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Challenges & Needs of Youth in the Libyan Job Market

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Work Team

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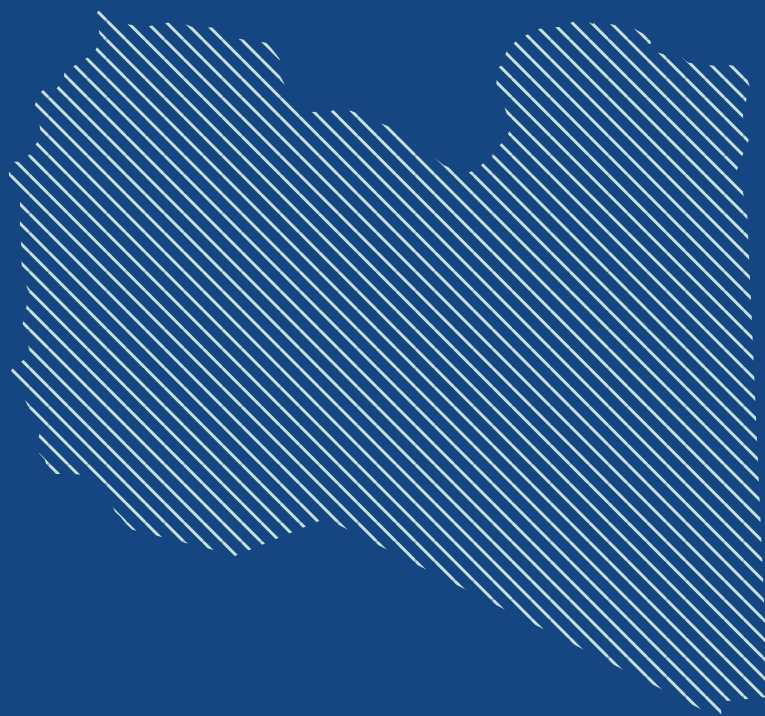
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Abstract:

Since 2011, and with the worsening economic crisis in Libya, Libyan youth have become more concerned about unemployment and job opportunities, especially with the changing security conditions. This study covers the factors impacting the situation of the youth and causes of unemployment as these are important issues for young job-seekers which constitute the future of the country, with the hope that this study would be a helpful source for theoretical references regarding job opportunities and economic development, especially for decision-makers and stakeholders. The theoretical and analytical aspects have been studied to determine the status quo of the Libyan job market and the needs of youth and employers in order to bridge the gap between the two sides and to evaluate future needs. The descriptive analytical method was used in this study, and data were gathered from various local sources and scientific references, in order to reach several conclusions that would help researchers, decision-makers, and the youth to reach a better understanding of the status quo of the job market and the factors linked to it such as education outputs and economic conditions.

The research problem lies in determining current job opportunities and the qualifications of young graduates and job-seekers in addition to their needs in the current situation of the job market in line with current and future changes, and determining specializations needed by the job market.

The recommendations of the World Bank reports and the National Economic Strategy were used to support the analytical part of the study building on the data gathered from job-seekers and employers emphasizing the importance of utilizing this data in addition to creating a comprehensive social protection network which would support any future economic reforms to achieve economic development and equal opportunities.

Introduction

Job market indicators are amongst the most important indicators for development in a country. Developing the local job market's capacity to provide suitable job opportunities for youth, and developing its productive capacity are some of the main foundations of advancing the economy and reaching a prosperous society.

Youth unemployment was one of the main causes of the 2011 revolution. Demanding decent lives, social justice, and creating suitable job opportunities for youth were definitely the most important themes of the revolution. And despite the country going through important transitional phases, however, there has been no improvement regarding youth. On the contrary, the political divisions, economic crisis, insecurity and lawlessness have affected the job market. Unemployment has risen with lack of resources and investments, which has impacted creating job opportunities and improving social and economic conditions. The African Development Bank's Report of 2014 estimated youth unemployment rate to be at 24.5%.

After seven years, youth unemployment is still a dilemma in Libya because of the worsening economic crisis and the continued political instability and lack of will to create policies to improve the situation of the youth.

Importance of the study

This study aims to monitor the reasons behind the increased level of unemployment and the rising numbers of job-seekers in an attempt to provide solutions for this problem, analyzing the job market and measuring the educational outputs and skills necessary for the job market. This is in hopes that this study would contribute to scientifically guiding decision-makers, the job market, and graduates themselves towards innovative solutions in this field.

Research problem

It is well-known that the situation of the Libyan job market is not suitable for creating a process of integrated and sustainable economic development, which becomes complete by integrating different groups of the society in the job market in a comprehensive manner, under the laws and principles of competency, justice, and protection of all actors in the economic process whether employers or employees. Despite admitting the importance of youth's role in development, many obstacles and challenges still face them. This means more effective steps and measures need to be taken to end the deprivation from justice and equal opportunities, and in order to reach the highest levels of social and economic participation.

From the above stems the importance of understanding the current situation and determining the needs and challenges of youth in seeking jobs. The research problem can be summarised as follows:

- To what extent do graduates have skills sought by employers ?
- How effective are the mechanisms of job searching that are provided by relevant bodies?
- What are the most needed jobs in the Libyan job market and what are their requirements?
- What are the skills required for the Libyan job market?
- What are the main challenges facing graduates in attaining jobs in the Libyan job market?

Study Objectives

- Analysing the current situation of the job market.
- Determining the knowledge and skills necessary for graduates in order to meet the needs of the job market.
- Estimating future needs of the job market in terms of the workforce (during the next three years).

Study Methodology

The study uses the descriptive analytical method, which studies a particular phenomenon and describes it in detail, qualitatively and quantitatively, and gathers information about it. In addition, this method is not limited to gathering information about a phenomenon to examine its manifestations, but it extends to analysis, correlation, and interpretation in order to reach conclusions based on:

- Secondary Sources, which are relevant books and references, journals, articles and papers on jobs and requirements to employ youth in the Libyan workforce.
- Primary Sources from:
 - 1- **Interviews** with a number of employees from the Ministry of Labour, officials in the employment departments and human resources in public administrations, and employers in the private sector, in order to understand the methods of employment, and to analyse actual jobs needed in the job market and required skills in youth labor.

- 2- This is in addition to a **questionnaire** as a main tool that will be developed to achieve the aims of the study for a sample of 500 male and female youth fresh graduates. It is conducted according to appropriate statistical methods to determine their professional skills, and to understand the difficulties facing youth in finding jobs, while considering the geographical distribution between urban and rural areas.
- 3- Five **focus group discussions** were held in five Libyan cities (Tripoli, Benghazi, Misrata, Yefren, and Sebha) to obtain comprehensive results in order to have a deeper understanding of the challenges facing youth such as challenges caused by the education system, lack of effective employment mechanisms that follow the principles of equal opportunity, and weak legal protection in the private sector.

General Indicators

Type of Local Economy, Key Indicators, and Libyan Job Market Indicators⁽¹⁾

a. Examining the data of the 2006 General Census:

The 2006 report published by the General Information Authority regarding the final results of the General National Census is considered the last official comprehensive and accurate report. By comprehensive we mean that the employment and unemployment indicators included in the report came alongside the key detailed indicators of the population, its distribution, and the numbers of migrant workers. Highlights of this Census are shown below:

(1) We have used the same data on our report on Women in the Job Market.

