439	2	2018	0.439	2
Angola	2018	0.537	3	2018	0.537	3
Argentina	2018	0.315	2	2022	0.287	2
Australia	2018	0.092	1	2018	0.092	1
Austria	2017	0.072	1			
The Bahamas				2022	0.329	2
Bangladesh	2018	0.533	3			
Barbados				2022	0.268	1
Belgium	2018	0.053	1	2018	0.053	1
Belize				2021	0.364	2
Benin	2018	0.613	3	2018	0.613	3
Bolivia	2018	0.419	2	2022	0.418	2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2017	0.162	1			
Botswana	2018	0.474	3	2018	0.474	3
Brazil	2017	0.421	2	2022	0.39	2
Bulgaria	2018	0.21	1	2018	0.21	1
Burkina Faso	2017	0.6	3			
Cameroon	2018	0.572	3	2018	0.572	3
Canada	2017	0.083	1			

Country	WJP Global Legal Needs Survey			WJP General Population Poll (GPP)		
	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile
Chile	2017	0.243	2			
China				2018	0.206	1
Colombia	2018	0.427	2	2022	0.424	2
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2018	0.628	3	2018	0.628	3
Congo, Rep.				2021	0.564	3
Costa Rica	2022	0.256	2	2022	0.256	1
Cote d'Ivoire	2017	0.635	3			
Croatia	2018	0.125	1	2018	0.125	1
Cyprus				2021	0.123	1
Czechia	2017	0.133	1			
Denmark	2017	0.027	1			
Dominican Republic	2018	0.451	3	2022	0.429	2
Ecuador				2022	0.362	2
El Salvador				2018	0.37	2
Estonia	2017	0.106	1			
Ethiopia	2017	0.525	3			
Finland	2017	0.042	1			
France	2018	0.078	1	2018	0.078	1
Gabon				2022	0.541	3
The Gambia				2019	0.605	3
Georgia	2017	0.309	2			
Germany	2018	0.083	1	2018	0.083	1
Ghana	2018	0.539	3	2018	0.539	3
Greece	2017	0.129	1			
Guatemala	2018	0.517	3	2021	0.481	3
Guinea	2018	0.611	3	2018	0.611	3
Guyana				2022	0.454	3
Haiti				2022	0.635	3
Honduras	2017	0.424	2	2021	0.431	2
Hungary	2017	0.248	2			
India	2018	0.505	3	2018	0.505	3
Indonesia	2017	0.455	3			
Iran, Islamic Rep.	2018	0.452	3	2018	0.452	2
Ireland	2021	0.074	1	2021	0.074	1
Italy	2017	0.07	1			
Jamaica				2022	0.335	2
Japan	2018	0.087	1	2018	0.087	1
Jordan	2018	0.449	2	2018	0.449	2

Country	WJP Global Legal Needs Survey			WJP General Population Poll (GPP)		
	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile
Kazakhstan	2017	0.177	1			
Kenya	2018	0.514	3	2018	0.514	3
Korea, Rep.	2018	0.078	1	2018	0.078	1
Kyrgyz Republic	2017	0.38	2	2018	0.381	2
Latvia				2021	0.151	1
Lebanon	2017	0.462	3			
Liberia	2018	0.645	3	2018	0.645	3
Lithuania				2021	0.105	1
Luxembourg				2021	0.044	1
Madagascar	2017	0.554	3			
Malawi	2017	0.576	3			
Malaysia	2017	0.242	2			
Mali	2018	0.675	3	2018	0.675	3
Malta				2021	0.167	1
Mauritania	2018	0.634	3	2018	0.634	3
Mauritius	2018	0.38	2	2018	0.38	2
Mexico	2017	0.336	2			
Moldova	2017	0.242	2			
Mongolia	2017	0.326	2			
Montenegro				2023	0.119	1
Mozambique	2018	0.543	3	2018	0.543	3
Myanmar	2018	0.512	3	2018	0.512	3
Namibia	2018	0.442	2	2018	0.442	2
Nepal	2017	0.469	3			
Netherlands	2018	0.027	1	2018	0.027	1
New Zealand	2017	0.112	1			
Nicaragua	2017	0.431	2	2019	0.432	2
Niger	2018	0.635	3	2018	0.635	3
Nigeria	2018	0.67	3	2018	0.67	3
North Macedonia	2017	0.143	1	2023	0.134	1
Norway	2017	0.023	1			
Pakistan				2019	0.534	3
Panama	2017	0.417	2	2021	0.392	2
Paraguay	2021	0.445	2	2021	0.445	2
Peru	2018	0.403	2	2022	0.38	2
Philippines	2018	0.422	2			
Poland	2018	0.121	1	2018	0.121	1
Portugal	2017	0.077	1			

Country	WJP Global Legal Needs Survey			WJP General Population Poll (GPP)		
	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile	Survey Year	GII Score for Survey Year	Tercile
Romania	2018	0.282	2	2018	0.282	2
Russian Federation	2018	0.21	1	2018	0.21	1
Rwanda				2018	0.389	2
Senegal	2017	0.531	3			
Serbia	2017	0.138	1			
Sierra Leone	2018	0.638	3	2018	0.638	3
Singapore	2017	0.048	1			
Slovak Republic	2021	0.18	1	2021	0.18	1
Slovenia	2017	0.054	1			
South Africa	2018	0.405	2	2018	0.405	2
Spain	2018	0.062	1	2018	0.062	1
Sri Lanka	2017	0.372	2			
St. Lucia				2022	0.381	2
St. Vincent and the Grenadines				2022	0.39	2
Sudan				2021	0.553	3
Suriname				2022	0.427	2
Sweden	2018	0.031	1	2018	0.031	1
Tanzania	2018	0.562	3	2018	0.562	3
Thailand				2018	0.405	2
Togo	2018	0.586	3	2018	0.586	3
Trinidad and Tobago	2018	0.348	2	2022	0.344	2
Tunisia	2017	0.262	2			
Türkiye	2018	0.286	2	2018	0.286	2
Uganda	2018	0.533	3	2018	0.533	3
Ukraine	2017	0.26	2			
United Kingdom	2018	0.112	1	2018	0.112	1
United States	2018	0.192	1	2021	0.179	1
Uruguay	2018	0.258	2	2018	0.258	1
Uzbekistan				2021	0.227	1
Venezuela, RB	2018	0.483	3	2018	0.483	3
Vietnam	2017	0.303	2			
Zimbabwe	2018	0.535	3	2018	0.535	3

* Section I presents an analysis of the prevalence of legal problems and other justice outcomes from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*.

** Section III presents an analysis of prevalence and justice outcomes from the GPP.

† The countries excluded from this analysis are Antigua and Barbuda; Dominica; Grenada; Hong Kong SAR, China; and Saint Kitts and Nevis.

TABLE A3

Countries Below Observation Threshold

Table A3 lists the countries where estimates are based on sample sizes of fewer than 15 observations for the questions that feed into their respective graphs. Estimates in Chart 1.1 include countries for which the sample sizes of women and men are smaller than 15; Chart 1.3 includes countries for which the sample sizes of women and men who experienced hardship are smaller than 15; and Chart 5.1 includes countries for which the sub-sample sizes are smaller than 15.