Table 1 Comprehensive Statistics

Indicator	2006		
Libyan population	5,298,000		
Number of Libyan families	887,000		
Total population	5,658,000		
Number of Libyan and non-Libyan Families	981,000		
Population density	3.4 (person per km ²)		
Rate of population growth (2006-1995)	1.8 %		
Percentage of population below 15	31.3 %		
Percentage of population aged (15 – 64)	64.7 %		
Percentage of population over 65	4.2 %		
Population over 15 (human power)	Males	Females	Total
	1846485	1805834	3652319
Percentage of urban population	88.2 %		
Percentage of rural population	11.8 %		
Average size of Libyan families (person)	6		
Total fertility rate (for women aged 15-49)	72 %		
Average age	26		
Average age at first marriage	Males	Females	Total
	31.2 %	33.9 %	32.6 %
Percentage of those never married	53.6 %		
Percentage of enrollment in primary education	Males	Females	Total
	97 %	97.1 %	97.1 %
Percentage of contribution in economic activities	Males	Females	Total
	64.9 %	26.9 %	45.9 %
Percentage of workers in administrative bodies	50.6 %		
Total fertility rate (for women aged 15-49)	72 %		
Percentage of workers in public services and social services	63.5 %		
Literacy amongst populated aged 10 and above	11.5 %		

Approximate statistics of 2013:

Table 2 Estimations of population 2013⁽²⁾

Category	Males	Females	Total
Libyan Population (thousands)	3,087.8	2,914.0	6,001.8
Population in work age (thousands)	2,009.0	1,905.0	3,914.0
Activity rate	64.5%	39.2%	52.2%
Workforce (thousands)	1,297.0	747.0	2,044.0
Number of workers (thousands)	1,109.0	597.0	1,706.0
Percentage of workers out of total population in work age	55.2%	30.4%	85.6%
Unemployed (thousands)	187.9	167.4	355.3
Unemployment rate	14.5%	22.4%	17.4%

Main Remarks on the situation of youth in the job market according to official statistics above:

- 1- The Libyan population is very low considering the size of the country. This is clear from the population distribution which is estimated to be 4 people for every square kilometer. It should also be mentioned that population growth has clearly declined in the 2006 Census in comparison to previous reports. The approximate statistics of 2012 and 2013 show that growth rate is still low, although these are estimations and not official accurate figures. In general, the increase of war casualties and continuous road traffic deaths⁽³⁾, will play a role in low population growth rate in the future. The tables below show the rates of population growth and road traffic deaths in Libya according to official statistics.

Table 3 Population growth over the years⁽⁴⁾

Years	Libyan Population		Non-Libyan Population		Total	
	Population	Growth Rate%	Population	Growth Rate%	Population	Growth Rate%
1973	2052372	3.4	196865	16.7	196865	4.1
1984	3231059	4.2	411517	6.9	411517	4.5
1995	4839739	2.8	409326	-0.05	409326	2.5
2006	5323991	1.8	349040	-1.4	349040	1.5

(2) Bureau of Statistics and Census, 2013 Report.

(3) Libya the highest country in road traffic deaths considering its population according to World Health Organization reports.

(4) Impact of low population growth rates on Libyan economy – Abdullah Shkab.

Figure 1: Mortalities in Libya

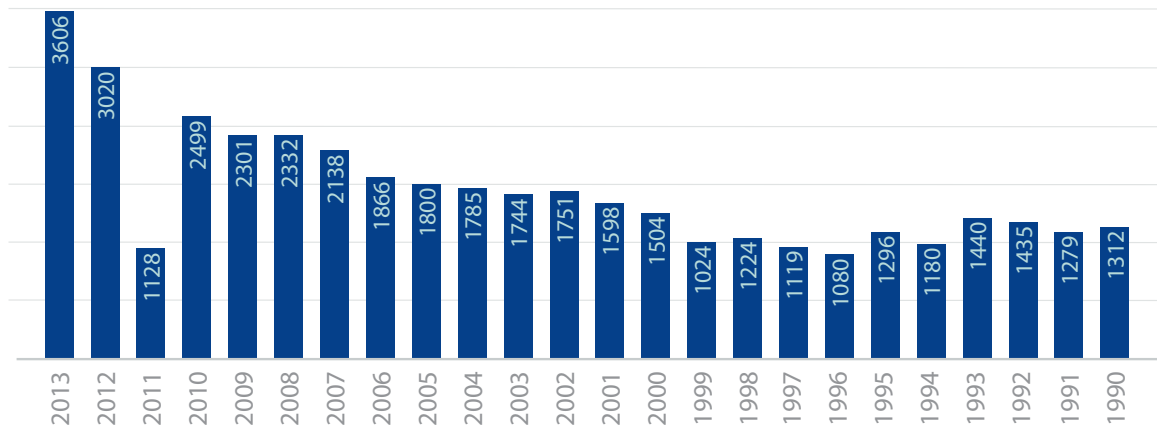


Table 4 Global road traffic deaths⁽⁵⁾

Country	Population (millions)	Population (millions)	Mortalities per 100 thousand
Germany	82.727	3540	4.3
UK	63.136	1827	2.9
Finland	5.426	259	4.8
Ireland	4.267	112	4.1
Norway	5.619	192	3.8
Denmark	5.619	112	3.8
Sweden	9.571	272	2.8
Libya	6.200	3606	73.4

(5) Global Death Rates, World Health Organisation, 2016.

In general, low population growth in Libya is clearly affecting the local economy and the job market, especially since this rate, as we mentioned above, might continue decreasing due to increased fatalities and deteriorating economic conditions causing less marriages. The 2006 statistics showed that the average age of marriage is 34. And while there are no new statistics in this regard, many indicators and observations through the social sphere indicate the situation remains the same.

- 2- Population distribution in various areas is causing a huge imbalance. Over 88.2% of the population live in urban areas, which are mainly coastal. Therefore, the population is poorly distributed with job opportunities being wasted also especially in the south of Libya. This is while the population growth rate continues to rise in the neighbouring countries to the south, and the widespread of different types of smuggling activities, illegal migration, and other activities that cause a clear dysfunction and a devastating damage to the Libyan economy.
- 3- The percentages of males and females are almost equal in the Census, and they are also equal in the enrollment in education. There are more females in higher education due to males' dropout. However, the percentage of female contribution in the economy is only 26%, which is third of male contribution, estimated to be 64%. Several serious indicators should be noted, such as that the percentage of females in the economically inactive human power is double that of males. This is keeping in mind that the percentage of female job-seekers is equal to almost third of male job-seekers. All these indicators confirm that there is a wasted human power, and that there is a critical need to including it in the job market in a balanced manner to achieve economic development⁽⁶⁾ . See tables below.

Table 5 Distribution of Number and Percentage of Students Enrolled in Education according to 2006 statistics⁽⁷⁾

Educational level	Number of enrolled Libyan students					
	Males		Females		Total	
Secondary education and equivalent	221665	24.54 %	220262	24.78 %	441927	24.65 %
Above secondary education & below graduate level	51322	5.68 %	49219	5.54 %	100541	5.61 %
Graduate & Postgraduate	93761	10.37 %	114466	12.88 %	208227	11.6 %
Total	366748	100 %	383947	100 %	720695	100 %

(6) Jusoor has done a comprehensive research on women's situation in the job market which was published in 2017. For more information please visit: <http://jusoor.ly/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/Women-in-Libyan-Workforce-.pdf>

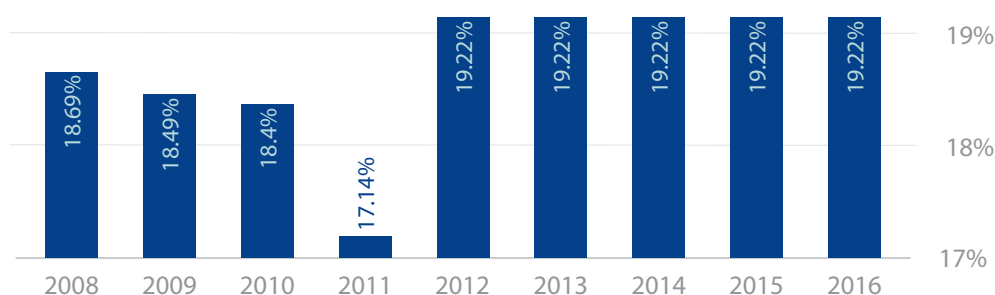
(7) Here we are interested in secondary, university education and higher degrees, since they are amongst the human power, since those enrolled in them are aged 15 and above

Table 6 Table 6 Distribution of Libyan population in 2006 (aged 15 and above) by human power distribution and gender, displaying human power's contribution to economic activity and unemployment rate by gender

Distribution of human resources		Number of people		
		Males	Females	Total
Economically active	Working	940133	388153	1328286
	Job seeker who had previously worked	6060	748	6808
	Seeking the first job	25225	88571	340786
	Working	258275	89319	347594
Total economically active population		1198408	477472	1675880
Economically inactive	Students	430362	428019	858381
	Housewives	-	845552	845552
	Retired	164371	15071	179442
	Others	53344	39720	93064
Total economically inactive population		648077	1328362	1976439
Total human resources		1846485	1805834	3652319
Rate of contribution of human resources in economic activity		64.90 %	26044 %	45.89 %
Rate of unemployment amongst the economically active		21.55 %	18.71 %	20.74 %

- 4- The unemployment rate is too high considering the available opportunities for economic development including size, natural resources, and geographical location. Below is a graph showing unemployment rates between 2008 and 2016⁽⁸⁾:

Figure 2: Unemployment in Libya (2008 – 2016)



(8) Source: <https://tradingeconomics.com/libya/unemployment-rate>

- 5- There is clear misuse and wasting of human power in Libya. We have already discussed the waste in human power with regards to the percentage of women workers. Additionally, the above unemployment figures indicate that there is a real problem in finding job opportunities. But we must also refer to other issues that might be well-known, such as disguised unemployment, which can be defined as the use of the economically active workforce in public sectors but without having any productivity or role in economic development⁽⁹⁾. This can be understood more deeply from the tables below:

Table 7 Distribution of human power by activity, according to 2006 statistics

Type of economic activity	% of total workers		
	Males	Females	Total
Agriculture and hunting	10.79	4.87	8.85
Fishing	0.12	0.01	0.09
Mining and quarrying	3.48	0.55	2.55
Manufacturing	4.71	1	3.53
Electricity, gas, and water	4.08	0.54	2.97
Building and constructions	0.41	0.39	2.41
Wholesale and retail, and related services	10.59	0.91	7.56
Restaurants, cafes, and hotel services	0.46	0.19	0.37
Transport, storage and driving	6.65	0.87	4.83
Financial intermediation	1.56	0.91	1.34
Real estate	1.04	0.54	0.87
General administration	32.87	10.94	25.82
Education	16.42	66.99	30.82
Healthcare and social security	3.40	9.57	5.13
Public services, and social and personal services	2.28	0.82	1.81
Housekeeping home services	0.05	0.01	0.04
Undeclared or working in international organizations and embassies	1.09	0.90	
Total	100	100	100

(9) Audit Bureau's 2017 report mentions that the productivity of Libyan individuals is no more than 15 minutes per day. Even if these figures are not based on clear scientific criteria, but there is a clear weakness in productivity, with widespread disguised unemployment amongst the human power. This reflects badly on services provided and means there is government expenditure on salaries without any real change or productivity on the ground.

Types of contribution in various jobs according to the approximate statistics of 2013⁽¹⁰⁾:

Table 8 Distribution of number and percentage of Libyan workers by employment status and gender

Employment Status	Males (thousands)		Females (thousands)		Total (thousands)	
Government work	786.6	%71.0	538.8	%93.0	1,325.5	%78.5
Work in installations owned by the community	80.7	%7.3	20.0	%3.5	100.8	%6.0
Work in public shareholding companies	45.5	%4.1	3.3	%0.6	48.8	%2.9
Work in public co-owned companies	19.1	%1.7	2.6	%0.5	21.7	%1.3
Work in foreign companies	7.7	%0.7	1.0	%0.2	8.7	%0.5
Work in private co-owned companies	8.8	%0.8	1.9	%0.3	10.7	%0.6
Work for others	30.7	%2.8	4.7	%0.8	35.4	%2.1
Self-employed with others	25.8	%2.3	0.7	%0.1	26.5	%1.6
Self-employed	89.7	%8.1	2.9	%0.5	92.6	%5.5
Family work	13.3	%1.2	2.3	%0.4	15.7	%0.9
Undeclared	0.8	%0.1	1.0	%0.2	1.8	%0.1
Total	1,108.8	%100	579.2	%100	1,688.0	%100

It is clear from the tables above that the percentage of workers in the governmental sector or other entities financed by the Salaries Section in the General Budget exceeds 78%, which is over 1.3 million people. In more detail, the 2006 statistics show that the highest proportion of employees is in government sectors such as education, health, and general administration with a percentage of over 60%. On the other hand, according to the 2013 estimations, the percentage of independent workers, people working with their families, or workers in private companies does not exceed 10%.

This all indicates that employees are recruited even though there is a surplus of workers in various sectors, which indicates that there is misuse of human power wasting this capacity in non-productive governmental jobs. This also highlights the wasting of resources by expenditure on salaries for non-productive employees and misuse of available natural resources. For example, Libya has a coast that extends for about 2000 kilometres on the Mediterranean, however, the 2006 statistics show that only 0.09% only work in fishing. And while Libya enjoys appropriate natural potential that allows for investment in tourism, with many beaches, cities, historic and archaeological locations, and the vast desert; however, the same report indicates that 0.37% only work in restaurants, cafes and hotels. And even with regards to the oil and gas sector, which constitutes over 94% of the income, these resources are not exploited well. Most activities are limited to exploration and extraction, but petroleum and chemical industries, refineries and other aspects remain weak. Professor Michael Porter has discussed the importance of developing the oil sector in Libya to reach international standards, which would provide better job opportunities and economic development⁽¹¹⁾.

(10) Source: General Information Authority, Bureau of Statistics and Census.

(11) See: National Economic Strategy: Libya's Moment for Action, Prof. Michael E. Porter, February 22nd, 2007 https://www.academia.edu/24416685/National_Economic_Strategy_Libyas_Moment_for_Action

Type of economy and local development indicators:

a. Type of Economy

It is known that an oil-rich country such as Libya has an oil-dependent economy. Oil was initially discovered in Libya in 1958 and production started in 1961, constituting about 94% of the country's resources. It enjoys highly productive wells and closeness to exporting ports. The Libyan economy was formed after independence and the formation of the Libyan state. In the fifties it was weak, depending mainly on certain agricultural, animal and fish products, taxes and customs, as well as the rental of some military bases in addition to international aid. With the discovery of oil and the initiation of exporting activities, the Libyan economy witnessed a noticeable boom. But it can be said that since then, the Libyan economy has become almost entirely dependent on oil as the main source of income. This has made the Libyan economy a rentier economy that is not diversified in terms of resources. It is enough to mention that the percentage of contribution of the oil sector in the general budget of Libya is between 91% and 95%, and that the percentage of oil exports reached 97% of all exports in certain years⁽¹²⁾.

The table below shows the GDP of various sectors, and clearly highlights the poor contribution of other sectors compared to the oil sector.