Chart Label	Country
Chart 1.1 Gender Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems (Employment)	Albania, Bangladesh, Benin, Bulgaria, Colombia, Côte d'Ivoire, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Georgia, Ghana, Guatemala, Guinea, Honduras, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Kyrgyz Republic, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Poland, Romania, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe
Chart 1.1 Gender Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems (Family)	Albania, Bangladesh, Benin, Bulgaria, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Dominican Republic, Georgia, Guatemala, Honduras, Hungary, Indonesia, Japan, Kyrgyz Republic, Liberia, Myanmar, Namibia, Niger, Poland, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Ukraine, Venezuela, RB, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe
Chart 1.1 Gender Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems (Land)	Benin, Brazil, Bulgaria, Colombia, Côte d'Ivoire, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Hungary, Indonesia, Japan, Mauritania, Myanmar, Niger, Paraguay, Poland, Senegal, Sri Lanka, Ukraine, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe
Chart 1.1 Gender Disparities in the Prevalence of Legal Problems (Money)	Albania, Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Guatemala, Honduras, Japan, Kyrgyz Republic, Liberia, Malawi, Myanmar, Nicaragua, Niger, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela, RB, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe
Chart 1.3 Gender Disparities in Hardships	Algeria and Indonesia
Chart 5.1 Use of Informal or Alternative Dispute Resolution Around the World	Hong Kong SAR, China; and Vietnam

TABLE A4

Types of Hardships Considered in the Analysis

Table A4 provides the question-level variables that define the dimensions of hardships discussed in this report, based on the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*. For a country level, aggregated analysis of hardships, see Section V of Part I in this series.

Question Label	Dimension	Question Text
READ: At any time, did the problem cause you to experience:		
q42a	Health-related difficulties	Stress-related illness, injuries, or physical ill health?
q42b	Interpersonal difficulties	Relationship breakdown or damage to a family relationship?
q42c	Economic difficulties	Loss of income, loss of employment, financial strain, or need to relocate?
q42d	Difficulties with substance abuse	Problems with alcohol or drugs?

Categorization of Legal Problems Occurring in Informality

The *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* considers 38 types of legal problems, which can be grouped into various thematic categories. One such categorization focuses on legal problems that are more likely to occur in situations of informality. The study of informality* initially revolved around people and organizations as economic actors that were excluded from or opted out of the formal sector.⁷⁷ It has since evolved to be defined as activities or practices performed by an individual or group, that emerge in areas where state regulation is insufficient or where state mechanisms are ineffective.⁷⁸ For the purposes of this analysis, informality includes actions and experiences that fall outside of the realm of formal services or institutions. While legal problems within informality occur in all socioeconomic strata and development contexts, it is closely tied to legal vulnerability and poverty. People living in poverty more frequently lack the essential legal tools to exercise their rights and are more likely to be exposed to the dysfunctionalities and low quality of formal processes and institutions.⁷⁹

Given these conceptual elements, three categories have been developed to group together legal problems that may have similar elements of informality.

1. Asymmetric disputes, or disputes that plausibly occur between people living in poverty or legal vulnerability and a second party with relatively more economic and political resources.
2. Problems related to threats of violence, which occur almost by definition beyond legitimate state institutions and outside of the law.
3. Problems with access to public services, as opposed to those concerning the quality of available public services, included as a category of disputes occurring in situations of informality as access to benefits—and state institutions more generally—may be limited by people's legal vulnerability as expressed, for example, in their lack of official proof of identity.

Table A5 lists the individual variables from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* used to create the problem grouping labels that feed into the analysis of wealth-based disparity in the experience of legal problems occurring in informality, examined in Section II of this report.

Problem Grouping Label	Problem Type
Asymmetric disputes	B2: Problems related to squatting and land grabbing
	C4: Becoming homeless
	F1: Injuries or health problems sustained as a result of an accident or due to poor working conditions
	F2: Injuries or health problems sustained as a result of negligent or wrong medical or dental treatment
	G1: Being dismissed from a job unfairly
	G2: Difficulties obtaining wages or employment benefits that were agreed on in advance
	L1: Difficulties collecting money owed to you
Threats of violence in various contexts	D5: Threats or physical violence from a current partner, ex-partner or other household member
	E3: Problems with gangs, vandalism, or consumption of drugs or alcohol on the streets
	G3: Harassment at work
	I1: Being beaten up or arrested without justification by a member of the police or the military
	K2: Being threatened by debt collectors over unpaid loans or bills
	K3: Being threatened, harassed, or extorted by a mob, a gang or another criminal organization
Public services	H2: Difficulties accessing care in public clinics or hospitals
	H3: Lack of access to water, sanitation, and/or electricity

* As a multifaceted phenomenon, informality offers a unique lens through which to re-evaluate the social, cultural, and environmental dimensions often overlooked by conventional economic and policy approaches. Informality has been explored from various theoretical perspectives.⁸⁰ Over the past 50 years, the fields of economics and development have embraced a more comprehensive governance framework, which goes beyond the strict consideration of economic models and state institutions. In contrast to state-centric views of informality, social scientists have emphasized the pivotal role of individuals and society in understanding this phenomenon. First introduced in the 1970s, the concept of an “informal economy” addresses the intricate web of relationships, trust-building, and social networks that individuals are embedded in, which are inseparable from economic survival and are crucial to understanding economies and societies in the Global South.⁸¹

TABLE A6

Data on Informal Employment Rate

To promote international comparability, wherever possible, ILO statistics are based on standard international definitions. This means they may differ from official national figures. The ILOSTAT series on informal employment applies consistent criteria across countries to improve comparability. For more details, see the sources.

Country	Source used by ILO*	Most Recent Year Available
Afghanistan	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Albania	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Angola	LFS – Employment Survey	2021
Argentina	LFS – Encuesta Permanente de Hogares, Urbano	2021
Armenia	LFS – Household Labour Force Survey	2021
Australia	HIES – Household, Income and Labour Dynamics Survey	2020
Austria	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Bangladesh	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2017
Barbados	HIES – Survey on Living Conditions	2016
Belgium	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Benin	HIES – Enquête de Suivi de l'Enquête Modulaire et Intégrée sur les Conditions de Vie des Ménages	2018
Bolivia	LFS – Encuesta Continua de Empleo	2019
Bosnia and Herzegovina	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Botswana	HS – Multi-Topic Household Survey	2020
Brazil	HS – Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios Contínua	2021
Brunei	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Bulgaria	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Burkina Faso	LFS – Enquête Régionale Intégrée sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel	2018
Burundi	HIES – Living Standards Measurement Survey	2014
Cape Verde	LFS – Continuous Multi-Objective Survey Employment and Labor Market Statistics	2015
Cambodia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Cameroon	HS – Household Survey	2014
Chad	HIES – Enquête Modulaire et Intégrée sur les Conditions de Vie des Ménages	2018
Chile	LFS – Encuesta Nacional de Empleo	2021
Colombia	LFS – Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares	2021
Comoros	LFS – Enquête Nationale sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel	2021
Congo, Dem. Rep.	HIES – Enquête par Grappes à Indicateurs	2020
Cook Islands	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Costa Rica	LFS – Encuesta Continua de Empleo	2021
Côte d'Ivoire	LFS – Enquête Nationale sur la Situation de l'Emploi	2019
Croatia	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Cyprus	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Czechia	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Denmark	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2019
Djibouti	HS – Enquête Djiboutienne auprès des Ménages	2017
Dominican Republic	LFS – Encuesta Nacional Continua de Fuerza de Trabajo	2021
Ecuador	LFS – Encuesta Nacional de Empleo, Desempleo y SubEmpleo	2021
Egypt, Arab Rep.	LFS – Labour Force Sample Survey	2019
El Salvador	HS – Encuesta de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples	2021
Estonia	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021