Table 9 Gross domestic product by economic sector

In Millions of LYD

Economic Sectors	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013*	2014*
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry & Fishing	613.9	678.8	724.7	572.4	744.8	-	-
Mining & Quarrying & Other related activities	78,617.0	45,438.8	66,476.8	29,367.0	84,411.1	-	-
Mining & Quarrying (including Oil & Gas)	274.4	301.0	324.4	108.1	160.8	-	-
Manufacturing Industries	5,011.3	4,299.1	4,463.0	1,163.0	3,795.7	-	-
Electricity, Gas and Water	1,017.7	1,105.2	1,157.0	393.6	1,168.2	-	-
Construction	3,642.6	5,332.2	5,676.5	1,110.0	1,221.8	-	-
Wholesale & retail trade, goods & vehicle repair	3,140.9	2,738.7	2,968.3	1,694.6	3,473.7	-	-
Hotels & Restaurants	133.2	144.3	154.2	135.8	123.1	-	-
Transport, Storage & Telecommunications	717.8	915.3	983.2	750.1	978.0	-	-
Financial Intermediary	3,810.6	3,981.2	4,253.5	2,499.1	3,595.3	-	-
Real Estate & business venture activities	216.0	231.3	249.4	167.9	224.4	-	-
Government, Defense & Mandatory Insurance	5,592.1	5,305.4	5,504.6	9,522.5	11,859.6	-	-
Education**	417.1	695.3	734.8	268.7	586.8	-	-
Health care & Social activities**	294.9	457.2	486.1	339.3	447.4	-	-
Other services	2,385.3	2,590.0	2,794.9	1,805.5	3,158.4	-	-
Financial services indirectly computed	-3,641.6	-3,720.4	-3,972.9	-2,348.2	-3,358.1	-	-
Nominal GDP	102,242.9	70,493.3	92,978.2	47,549.5	112,591.0	79,952.6	43,030.2
Mining & Quarrying & Other related activities	80,490.7	46,795.7	67,803.5	29,761.7	85,670.1	57,970.4	24,299.4
Other Economic activities	21,752.2	23,697.6	25,174.8	17,787.8	26,921.0	21,982.1	18,530.8
Taxes on products and imports	657.9	1,087.2	1,505.7	274.3	427.5	-	-
Subsidies	12,556.2	7,891.4	7,108.9	8,652.7	12,391.3	-	-
Taxes ruling out Subsidy	-11,898.3	-6,804.2	-5,603.2	-8,378.4	-11,963.8	-13,958.1	-12,159.2
GDP at market prices	90,342.8	63,689.1	87,375.0	39,171.1	100,627.3	65,994.5	30,871.0

*Preliminary

**Representative of the Private & Republic Sector

(12) See: <https://www.eanlibya.com/archives/135227>

b. Economic Indicators⁽¹³⁾

Table 10-A Current values (2018), projections, statistics, graphs, and economic evaluation: Libya – Economic indicators

Markets	Last	Reference	Previous	Range	Frequency
Currency	1.34	Jul/18	1.36	0.3 : 1.44	Daily
GPD	Last	Reference	Previous	Range	Frequency
GPD annual growth rate	55%	Dec/17	-8.1	-62.1 : 104	Yearly
GPD	29.15 USD Billion	Dec/15	41.14	20.48 : 87.14	Yearly
GPD constant price	20388 LYD Million	Dec/14	39016	20388 : 78166	Yearly
GPD per capita	5449 USD	Dec/15	6087	4509 : 11934	Yearly
GPD per capita PPP	13321 USD	Dec/15	14880	11023 : 29174	Yearly
Labour	Last	Reference	Previous	Range	Frequency
Unemployment rate	19.22%	Dec/16	19.22	17.14 : 20.81	Yearly
Population	6.29 million	Dec/16	6.23	1.43 : 6.29	Yearly

Table 10-B Current values (2018), projections, statistics, graphs, and economic evaluation: Libya – Economic indicators

Business	Last	Reference	Previous	Range	Frequency
Competitiveness index	3.48 Points	Dec/15	3.73	3.48 : 3.89	Yearly
Competitiveness rank	126	Dec/15	108	88 : 126	Yearly
Corruption index	17 Points	Dec/17	14	14 : 27	Yearly
Corruption rank	171	Dec/17	170	105 : 172	Yearly
Ease of doing business	185	Dec/17	188	185 : 188	Yearly
Steel production	22.49 Thousand Tonnes	Dec/18	30	0 : 130	Yearly
Taxes	Last	Reference	Previous	Range	Frequency
Corporate tax rate	20%	Dec/18	20	20 : 40	Yearly
Personal Income tax rate	10%	Dec/18	10	10 : 15	Yearly
Social security rate	15%	Dec/18	15	15 : 15	Yearly
Social security rate for companies	11.25%	Dec/18	11.25	11.25 : 11.25	Yearly
Social security rate for employees	3.75%	Dec/18	3.75	3.75 : 3.75	Yearly

(13) Source: <https://tradingeconomics.com/libya/indicators>

c. Important Remarks on the Type of Economy and Economic Indicators

- 1- There is no diversity in sources of income as we have mentioned earlier. The tables above indicate the contribution of various sectors in the GDP and adds to the comments of Professor Michael Poreter, who was contracted with by the former regime to study the situation of the Libyan economy and to create an economic development plan within Libya Al-Ghad (Libya Tomorrow) Project, initiated by Saif El-Islam Ghaddafi between 2006 and 2008. In terms of the shape and sources of income in Libya, Michael Porter has said in his summary that amongst the challenges of the Libyan economy is the state's dependency on the oil and gas sector in addition to what he referred to as the underdeveloped private sector as seen below⁽¹⁴⁾:

Figure 3: Results of the National Economic Strategy

Labor Productivity	Position in International Markets	Breadth of the Economy
<p>Low Labor productivity particularly in public services</p> <p>Significant portion of the population employed in low quality of redundant jobs</p>	<p>Stragnating overall exports, with almost no exports outside the oil and gas sector</p> <p>Limited foreign direct investment, with minimal progress in implementation of approved projects</p>	<p>Economy dominated by the oil and gas sector</p> <p>Underdeveloped private sector, high dependency on public sector output</p>

- 2- The Libyan economy is a rentier economy. The economic process in Libya is limited to exporting oil and gas, and spending local resources on importing goods, fuel and else. Even in terms of the private sector, most of it is based on import and export. Manufacturing is limited in both the public and the private sectors, and it is dependent on importing raw materials. In parallel, about 30-50% of the budget is spent on public sector salaries, which is not a productive sector to begin with. Therefore, the life-cycle of the Libyan economy is limited to the export of oil in order to spend on imports and salaries without achieving any real human or economic development. And hence, the process of economic development, as a narrow concept, is directly linked to oil prices, production, and exports. Any negative factors that affect these aspects would cause an economic crisis such as the current one. Oil prices have dropped globally, and production and exports have been affected by security problems, which rendered production less than usual. The following tables show the figures of income, expenditure, objects of expenditure, and development projects expenditure:

(14) See: National Economic Strategy: Libya's Moment for Action, Prof. Michael E. Porter, February 22nd, 2007
https://www.academia.edu/24416685/National_Economic_Strategy_Libyas_Moment_for_Action

Figure 4: Income and Expenditure of the Libyan state between 2012 and 2017

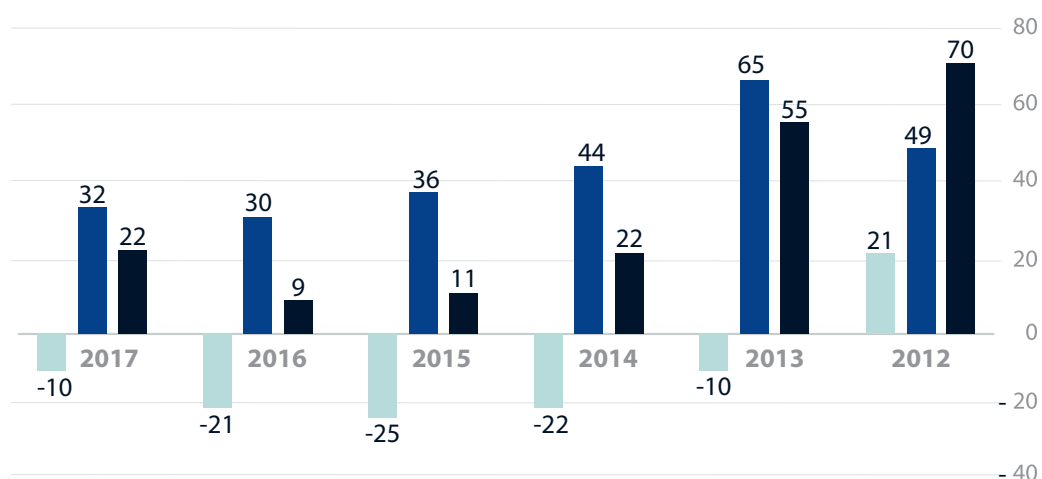


Table 11 Expenditure of the Interim Government in Al-Baida (in million dinars)

Object	2015	2016	2017	Total
First (Salaries)	3,779	4,694	4,947	13,420
Second (Public expenditure)	1,422	678	770	2,870
Third (Development projects and programs)	415	2,326	578	3,319
Fourth (Subsidies)	645	481	413	1,539
Total	6,261	8,179	6,708	21,148

Table 12 Expenditure of the Government of National Accord in 2017

Object	Estimations	Actual Expenditure	Savings
First (salaries)	21,577,000,000	20,288,956,569	%6
Second (public expenditure)	5,663,000,000	4,487,726,685	%21
Third (Development projects and programs)	4,000,000,000	1,910,710,616	%52
Fourth (Subsidies)	6,320,000,000	5,969,999,993	%6
Total	37,560,000,000	32,657,393,863	%13

78% of expenditure is on salaries and subsidies (subsidising basic commodities, fuels and else).

Table 13 Table 15 Development Expenditure between 2013 and 2017

Years	Operational	Development	Percentage of development to operational expenditure
2013	21,577,000,000	20,288,956,569	%6
2014	5,663,000,000	4,487,726,685	%21
2015	4,000,000,000	1,910,710,616	%52
2016	6,320,000,000	5,969,999,993	%6
Total	180,139,703,128	25,032,196,467	%14

In contrast to high expenditure on the salaries of government administrations employees, and on subsidies, the expenditure on development was less than 27% of operating expenditure at best case scenario, while it has not exceeded 11% since the start of the political crisis and military operations in 2014. It has reached its worst condition in 2016 and 2017, as it has not exceeded 6.6% of the total operating expenditure.⁽¹⁵⁾

- 3- High levels of corruption: Libya is amongst the most corrupt states as it was ranked 171 in the Transparency International's report ⁽¹⁶⁾. Corruption remains the biggest challenge facing the Libyan economy. Many remarks appeared in the Audit Bureau's Annual Report of 2017 highlighting mismanagement, misuse of funds, and illegal spending. Most budgets allocated to various ministries, whether operating budgets or development ones, are poorly spent. Financial and administrative corruption is inflicting huge damages to the Libyan economy and to the job market environment.
- 4- Low competitiveness indicator: The Competitiveness Report evaluates countries' ability to provide prosperity for their citizens. This in turn depends on their ability to utilize available resources. The Global Competitiveness Index measures the set of institutions, policies, and factors that set the sustainable current and medium-term levels of economic prosperity. Libya was ranked 126 in the Global Competitiveness Index ⁽¹⁷⁾, indicating the state's weakness in utilizing its available resources
- 5- The spread of shadow economy: shadow economy is defined as economic activities that operate without registration in the official government records, meaning it is not included in the GDP. There are many types of shadow economies and entire societies based on this type of economy. Microenterprises, that are common especially amongst women, are considered one of the fields of this economy. Their work in this manner is a result of weak government support to these projects and weak access to groups working in it. This has negative consequences on people working in this field including illegibility to access social security as a result of not registering in it in the first place and not registering the business. But there are other types of shadow economy activities that provide huge incomes for those working in it, while they cause huge harm to the economy such as the smuggling of petrol and subsidised commodities and other products. It is difficult to monitor and estimate the size of the shadow economy precisely, but it is possible to observe the different types of shadow economy activities amongst certain groups and areas

(15) Audit Bureau 2017 Report.

(16) Transparency International's report, 2017.

(17) Source: <https://ar.tradingeconomics.com/libya/indicators>.

- 6- Weak entrepreneurial indicators: According to the 2013 estimations of the Bureau of Statistics and Census, the percentage of independent workers or those working in family businesses is less than 8%. This shows a real issue in terms of the desire to start entrepreneurial projects by individuals, as opposed to leaning towards public sector jobs as shown previously. In some cases, some individuals might have their own projects in addition to working in the public sector, which gives a sense of security no matter the amount of the salary.

Recently, there has been a general trend, particularly in youth, towards entrepreneurship, which is a positive indication in terms of the spread of this culture. However, there is still a lack of incentive in the Libya, such as small business loans and effective business incubators.

Education and the job market:

Overview of education in Libya (timeline)⁽¹⁸⁾

The situation of education and its progress in any country depends on the social, economic and political situations in addition to stability in it. Education in Libya has been changing depending on the political situation of the country, the agenda of the rulers, and the extent to which education was important to them. During Almohad and Al-Hafsid dynasties, education was based on traditional methods supported locally such as Quranic schools in the mosques and sufi zawiyas. The situation did not change during the Ottoman and Qaramanly periods, except during the end of the Ottoman period when a few modern civil schools were opened, with the number of people benefiting from them being limited. This was in addition to opening some vocational schools, such as the School of Arts and Crafts in Tripoli, and military schools which allowed Libyans to enrol in addition to Turks who were a majority in those schools.

Despite this opening up towards modern schooling, the number of beneficiaries of these schools remained very limited compared to the population at that time.

Amongst the programs adopted by Italy to occupy Libya, it opened some schools in Libyan states with the permission of the Turkish government. Some of these schools belonged directly to the church. Italy increased the number of its schools in Libya after invading it in a plan to occupy and settle in the country, and to enforce a state of acceptance amongst Libyans. Therefore, the number of Libyans enrolled in these schools was low. Libyans preferred to send their children to traditional religious schools and to sufi zawiyas instead of sending them to Italian schools. Their fear was understandable as Italian schools relied mainly on Italian language in the educational process, in addition to ideologizing school subjects such as history and geography. Libyans stood their ground with regards to Italian schools even in the period which witnessed the stoppage of armed resistance. The number of people enrolled in these schools, whether Arabs or Jews (who had their own schools), remained low.

(18) The researcher has published a report on improving education in Libya,
See: <http://loopsresearch.org/media/images/photofmkgao2jn.pdf>

The situation saw improvements under the French and British administration. The curricula became completely Arabic. Despite the destruction of some schools in World War II, the number of schools relatively grew, especially secondary schools (preparatory at the time). A teacher training school was opened. But despite these improvements, and despite that Libyans stopped being afraid of sending their children to school and their enthusiasm for education after the end of the Italian occupation; the educational process in that time lacked planning and curricula that are appropriate to the Libyan environment.

Education witnessed a huge leap and great progress, both in quality and quantity, during the period of the Libyan Kingdom. In that period, there was a huge increase in the number of primary, preparatory and secondary schools with the educational process becoming divided into three stages. There was also attention given to kindergartens, institutions, vocational schools, and teacher training institutions. Later on, the decision to form the Libyan University and the graduation of many people was the best source for teachers, especially after the formation of the Faculty of Education in the Libyan University. There was a breakthrough in the situation of education in Libya. Despite the lack of a certain philosophy and written objectives for the plan followed by the consecutive governments during the period of the kingdom; it was clear that the main objective was to make education available to anyone wanting to pursue it. Such opportunities were not available in enough numbers during the British and French administration, let alone being rare under the Italian occupation and the Turkish administration.