Country	Source used by ILO*	Most Recent Year Available
Eswatini	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2016
Ethiopia	LFS – National Labor Force Survey	2021
Fiji	LFS – Employment, Unemployment Survey	2016
Finland	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
France	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
The Gambia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2018
Georgia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
Germany	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Ghana	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2015
Greece	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Guatemala	LFS – Encuesta Nacional de Empleo e Ingresos	2019
Guinea-Bissau	HIES – Enquête harmonisée sur les conditions de vie des ménages	2018
Guyana	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Haiti	HIES – Enquête sur les Conditions de Vie des Ménages Après le Séisme	2012
Honduras	HS – Encuesta Permanente de Hogares de Propósitos Múltiples	2017
Hungary	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Iceland	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2018
India	LFS – Periodic Labour Force Survey	2020
Indonesia	LFS – National Labour Force Survey	2022
Iraq	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Ireland	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Italy	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Jamaica	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
Jordan	LFS – Employment and Unemployment Survey	2021
Kenya	HIES – Household Budget Survey	2019
Kiribati	PC – Population Census	2020
Korea, Rep.	HIES – Labour and Income Panel Survey	2019
Kyrgyz Republic	LFS – Employment and Unemployment Survey	2021
Laos	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2017
Latvia	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Lebanon	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Lesotho	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
Liberia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2017
Lithuania	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Luxembourg	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Madagascar	LFS – Enquête Nationale sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel	2015
Malawi	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2013
Maldives	HIES – Household Income and Expenditure Survey	2019
Mali	LFS – Enquête Emploi Permanente Auprès des Ménages	2020
Malta	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Marshall Islands	HIES – Household Income and Expenditure Survey	2019
Mauritania	HIES – Living Standards Measurement Survey	2019
Mauritius	LFS – Continuous Multi-Purpose Household Survey	2021
Mexico	LFS – Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo	2021
Moldova	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Mongolia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Mozambique	HIES – Household Budget Survey	2015
Myanmar	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
Namibia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2018
Nepal	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2017
Netherlands	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021

Country	Source used by ILO*	Most Recent Year Available
Nicaragua	LFS – Encuesta Continua de Hogares	2012
Niger	LFS – Enquête Nationale sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel	2017
North Macedonia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Norway	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Pakistan	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Panama	LFS – Encuesta de Mercado Laboral	2021
Paraguay	HS – Encuesta Permanente de Hogares Continua	2021
Peru	HS – Encuesta Nacional de Hogares	2021
Poland	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Portugal	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Rwanda	LFS – Enquête sur la Population Active	2021
Saint Lucia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Samoa	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2017
Senegal	LFS – Enquête Nationale sur l'Emploi	2019
Serbia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Seychelles	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
Sierra Leone	HS – Integrated Household Survey	2018
Slovak Republic	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Slovenia	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Somalia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2019
South Africa	LFS – Quarterly Labour Force Survey	2021
Spain	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Sri Lanka	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
State of Palestine**	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Sudan	LFS – Household Survey	2011
Suriname	HIES – Survey on Living Conditions	2016
Sweden	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2021
Switzerland	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2020
Tanzania	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2020
Thailand	HS – Informal Employment Survey	2018
Timor-Leste	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Togo	LFS – Enquête Régionale Intégrée sur l'Emploi et le Secteur Informel	2017
Tonga	HIES – Household Income and Expenditure Survey	2021
Tunisia	LFS – Labor Market Panel Survey	2014
Türkiye	LFS – Household Labour Force Survey	2021
Uganda	LFS – National Labour Force Survey	2021
United Kingdom	HIES – EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions	2018
Uruguay	LFS – Encuesta Continua de Hogares	2020
Vanuatu	HIES – Household Income and Expenditure Survey	2019
Venezuela, RB	LFS – Encuesta de Hogares por Muestreo	2017
Vietnam	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Yemen	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2014
Zambia	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021
Zimbabwe	LFS – Labour Force Survey	2021

Source: "Statistics on the informal economy," International Labour Organization Department of Statistics (ILOSTAT). Accessed July 28, 2023. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/topics/informality/>

* ILO reports informal employment statistics relying on three types of sources, depending on the country: Labour Force Surveys (LFS), Household Income and Expenditure Surveys (HIES), and Household Surveys (HS).

** In this report, the State of Palestine is referred to as such in line with the naming convention utilized by the UN SDG Indicators Database.

TABLE A7

Legal Vulnerability: WJP General Population Poll Data

Table A7 provides the question-level variables from the WJP General Population Poll used to define the “proof of housing or land tenure” and “official proof of identity” variables as well as the most recent year for which data is available for each country surveyed. This analysis utilizes the same dataset as the *WJP Rule of Law Index*. The relevant survey questions were added to the GPP in 2018; for this reason, data is not available for countries surveyed before that date.

Question Label	Question Text	Answer Options
READ: Now, I would like to ask you about documents that some people use for identification or legal purposes, such as national ID cards, birth certificates, or land ownership titles. Not everyone has these documents. If you do not have the document I mention, feel free to tell me so.		
Proof of Housing or Land Tenure		
A6b	Does your household have any of the following documents for your current dwelling: a title, deed, certificate of ownership, rental contract, or lease?	Yes - 1 No - 1 (DON'T READ) Don't know/No answer - 99
A6c	Which ones?	A title, deed, or certificate of ownership - 1 A rental contract or lease - 2 Other - 3 (DON'T READ) Don't know/No answer - 99
Official Proof of Identity		
A6	Do you have...	A birth certificate? - 1 A government issued ID card? - 2 (DON'T READ) Don't know/No answer - 99

Country/Jurisdiction	Most Recent Year with Available Data
Albania	2018
Algeria	2018
Angola	2018
Antigua and Barbuda	2022
Argentina	2022
Australia	2018
The Bahamas	2022
Barbados	2022
Belgium	2018
Belize	2021
Benin	2018
Bolivia	2022
Botswana	2018
Brazil	2022
Bulgaria	2018
Cameroon	2018
China	2018
Colombia	2022

Country/Jurisdiction	Most Recent Year with Available Data
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2018
Congo, Rep.	2021
Costa Rica	2022
Croatia	2018
Cyprus	2021
Dominica	2022
Dominican Republic	2022
Ecuador	2022
El Salvador	2018
France	2018
Gabon	2022
The Gambia	2019
Germany	2018
Ghana	2018
Grenada	2022
Guatemala	2021
Guinea	2018
Guyana	2022
Haiti	2022
Honduras	2021
India	2018
Iran, Islamic Rep.	2018
Ireland	2021
Jamaica	2022
Japan	2018
Jordan	2018
Kenya	2018
Kosovo	2019
Kyrgyz Republic	2018
Latvia	2021
Liberia	2018
Lithuania	2021
Luxembourg	2021
Mali	2018
Malta	2021
Mauritania	2018
Mauritius	2018
Montenegro	2023
Mozambique	2018
Myanmar	2018
Namibia	2018
Netherlands	2018