In summary, it can be said that the Kingdom period was the real start of a comprehensive educational process as a national plan adopted by the Libyan state. However, it had some shortcomings. These included the inability to create Libyan curricula and therefore depending mainly on Egyptian curricula and depending on Egyptian teachers especially in scientific subjects such as physics and mathematics due to poor teacher training during a long time of the Kingdom period. Although the Kingdom managed to raise the number of primary education students, it faced another problem which is the dropout of students from educational institutions after finishing the primary education stage. This is in addition to high failing rates, the lack of harmony between theoretical curricula and vocational training, and the weak connection between education and its objectives with no clear plan to utilize graduates appropriately.

It should be noted that although the change in the situation of education was both in quantity and quality, however the diversity was more due to the quantity rather than the quality. Despite the increase in faculties, institutions, vocational schools, different stages schools (kindergartens, primary and secondary education, literacy schools and further education), however, this quantity and diversity was not linked to a clear integrated educational plan that considers the number and type of educational institutions and the needs and requirements of the society. This continued during the Ghaddafi era, which despite seeing great changes in terms of education becoming mandatory in preparatory and secondary stages, increased numbers of students and educational institutions, decent progress in infrastructure, and the hiring of a large number of foreign teachers; however, all of these gains were not based on an integrated educational plan. The result was that the educational process started to crack, and huge problems started to appear as a result of uncalculated decisions such as: the workforce staffing decision and transferring many teachers to it without prior planning which resulted in a deficit in teachers both in terms of quantity and quality, which happened simultaneously with the decrease in the number of foreign teachers and the weakness in the administration of educational inspections. Those symptoms remain till today.

General information and data on education

Table 14 Number of students in primary and preparatory schools

grade	Number by gender		
	Male	Female	Total
First grade	65247	63698	128945
Second grade	59379	57626	117005
Third grade	52009	56538	114547
Fourth grade	55740	54250	109990
Fifth grade	54229	51774	106003
Sixth grade	55576	51369	106945
Seventh grade	54377	53058	107435
Eighth grade	53816	54622	108438
Ninth grade	51462	53095	104557
Total	508641	495224	1003865
Total Primary School Students		683435	
Total Preparatory School Students		320430	

Table 15 Number of students in secondary education:

Field	Number by gender		
	Male	Female	Total
Basic Sciences	9687	20726	30413
Life Sciences	10901	35230	46131
Engineering Sciences	31213	7785	38998
Economics	26955	17749	44704
Social sciences	7591	12311	19902
Linguistics	11220	32255	43475
Total	97567	126056	223623

(19) All data are taken from statistics of the Ministry of Education in 2012 and 2013. These are the last published official statistics. The researcher has published a report on improving education in Libya and on higher education. It was published on The Libyan Organisation for Policies and Strategies, and the same data were used: <http://loopsresearch.org/media/images/photofmkdgao2jn.pdf>

Higher education statistics ⁽²⁰⁾

Indicator	Amount
Number of universities	12
Number of faculties	198
Number of specialised departments	1256
Number of students	342795
Percentage of higher education students out of the total population (6 million)	%5.7
Number of local permanent faculty staff	9525
Number of expat faculty staff	1727
Number of contracted faculty staff	5194
Total faculty staff excluding contracted staff	11252
Number of teaching assistants	4114
Number of university employees	18627
Number of sponsored students to study abroad	5948
Ratio of faculty staff – excluding contracted staff – to students	31:1
Ratio of contracted faculty staff to local permanent faculty staff	%54.5
Ratio of teaching assistants to students	83:1
Ratio of teaching assistants to faculty staff	3:1
Ratio of sponsored students to study abroad to expat faculty staff	3 times
Ratio of sponsored students to study abroad to number of local permanent faculty staff	%53
Ratio of Number of university employees to number of local permanent faculty staff	1:1.7
Average number of students per lecture theatre	113 per theatre
Number of internet rooms	94
Number of students per internet room	3647 student
Number of working labs	1476
Number of technicians working in labs	2336
Average number of technicians per lab	1.6
Capacity of dormitories	31938 student
Percentage of capacity of dormitories to number of students	%10.3

(20) Report of the Committee formed by the Ministry of Higher Education, under Resolution 256 and 323 dated 12 and 13 April 2012. It has also been included in previous sources.

General education indicators ⁽²¹⁾

Table 16

Indicator's symbol	Indicator's name	Indicator's value (1-7) or %	International ranking of Libya (1-139)	Arabic ranking of Libya (1-15)
4.09	Type of primary education	2.5	128	15
4.10	Percentage of primary education enrolment	-	-	-
5.01	Percentage of secondary education enrolment	%93.5	48	4
5.02	Percentage of tertiary education enrolment	%55.7	37	1
5.03	Type of education system	2.0	138	15
5.04	Type of maths and science teaching	3.1	113	14
5.05	Type of management schools	2.2	137	15
5.06	Access to internet at schools	2.3	129	13
5.07	Availability of specialised research and training services locally	2.7	134	14
5.08	Teacher training	3.4	110	12
9.01	Availability of latest technologies	4.4	96	12
9.04	Internet users	%5.5	116	14
9.05	Subscriptions to broadband internet	%0.2	110	15
9.06	Internet bandwidth	0.5Mb/s for every 1,000 people	109	14
2.08	Landlines	%17.1	74	7
2.09	Mobile phone subscriptions	%77.9	90	11

(21) The Libyan Education System: Analysis elements, failure factors and development strategy. (A paper submitted to the National Education Conference on 17/9/2012. Abdulsalam Al-Gellali, Libya's former UNESCO representative)

General remarks on the indicators and situation of education and its relation with the job market

- 1- Enrolment in higher education with no clear results (quantity of quality): Enrolment rates in primary, secondary and higher education are amongst the highest in the world and amongst Arab countries. Libya was ranked 48 internationally in secondary school enrolment, and it came fourth amongst Arab states. It was ranked first amongst Arab states and 37 internationally in higher education enrolment. However, these high enrolment rates are because education is free and it is linked to social status in addition to guaranteeing a job in the governmental sector as long as any university degree is obtained. On the other hand, there is a group of negative indicators, with Libya being ranked 138 in education quality, 128 in primary education quality, and 134 in availability of specialized research and training locally⁽²²⁾.

These contradicting indicators mean only one thing, which is that there is attention paid to quantity over quality, and that local educational institutions in Libya produce graduates for disguised unemployment instead of graduating human power for economic development.

- 2- There is no particular philosophy for education (education without objectives): Experts have always spoken about the lack of a particular philosophy in the educational process in Libya and that there is a need to create such philosophy⁽²³⁾. What the experts have spoken about is considered one of the foundations over which the educational process is built, which is: determining the philosophy of education, which is specifying objectives of the entire educational process, of each school year and of each educational stage. And by setting these objectives, success in reaching them can be evaluated and therefore corrected and developed. Through the philosophy of education, the educational objectives can be linked to economic development plans, to culture, and to local lifestyle so that all these components ⁽²⁴⁾ are linked.
- 3- An education without identity equals and economy without an identity: Not having a philosophy and objective for education means that the education would be without an identity and therefore the economy would be without an identity. Economic development planning cannot be done in isolation from the human resources. The meaning of this is not that the education philosophy must produce graduates with knowledge and skills suitable for the job market. However, knowing the objective of the educational process means knowing the skills, knowledge, and culture received by the student in the various educational stages and therefore knowing the extent to which this outcome as a whole can contribute positively and effectively in the job market. The job market needs are changeable from time to time, and therefore the job market needs of human resources, both in terms of quality and quantity, cannot always be predicted. But students can receive, throughout the educational process, a collection of culture, skills and knowledge which would enable them to adapt to the changing needs of the job market in order to work in a positive and effective manner.