Country/Jurisdiction	Most Recent Year with Available Data
Nicaragua	2019
Niger	2018
Nigeria	2018
North Macedonia	2023
Pakistan	2019
Panama	2021
Paraguay	2021
Peru	2022
Poland	2018
Korea, Rep.	2018
Romania	2018
Russian Federation	2018
Rwanda	2018
Sierra Leone	2018
Slovak Republic	2021
South Africa	2018
Spain	2018
St. Kitts and Nevis	2018
St. Lucia	2022
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	2022
Sudan	2021
Suriname	2022
Sweden	2018
Tanzania	2018
Thailand	2018
Togo	2018
Trinidad and Tobago	2022
Türkiye	2018
Uganda	2018
United Kingdom	2018
United States	2021
Uruguay	2018
Uzbekistan	2021
Venezuela, RB	2018
Zimbabwe	2018

TABLE A8

World Bank Country Income Classification

Table A8 provides information on how each of the countries explored in Sections II, III, and IV of this report are sorted into the four World Bank income classifications: low-income, lower-middle income, upper-middle income, and high-income. The analysis uses World Bank classifications based on global General Population Poll (GPP) data as well as data from the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*. Countries are placed in the category to which they belonged in the years when the GPP and the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey* were conducted, or the closest year available for that country.

Country	General Population Poll Year	World Bank Income Classification	Global Legal Needs Survey Year	World Bank Income Classification
Afghanistan	2019	Low-Income	2017	Low-Income
Albania	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Algeria	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Angola	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Antigua and Barbuda	2022	High-Income		
Argentina	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Australia	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Austria			2017	High-Income
The Bahamas	2022	High-Income		
Bangladesh	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Barbados	2022	High-Income		
Belgium	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Belize	2021	Upper-Middle Income		
Benin	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Bolivia	2022	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Bosnia and Herzegovina			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Botswana	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Brazil	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2017	Upper-Middle Income
Bulgaria	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Burkina Faso			2017	Low-Income
Cameroon	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Canada			2017	High-Income
Chile			2017	High-Income
China	2018	Upper-Middle Income		
Colombia	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Congo, Rep.	2021	Lower-Middle Income		
Costa Rica	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2022	Upper-Middle Income
Côte d'Ivoire			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Croatia	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Cyprus	2021	High-Income		
Czechia			2017	High-Income

Country	General Population Poll Year	World Bank Income Classification	Global Legal Needs Survey Year	World Bank Income Classification
Denmark			2017	High-Income
Dominica	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Dominican Republic	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Ecuador	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
El Salvador	2021	Lower-Middle Income		
Estonia			2017	High-Income
Ethiopia			2017	Low-Income
Finland			2017	High-Income
France	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Gabon	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
The Gambia	2019	Low-Income		
Georgia			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Germany	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Ghana	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Greece			2017	High-Income
Grenada	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Guatemala	2021	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Guinea	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Guyana	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Haiti	2022	Lower-Middle Income		
Honduras	2021	Lower-Middle Income	2017	Lower-Middle Income
Hong Kong SAR, China			2017	High-Income
Hungary			2017	High-Income
India	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Indonesia			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Iran, Islamic Rep.	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Ireland	2021	High-Income	2021	High-Income
Italy			2017	High-Income
Jamaica	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Japan	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Jordan	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Kazakhstan			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Kenya	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Korea, Rep.	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Kosovo	2019	Lower-Middle Income		
Kyrgyz Republic	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Latvia	2021	High-Income		
Lebanon			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Liberia	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Lithuania	2021	High-Income		
Luxembourg	2021	High-Income		

Country	General Population Poll Year	World Bank Income Classification	Global Legal Needs Survey Year	World Bank Income Classification
Madagascar			2017	Low-Income
Malawi			2017	Low-Income
Malaysia			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Mali	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Malta	2021	High-Income		
Mauritania	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Mauritius	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Mexico			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Moldova			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Mongolia			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Mozambique	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Myanmar	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Namibia	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Nepal			2017	Low-Income
Netherlands	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
New Zealand			2017	High-Income
Nicaragua	2021	Lower-Middle Income	2017	Lower-Middle Income
Niger	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Nigeria	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
North Macedonia			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Norway			2017	High-Income
Pakistan	2019	Lower-Middle Income		
Panama	2021	High-Income	2017	Upper-Middle Income
Paraguay	2021	Upper-Middle Income	2021	Upper-Middle Income
Peru	2022	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Philippines	2018	Lower-Middle Income	2018	Lower-Middle Income
Poland	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Portugal			2017	High-Income
Romania	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Russian Federation	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Rwanda	2018	Low-Income		
Senegal			2017	Low-Income
Serbia			2017	Upper-Middle Income
Sierra Leone	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Singapore			2017	High-Income
Slovak Republic	2021	High-Income	2021	High-Income
Slovenia			2017	High-Income
South Africa	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Spain	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Sri Lanka			2017	Lower-Middle Income
St. Kitts and Nevis	2022	High-Income		

Country	General Population Poll Year	World Bank Income Classification	Global Legal Needs Survey Year	World Bank Income Classification
St. Lucia	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Sudan	2021	Low-Income		
Suriname	2022	Upper-Middle Income		
Sweden	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Tanzania	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Thailand	2018	Upper-Middle Income		
Togo	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Trinidad and Tobago	2022	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Tunisia			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Türkiye	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Uganda	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income
Ukraine			2017	Lower-Middle Income
United Kingdom	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
United States	2021	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Uruguay	2018	High-Income	2018	High-Income
Uzbekistan	2021	Lower-Middle Income		
Venezuela, RB	2018	Upper-Middle Income	2018	Upper-Middle Income
Vietnam			2017	Lower-Middle Income
Zimbabwe	2018	Low-Income	2018	Low-Income

TABLE A9

Factors from the *WJP Rule of Law Index* Considered

Table A9 provides information on the factors and sub-factors from the *WJP Rule of Law Index* used to create the graphs in Sub-section 7: Institutional Response to Civil and Criminal Justice Needs Before and After COVID-19.

FACTOR/SUB-FACTOR	DESCRIPTION ⁸²
Factor 7: Civil Justice	Factor 7 measures whether ordinary people can resolve their grievances peacefully and effectively through the civil justice system. It measures whether civil justice systems are accessible and affordable as well as free of discrimination, corruption, and improper influence by public officials. It examines whether court proceedings are conducted without unreasonable delays, and whether decisions are enforced effectively. It also measures the accessibility, impartiality, and effectiveness of alternative dispute resolution mechanisms.
Factor 8: Criminal Justice	Factor 8 evaluates a country’s criminal justice system. An effective criminal justice system is a key aspect of the rule of law, as it constitutes the conventional mechanism to redress grievances and bring action against individuals for offenses against society. An assessment of the delivery of criminal justice should take into consideration the entire system, including the police, lawyers, prosecutors, judges, and prison officers.
Sub-factor 6.3	Sub-factor 6.3 measures whether administrative proceedings at the national and local levels are conducted without unreasonable delay.
Sub-factor 7.5	Sub-factor 7.5 measures whether civil justice proceedings are conducted and judgments are produced in a timely manner without unreasonable delay.
Sub-factor 8.2	Sub-factor 8.2 measures whether perpetrators of crimes are effectively prosecuted and punished. It also measures whether criminal judges and other judicial officers are competent, and produce speedy decisions.