(22)Abdulsalam Al-Gellali – The Education System in Libya: Analysis, Failure, and Development Strategy – National Education Conference – 2012(16) Transparency International's report, 2017.

(23)There were recommendations regarding this matter in a forum held by the Libyan Organisation for Policies and Strategies titled 'Public education in Libya: challenges and solutions'. For more on summary and recommendations: <http://loopsresearch.org/projects/view/214/?lang=ara>

(24) For more details see: School Curricula Book, Azima Salama Khatir.

25)Montessori Method of education is based on this philosophy. See the two previous sources.

Knowledge and detailed skills needed by certain occupations can be learnt by students if they have the skill and the ability to continuously develop it. And this skill should be the result of the educational process. Hence, students would gain particular skills during the educational process that would help them adapt positively to the job market, while respecting the importance of detailed academic knowledge for some of the job market needs such as medical professions.

In general, in Libya there is no detailed plan for the educational process with specific objectives, and therefore education has no identity. And at the same time, there is no integrated detailed plan for local economic development that would be implemented on a phased manner. Therefore, even small development initiatives are done haphazardly and hence they have produced economic development with no identity despite the existence of ready plans and studies on this aspect. In summary, the linkage between education outputs and job market needs is virtually non-existent on all levels.

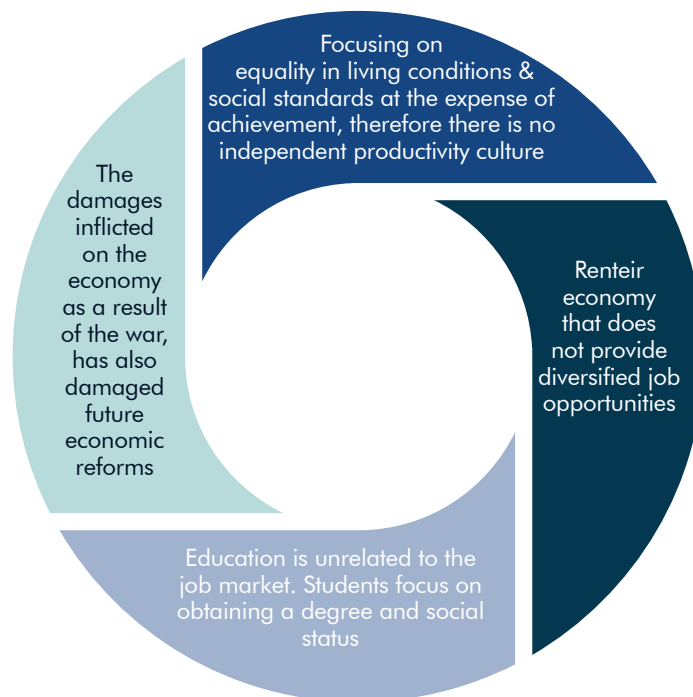
Summary of the Theoretical Framework: Why have we discussed a theoretical framework with this much data and analysis?

The need to present the theoretical framework, the statistical data, and the situation of educational process in Libya stems from the objectives of this study. While the study aims to analyse and present the challenges and needs of youth in the job market, the aim of the theoretical framework was to present the job market to be studied, which was through the condition of the economy, economic diversity, type of economy, and other information related to current and future work sectors. Additionally, the aim of the study was to know the conditions of the targeted group, which is the Libyan youth as job-seekers or part of the Libyan human power by knowing the type of education received and the economy and work culture in which they were brought up.

The theoretical framework will also assist in linking the results of the questionnaires and focus group discussions with essential information from the time and location of the study, and then it will help in analyzing results based on the theoretical framework with the possibility to know biases of participants, how realistic these results are and why answers came as they did.

The following diagram summaries the theoretical framework

Figure 5: Summary of the theoretical framework



Professor Michael Porter has done a similar summary to this study, and the results were as follows⁽²⁶⁾:

General situation:

- 1- Significant isolation from the outside world.
- 2- Focus on equality of living conditions and social standards.
- 3- Oil revenues as the main source of national prosperity.
- 4- Government distribution of oil revenues to address social needs.
- 5- Low labor productivity, particularly in public services. Significant portion of the population employed in low quality or redundant jobs
- 6- Stagnating overall exports, with almost no exports outside the oil and gas sector. Limited foreign direct investment, with minimal progress in implementation of approved projects.
- 7- Economy dominated by the oil and gas sector.
- 8- Underdeveloped private sector, high dependency on public sector output.

(26) National Economic Strategy: Libya's Moment for Action, Prof. Michael E. Porter ,February 22nd, 2007 https://www.academia.edu/24416685/National_Economic_Strategy_Libyas_Moment_for_Action

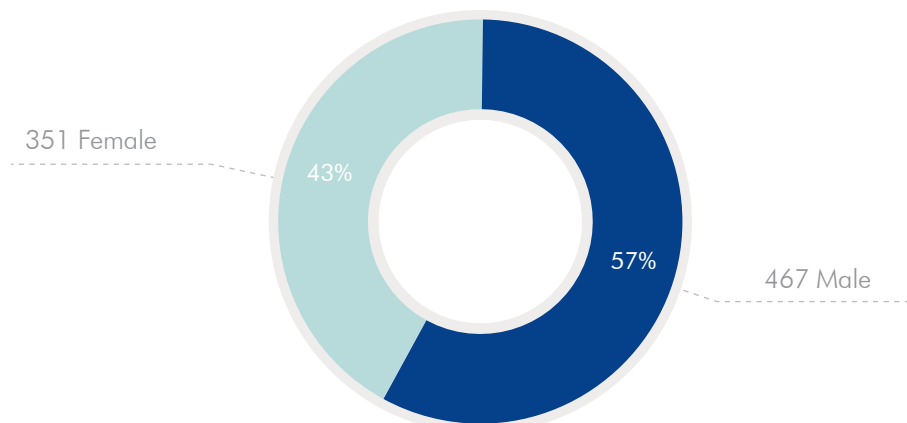
Analysis of quantitative and qualitative data

Analysis of results of questionnaire on job-seekers' needs

A Study population: according to the latest official estimates (the results of the Employment and Unemployment Survey of 2013, done by the Bureau of Statistics and Census) the human power (people aged 15 and above) in Libya is 3.91 million people amongst which 2.1 million are in the workforce, and the remainder 1.81 million people are amongst the economically inactive including students, housewives, and the retired. The youth population is between 1.83 million (not considering those between 15 and 17) to 2.07 million (if those between 15 and 17 are considered). Since the study is focusing primarily on youth, the study population is therefore between (1.83 – 2.07 million people), 48% of which are women and 52% are men.

Study sample: According to the study population above, data has been gathered from those who filled the Online questionnaire which was taken by 818 people. The margin of error in the questionnaire results can be considered 4.5% with a confidence degree of 99% (or a margin of error of 3.4% and a confidence degree of 95%). 42% of participants were females and 58% were males, which is a close percentage.

Figure 6: Questionnaire results by gender



The level of women's participation in this questionnaire is acceptable, as women have formed 42% of participants, and therefore many answers can be analysed based on the gender variable.