Updated Global Estimate of Persons Lacking Proof of Housing or Land Tenure

INTRODUCTION

As part of the *WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II*, the WJP has updated its estimate of the number of people globally who are in the justice gap because they lack proof of housing or land tenure. The WJP first estimated this figure in 2019 as part of its *Measuring the Justice Gap* analysis.⁸³ Since publication of the original justice gap analysis, the WJP has expanded the number of countries in which data has been collected on proof of housing and land tenure. In addition, the global population has grown since the first estimate was made. This exercise therefore seeks to update the estimate using the most recently available household survey and population data.

The updated analysis, which leverages WJP survey data from an additional 22 countries and the most recently available population data from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), estimates that 2,336,900,946 people globally lack proof of housing or land tenure. Compared to the WJP's initial estimate in 2019, this figure suggests a decline of about 2.23 million people in the justice gap due to lack of proof of housing or land tenure. This decline amounts to a decrease of 1.1 percentage points in the proportion of the global population lacking proof of housing or land tenure.

DATA ON ACCESS TO PROOF OF HOUSING OR LAND TENURE

The WJP collects data on access to proof of housing or land tenure as part of the General Population Poll and currently has data on this topic for 95 countries. The demographic portion of the survey questionnaire includes a question asking the respondent about proof of housing or land tenure:⁸⁴

A6b	Does your household have any of the following documents for your current dwelling: a title deed, certificate of ownership, rental contract, or lease?	Yes.....1 No.....2 Don't know/No Answer.....99
-----	---	--

Respondents who answered “Don't Know/No Answer” to this question are coded as missing in the analysis.*

INITIAL ESTIMATE

Measuring the Justice Gap defines a lack of proof of housing or land tenure as: “The number of people without secure tenure rights to housing or land, or without legally recognized documentation. This figure is calculated by multiplying the proportion of people responding ‘No’ to the question ‘Does your household have any of the following documents for your current dwelling: a title deed, certificate of ownership, rental contract, or lease?’ by the population of each country.”⁸⁵

The initial 2019 estimate was made using household survey data collected in 73 countries.⁸⁶ The country-level estimate of the proportions of people lacking proof of housing or land tenure for the remaining 145 countries was imputed based on the average responses from geographic and economic peer countries. Ultimately, the analysis estimated that 2,339,131,903 people were in the justice gap because they lacked proof of housing or land tenure.⁸⁷

* Across the 95 countries for which data is available as of 2022, 4.18% of respondents answered “don't know/no answer” to the question, and 0.22% of respondents did not answer the question at all. For the purposes of this analysis, they are coded as missing.

UPDATED DATA

This exercise updates the estimated number of people lacking proof of housing or land tenure by following the same methodology used in the original analysis, leveraging the most recent WJP survey data and the most recent population estimates from UN DESA. Since the initial estimate was made, the WJP has collected household survey data on proof of housing or land tenure in an additional 22 countries. The use of this additional data allows for a more accurate estimate. In addition, the global population has changed since publication of *Measuring the Justice Gap* and this updated estimate takes the most recent population figures into account. Beyond the use of new survey data and population figures, the methodology for estimating the number of people lacking proof of housing or land tenure remains consistent with that of the original analysis. Thus, it is possible to compare the updated figure with that presented in the 2019 analysis.

Using the most recently available data, an estimated 2,336,900,946 people globally lack proof of housing or land tenure.

► COMPARISON OF 2019 AND 2023 ESTIMATES

ELEMENT	2019 ESTIMATE	2023 ESTIMATE
Estimated Number of People Lacking Proof of Housing or Land Tenure	2,339,131,903	2,336,900,946
Number of Countries Represented in WJP Survey Data	73 Countries	95 Countries
Proportion of Global Population Represented in WJP Survey Data	71.3%	74.3%
UN DESA Population Data	2019	2023

Population Data: This analysis uses population figures from the 2022 Revision of *World Population Prospects*.⁸⁸ For countries that are covered by the WJP GPP, the population figure from the year in which the survey was implemented is used. Note that UN DESA reports population figures as of January 1st and July 1st for any given year; for the purposes of this analysis, the July 1st figures were used.

For countries that are not included in the WJP GPP, a reference year was identified based on when data was collected in other countries in that subregion. The population data for that year was then used.

The WJP's data on proof of housing or land tenure was collected between 2018 and 2023. To account for the changes in population over the course of that timeframe, the estimates have been adjusted based on the country-level rate of population change from the reference year to 2023.⁸⁹



ABOUT THE WORLD JUSTICE PROJECT

THE WORLD JUSTICE PROJECT (WJP) is an independent, multidisciplinary organization working to create knowledge, build awareness, and stimulate action to advance the rule of law worldwide. Effective rule of law is the foundation for communities of justice, opportunity, and peace—underpinning development, accountable government, and respect for fundamental rights.

WJP builds and supports a global, multidisciplinary movement for the rule of law through three lines of work: collecting, organizing, and analyzing original, independent rule of law data, including the *WJP Rule of Law Index*; supporting research, scholarship, and teaching about the importance of the rule of law, its relationship to development, and effective strategies to strengthen it; and connecting and building an engaged global network of policy-makers and activists to advance the rule of law through strategic partnerships, convenings, coordinated advocacy, and support for locally-led initiatives.

Board of Directors: Sheikha Abdulla Al-Misnad; Kamel Ayadi; Michael Chu; William C. Hubbard; Hassan Bubacar Jallow; Suet-Fern Lee; Mondli Makhanya; M. Margaret McKeown; John Nery; William H. Neukom; Ellen Gracie Northfleet; and James R. Silkenat.

Directors Emeritus: Ashraf Ghani Ahmadzai, Emil Constantinescu, and Petar Stoyanov.

Officers: William C. Hubbard, Co-Founder and Chairman of the Board; William H. Neukom, Co-Founder and CEO; Mark D. Agrast, Vice President; Deborah Enix-Ross, Vice President; Judy Perry Martinez, Vice President; Nancy Ward, Vice President; James R. Silkenat, Director and Treasurer; and Gerold W. Libby, General Counsel and Secretary.

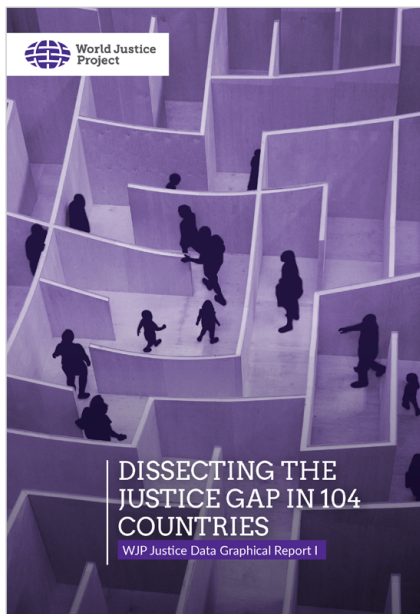
Executive Director: Elizabeth Andersen.

Chief Research Officer: Alejandro Ponce.

Learn more at: worldjusticeproject.org.

RELATED PUBLICATIONS

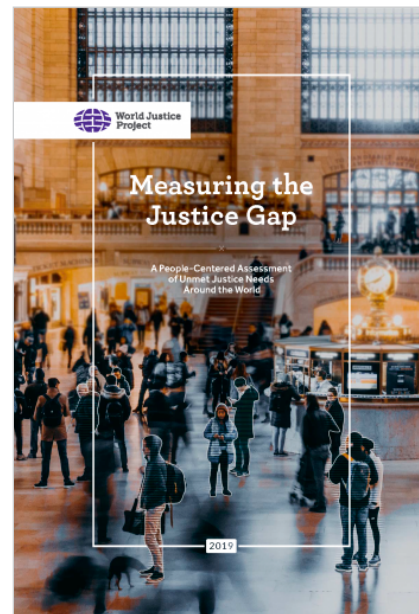
Want to know more? You can consult our related publications here.



Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I



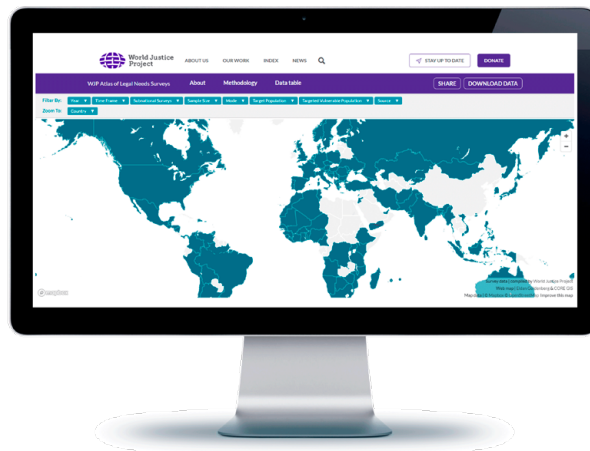
Global Insights on Access to Justice 2019



Measuring the Justice Gap 2019



Grasping the Justice Gap 2021



Atlas of Legal Needs Surveys

<https://worldjusticeproject.org/legal-needs-atlas/>

For more information or to read these reports, visit worldjusticeproject.org/our-work

| ENDNOTES

ENDNOTES

- ¹ World Justice Project, “Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report I” (Washington, D.C.: WJP, 2023). <https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/research-and-data/wjp-justice-data-graphical-report-i>
- ² The analyses include between 90 and 104 countries, depending on whether the WJP has collected data in a given country and the UNDP has included that country in the Gender Inequality Index (GII).
- ³ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”, *The Center of Excellence for Statistical Information on Government, Crime, Victimization and Justice*, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/mapa-2/#1>, <https://www.cdeunodc.inegi.org.mx/index.php/atlas-en/>
- ⁴ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía.
- ⁵ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía.
- ⁶ International Crisis Group, “Latin America Wrestles with a New Crime Wave”, *Watch List 2023 for the EU*. (Washington, D.C.: International Crisis Group, 2023). <https://icg-prod.s3.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2023-05/wl-latam-spring-2023.pdf>
- ⁷ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía.
- ⁸ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía.
- ⁹ World Justice Project, “Dissecting the Justice Gap in 104 Countries”, 2023.
- ¹⁰ United Nations Development Programme, “Gender Inequality Index”, *Human Development Reports*, Accessed August 3, 2023. <https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/thematic-composite-indices/gender-inequality-index#/indicies/GII>
- ¹¹ Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021: Global ID Coverage Estimates* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2022). <https://doi.org/10.1596/38440>.
- ¹² International Labour Organization, “ILO modelled estimates database”, *International Labour Organization Department of Statistics (ILOSTAT)*, Accessed August 28, 2023, <https://ilostat.ilo.org/data/>, and “Statistics on the informal economy”, ILOSTAT. Accessed August 2, 2023, <https://ilostat.ilo.org/topics/informality/>
- ¹³ Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*.
- ¹⁴ Working Group on Customary and Informal Justice and SDG16+ (2023), *Diverse pathways to people-centred justice: Report of the Working Group on Customary and Informal Justice and SDG16.3* (Rome: IDLO, 2023).
- ¹⁵ Rebecca L. Sandefur, “Access to Civil Justice and Race, Class, and Gender Inequality”, *Annual Review of Sociology* 34, 1 (2008): 339–58, <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.34.040507.134534>.
- ¹⁶ Due to constraints in the survey methodology followed in the *WJP Global Legal Needs Survey*, this report cannot look into the justice inequities faced by gender minorities. Fully aware of the importance of addressing gender diversity issues in access to justice, the WJP is actively working on including relevant and meaningful data on this critical topic.
- ¹⁷ United Nations Development Programme, “Gender Inequality Index”.

- ¹⁸ United Nations Development Programme, “Gender Inequality Index”.
- ¹⁹ Alexy Buck, Nigel Balmer, Pascoe Pleasence, “Social Exclusion and Civil Law: Experience of Civil Justice Problems among Vulnerable Groups”, *Social Policy and Administration* 39,3 (2005): 302–22. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9515.2005.00441.x>. and Rebecca L. Sandefur, “Fulcrum Point of Equal Access to Justice: Legal and Nonlegal Institutions of Remedy”, *Loyola of Los Angeles Law Review* 949 (2009): 949-978. <https://digitalcommons.lmu.edu/llr/vol42/iss4/4>
- ²⁰ Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor, *Making the Law Work for Everyone*, Vol I. (New Jersey: UNDP and Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor, 2008), https://grassrootsjusticenet.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/02/Making_the_Law_Work_for_Everyone-2009.pdf
- ²¹ See Martha Chen and Françoise Carré (eds), *The Informal Economy revisited: Examining the past, envisioning the future* (London: Routledge, 2020); Alisha C. Holland, *Forbearance as Redistribution: The Politics of Informal Welfare in Latin America* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2017).
- ²² Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*.
- ²³ International Labour Organization, “ILO modelled estimates database”, *International Labour Organization Department of Statistics (ILOSTAT)*, Accessed August 28, 2023, <https://ilostat.ilo.org/data/>, and “Statistics on the informal economy”, *ILOSTAT*. Accessed August 2, 2023, <https://ilostat.ilo.org/topics/informality/>
- ²⁴ Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*; United Nations. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights and UN Women, *Realizing Women's Rights to Land and Other Productive Resources* (United Nations, 2013), <https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2013/11/realizing-womens-right-to-land>.
- ²⁵ Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor and United Nations Development Program, *Making the Law Work for Everyone: Working Group Reports*. Vol. 1. (New York: UNDP, 2008), https://namati.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/02/Making_the_Law_Work_for_Everyone-2009.pdf; Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*; Corinne C. Deléchat, Leandro Medina (eds), *The Global Informal Workforce. Priorities for Inclusive Growth* (Washington D.C.: International Monetary Fund, 2021). <https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/Books/Issues/2021/09/22/The-Global-Informal-Workforce-49719>
- ²⁶ “Measuring the Justice Gap”, World Justice Project, 2019. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/research-and-data/access-justice/measuring-justice-gap>
- ²⁷ “ID4D Practitioner’s Guide: Version 1.0”, The World Bank, 2019. <https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/248371559325561562/id4d-practitioner-s-guide>
- ²⁸ Julia Clark, Anna Metz, and Claire Casher, *ID4D Global Dataset 2021*
- ²⁹ International Labour Organization, “Labour Force Statistics (LFS and STLFS) database description”, *International Labour Organization Department of Statistics (ILOSTAT)*, Accessed July 27, 2023. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/concepts-and-definitions/description-labour-force-statistics/>
- ³⁰ International Labour Organization, “ILO modelled estimates database” and “Statistics on the informal economy.”
- ³¹ United Nations Development Programme, “Gender Inequality Index.”
- ³² Lisa Denney and Pilar Domingo, “Taking people-centered justice to scale: the role of customary and informal justice in advancing people-centred justice”, *ODI Policy Brief*, March 2023. <https://odi.org/en/publications/taking-people-centred-justice-to-scale-the-role-of-customary-and-informal-justice-in-advancing-people-centred-justice/>

- ³³ International Development Law Organization, “Navigating Complex Pathways to Justice”, 2021. <https://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/index.php/publications/480/reports/report/idlo-navigating-complex-pathways-justice-community-paralegals-and>
- ³⁴ Investment Climate Advisory Services of the World Bank Group, “Alternative Dispute Resolution Guidelines”, World Bank Group, 2011, 2. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/108381468170047697/pdf/707630ESWOP1160BLIC00153220ADRGOWeb.pdf>; Lisa Denney and Pilar Domingo, “Taking people-centered justice to scale: the role of customary and informal justice in advancing people-centred justice.”
- ³⁵ Ana Cárdenas and Verónica Jaso, “Mediación indígena”, World Justice Project, 2021. <https://worldjusticeproject.mx/mediacion-indigena-acercando-la-justicia/>
- ³⁶ Ana Cárdenas and Verónica Jaso, “Mediación indígena”; Ewa Wojkowska, “Doing Justice: How informal justice systems can contribute”, United Nations Development Program, 2006. [http://www.albacharia.ma/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/30535/0280Doing_Justice__How_informal_justice_systems_can_contribute_\(2007\)7.pdf?sequence=1#:~:text=other%20local%20arbitrators.,Informal%20justice%20systems%20are%20often%20more%20accessible%20to%20poor%20and,world%2C%20especiall%20in%20developing%20countries.](http://www.albacharia.ma/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/30535/0280Doing_Justice__How_informal_justice_systems_can_contribute_(2007)7.pdf?sequence=1#:~:text=other%20local%20arbitrators.,Informal%20justice%20systems%20are%20often%20more%20accessible%20to%20poor%20and,world%2C%20especiall%20in%20developing%20countries.)
- ³⁷ Lisa Denney and Pilar Domingo, “Taking people-centered justice to scale.”
- ³⁸ Peter Chapman et al., “Grasping the Justice Gap: Opportunities and Challenges for People-Centered Justice Data”, Pathfinders for Peaceful, Just and Inclusive Societies and World Justice Project, 2021. <https://www.sdg16hub.org/topic/oecd-grasping-justice-gap-opportunities-and-challenges-people-centred-justice-data>
- ³⁹ “Factor 9: Informal Justice”, World Justice Project, accessed September 11, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/wjp-rule-law-index/wjp-rule-law-index-2017%E2%80%932018/factors-rule-law/informal-justice-factor-9.>
- ⁴⁰ Mark A. Cohen, *The Costs of Crime and Justice* (London: Routledge, 2020). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429431562>; Nyantara Wickramasekera, Judy Wright, Helen Else, Jenni Murray, and Sandy Tubeuf, “Cost of crime: A systematic review”, *Journal of Criminal Justice* 43,3 (2015): 218-228. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2015.04.009>; Alexa J. Singer, Cecilia Chouhy, Peter S. Lehmann, Jessica N. Walzak, Marc Gertz, Sophia Biglin, “Victimization, Fear of Crime, and Trust in Criminal Justice Institutions: A Cross-National Analysis”, *Crime & Delinquency* 65,6 (2018): 822-828. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128718787513>; Diane L. Green and Albert R. Roberts, *Helping victims of violent crime: Assessment, treatment, and evidence-based practice* (USA: Springer Publishing Company, 2008).
- ⁴¹ René Cabral, André Varella Mollick, Eduardo Saucedo, “Foreign Direct Investment in Mexico, Crime, and Economic Forces”, *Contemporary Economic Policy* 37,1 (2018): 68-85. <https://doi.org/10.1111/coep.12401>; Ethan B. Kapstein and Adityamohan Tantravahi, “The Price of Violence: Interest Rates and Homicides in Mexico”, ESOC Working Paper, 26, 2021. <https://esoc.princeton.edu/WP26>
- ⁴² Min Xie, Eric P. Baumer, “Crime victims’ decisions to call the police: Past research and new directions”, *Annual Review of Criminology* 2 (2019): 217-240. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-criminol-011518-024748>
- ⁴³ Ghada Waly, “High-level side-event: Achieving people-centered justice: Policy developments and emerging evidence to reach Goal 16.” (Transcript of the speech delivered at United Nations General Assembly, June 15, 2023). <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/speeches/2023/achieving-people-centered-justice-150623.html>
- ⁴⁴ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), *Kyoto Declaration on Advancing Crime Prevention, Criminal Justice and the Rule of Law: Towards the Achievement of the 2030 Agenda for*

Sustainable Development (New York: United Nations, 2021); Guillermo Vázquez del Mercado Almada, Luisa Sánchez Iriarte, Salomé Flores Sierra Franzoni, “Encuestas de victimización en el desarrollo de políticas públicas de seguridad ciudadana”, *Realidad, Datos y Espacio Revista Internacional de Estadística y Geografía* 10,1 (2019): 64-77. <https://rde.inegi.org.mx/index.php/2019/04/23/encuestas-de-victimizacion-en-el-desarrollo-de-politicas-publicas-de-seguridad-ciudadana/#:~:text=Las%20encuestas%20de%20victimizaci%C3%B3n%20son,incurren%20para%20protegerse%20de%20la>

- ⁴⁵ See, for example, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, *International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes*, Version 1.0, (Vienna: UNODC, 2015). https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/statistics/crime/ICCS/ICCS_English_2016_web.pdf
- ⁴⁶ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”.
- ⁴⁷ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”.
- ⁴⁸ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”.
- ⁴⁹ International Crisis Group, “Latin America Wrestles with a New Crime Wave”, *Watch List 2023 for the EU* (Washington, D.C.: International Crisis Group, 2023). <https://icg-prod.s3.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2023-05/wl-latam-spring-2023.pdf>.
- ⁵⁰ “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2023”, *World Justice Project*, accessed October 26th, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/>
- ⁵¹ “Variables Used to Construct the WJP Rule of Law Index® 2022”, *World Justice Project*, accessed August 1st, 2023. https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/downloads/ROLIndex2022_Table_of_Variables.pdf
- ⁵² “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2023 Insights”, *World Justice Project*, accessed October 26th, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/downloads/WJPInsights2023.pdf>
- ⁵³ “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2023 Insights”, *World Justice Project*, 2023.
- ⁵⁴ “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2021 Insights”, *World Justice Project*, accessed October 26th, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/sites/default/files/documents/WJP-INSIGHTS-21.pdf>; Caio Castelliano, Peter Grajzl, Eduardo Watanabe, “How has the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the courts of law? Evidence from Brazil”, *International Review of Law and Economics* 66 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.irl.2021.105989>
- ⁵⁵ “The Justice Gap: The Unmet Civil Legal Needs of Low-income Americans”, *Legal Services Corporation*, 2022. <https://lsc-live.box.com/s/xl2v2uraitotbbzrhwtjlgioemp3myz1>
- ⁵⁶ “The COVID-19 Pandemic and the Global Justice Gap”, *World Justice Project*, 2020. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/sites/default/files/documents/Global%20Justice%20Gap-11-02.pdf>
- ⁵⁷ Shelby Bourgault, Amber Peterman, Megan O’Donnell, *Violence Against Women and Children During COVID-19: One Year On and 100 Papers In*, Center for Global Development, 2021. <https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/vawc-fourth-roundup.pdf>
- ⁵⁸ Jane Gleaves, “By the Numbers: The Effect of COVID-19 on Litigation”, *American Bar Association*, May 20, 2021. <https://www.americanbar.org/groups/litigation/committees/young-advocates/articles/2021/spring2021-by-the-numbers-the-effect-of-covid-19-on-litigation/> For a review on criminal justice legal problems, see McKenzie L. Jossie, Alfred Blumstein, J. Mitchell Miller, “COVID, Crime & Criminal Justice: Affirming the Call for System Reform Research”, *American Journal of Criminal Justice* 47 (2022): 1243–1259. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12103-022-09721-5>

- ⁵⁹ Jane Gleaves, “By the Numbers: The Effect of COVID-19 on Litigation”.
- ⁶⁰ “Twelve Essential Steps to Tackle Backlog and Prepare for a Surge in New Civil Cases”, *National Center for State Courts*, 2020. https://www.ncsc.org/___data/assets/pdf_file/0011/42230/RRT-Civil-12-steps.pdf
- ⁶¹ “Access to justice and the COVID-19 pandemic: Compendium of Country Practices”, OECD and Law and Justice Foundation of New South Wales, 2020. <https://www.oecd.org/governance/global-roundtables-access-to-justice/access-to-justice-compendium-of-country-practices.pdf>
- ⁶² McKenzie L. Jossie, Alfred Blumstein, J. Mitchell Miller, “COVID, Crime & Criminal Justice: Affirming the Call for System Reform Research”.
- ⁶³ “Access to justice and the COVID-19 pandemic: Compendium of Country Practices”, *OECD and Law and Justice Foundation of New South Wales*, 2020. <https://www.oecd.org/governance/global-roundtables-access-to-justice/access-to-justice-compendium-of-country-practices.pdf>
- ⁶⁴ “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2021 Insights”, *World Justice Project*, 2021; Caio Castelliano, Peter Grajzl, Eduardo Watanabe, “How has the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the courts of law? Evidence from Brazil”.
- ⁶⁵ Peter Chapman et al., “Grasping the Justice Gap”.
- ⁶⁶ “WJP Rule of Law Index® 2022”, *World Justice Project*, accessed August 1st, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/>
- ⁶⁷ UNDP, “UNDP support to reporting on the global SDG 16 indicators under targets 16.3, 16.6 and 16.7” <https://www.undp.org/policy-centre/oslo/undp-support-reporting-global-sdg-16-indicators-under-targets-163-166-and-167>
- ⁶⁸ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas.”
- ⁶⁹ OECD and OSF, *Legal Needs Surveys and Access to Justice* (Paris: OECD/Open Society Foundations, 2019). <https://doi.org/10.1787/g2g9a36c-en>
- ⁷⁰ “Atlas of Legal Needs Survey: Search Protocol and Criteria for Including New Surveys”, *The World Justice Project*, accessed June 7, 2023. https://worldjusticeproject.org/legal-needs-atlas/AOLNS_methodology.pdf
- ⁷¹ “Atlas of Legal Needs Surveys”, *The World Justice Project*, accessed June 7, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/legal-needs-atlas>
- ⁷² “SDG Indicators Database”, *UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs Statistics Division*. Accessed 13 September 2023. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/dataportal>.
- ⁷³ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”.
- ⁷⁴ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, “Document Atlas” and “Dynamic Data Atlas”.
- ⁷⁵ A noteworthy addition is UNDP, *Justicia y Desarrollo Sostenible* (Argentina: UNDP, 2023), <https://www.undp.org/es/argentina/justicia-y-desarrollo-sostenible>. *This survey will be added to the Atlas as part of its next scheduled update.*
- ⁷⁶ World Justice Project, *Global Insights on Access to Justice* (Washington DC: WJP, 2019) <https://worldjusticeproject.org/our-work/research-and-data/global-insights-access-justice-2019>
- ⁷⁷ Guillermo E. Perry, William F. Maloney, Omar S. Arias, Pablo Fajnzylber, Andrew D. Mason, Jaime

Saavedra-Chanduvi, *Informality: Exit and Exclusion* (Washington, D.C.: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and The World Bank, 2007). <http://hdl.handle.net/10986/6730>

- ⁷⁸ Abel Polese, “What is informality? (Mapping) ‘the art of bypassing the state’ in Eurasian spaces—and beyond”, *Eurasian Geography and Economics* 64,3 (2023): 322–364. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15387216.2021.1992791>
- ⁷⁹ Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor, *Making the Law Work for Everyone*, Vol I. (New Jersey: UNDP and Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor, 2008), https://grassrootsjusticenet.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/02/Making_the_Law_Work_for_Everyone-2009.pdf
- ⁸⁰ Abel Polese, “What is informality? (Mapping) ‘the art of bypassing the state’ in Eurasian spaces—and beyond.”
- ⁸¹ Keith Hart, “Informal Income Opportunities and Urban Employment in Ghana”, *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 11,1 (1973): pp. 61–89.
- ⁸² “WJP Rule of Law Index Factors”, *World Justice Project*, accessed August 1st, 2023. <https://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index/factors/2022/>
- ⁸³ “Measuring the Justice Gap”, 2019.
- ⁸⁴ “Access to Justice Survey Module”, *World Justice Project* 2018, 12. https://worldjusticeproject.org/sites/default/files/documents/WJP%20General%20Population%20Poll_Access%20to%20Justice%20Module_2018.pdf.
- ⁸⁵ “Measuring the Justice Gap”, 19.
- ⁸⁶ “Measuring the Justice Gap”, 20.
- ⁸⁷ “Measuring the Justice Gap”, 27.
- ⁸⁸ “2022 Revision of the World Population Prospects”, *United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division*. Accessed 23 August 2022. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- ⁸⁹ “2022 Revision of the World Population Prospects”, *UN DESA*. Accessed 23 August 2022. Note: the 2023 figures are from the ‘Median Variant’ projections. They are available for download at the above link. As projections, they are subject to revision by UN DESA.