Figure 7: Questionnaire results by place of residence (village or city)

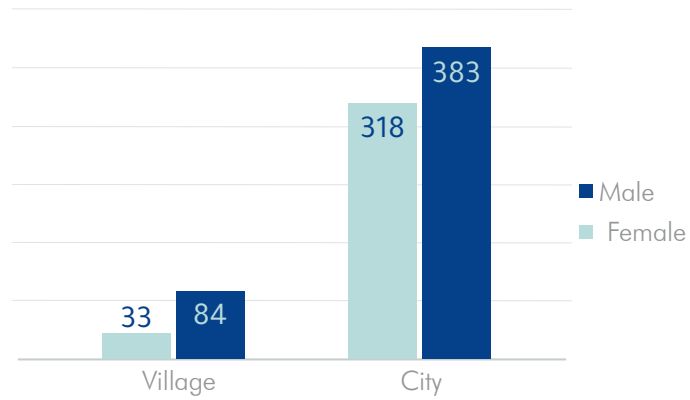


Figure 8: Questionnaire results by place of residence

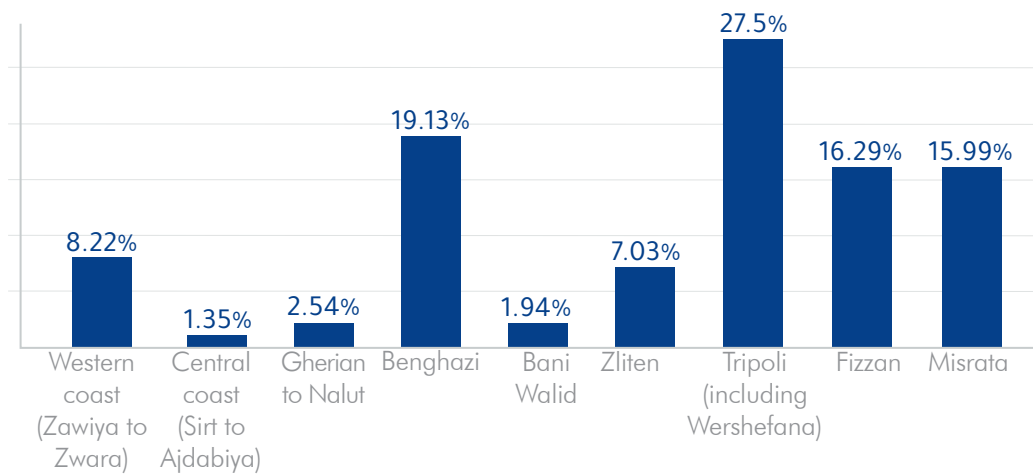
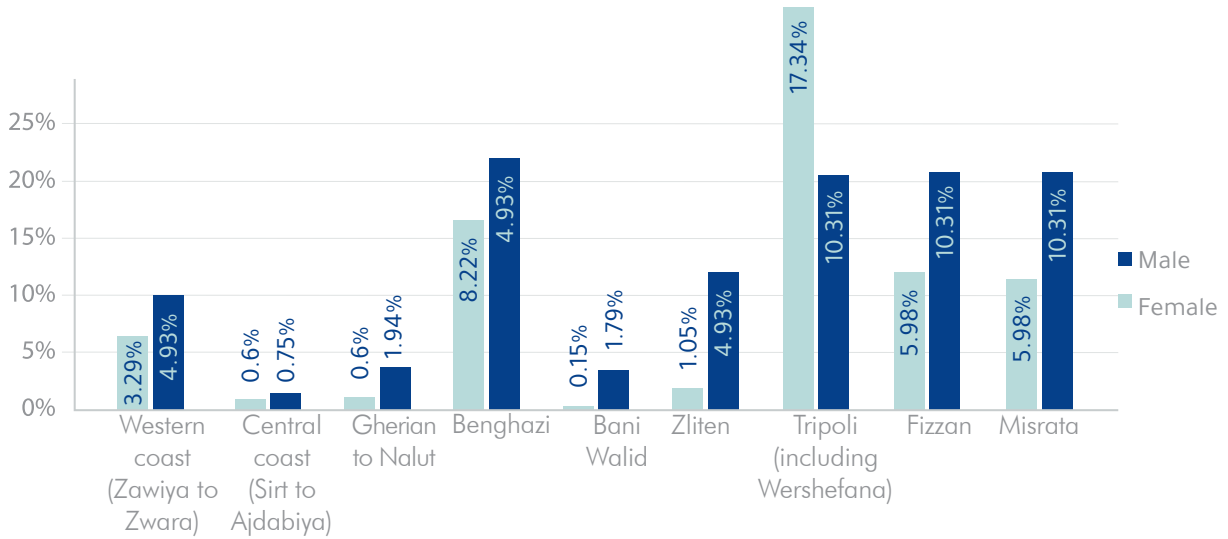


Figure 9: Questionnaire results by place of residence and gender



85% of participants were from cities and the rest were from villages. The questionnaire intentionally targeted different cities to obtain a good geographical distribution that adds to the credibility of the questionnaire. The place of residence variable is important in analysing many of the answers as it is very possible that work and employment behaviours differ based on area. In this questionnaire, the highest participation was in densely populated areas, with participants from Tripoli accounting for 27%, while Benghazi, Misrata and Fizzan constituted 19%, 16% and 16.26% consecutively. The remainder was distributed amongst other areas. This distribution of participants represents the true distribution of the Libyan population.

Figure 10: Questionnaire results by age group

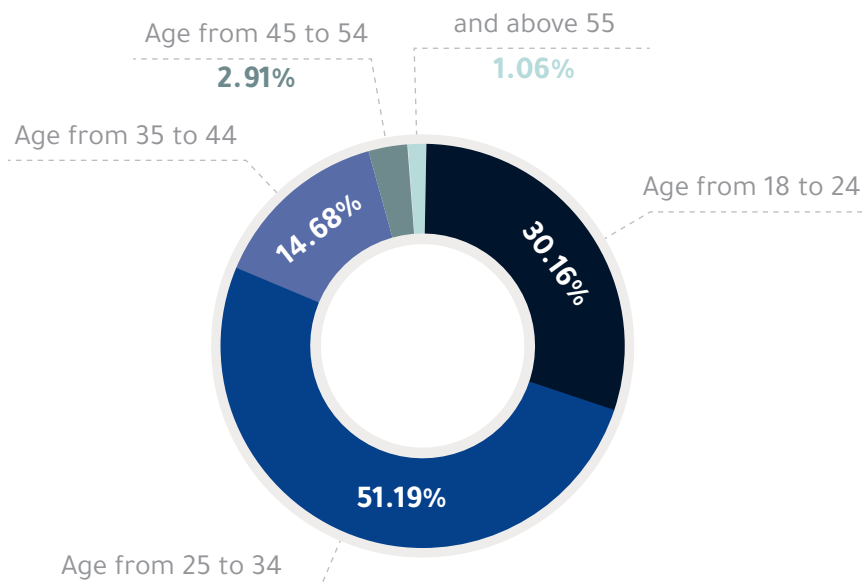
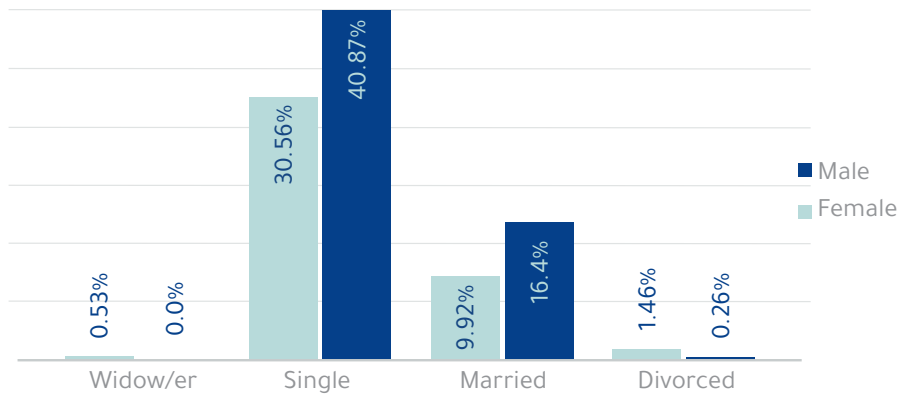


Figure 11: Questionnaire results by marital status



80% of participants were between 18 – 34 years old, which is the main group that this study focuses on. 71% of these participants were unmarried.

Figure 12: Questionnaire results by highest level of education

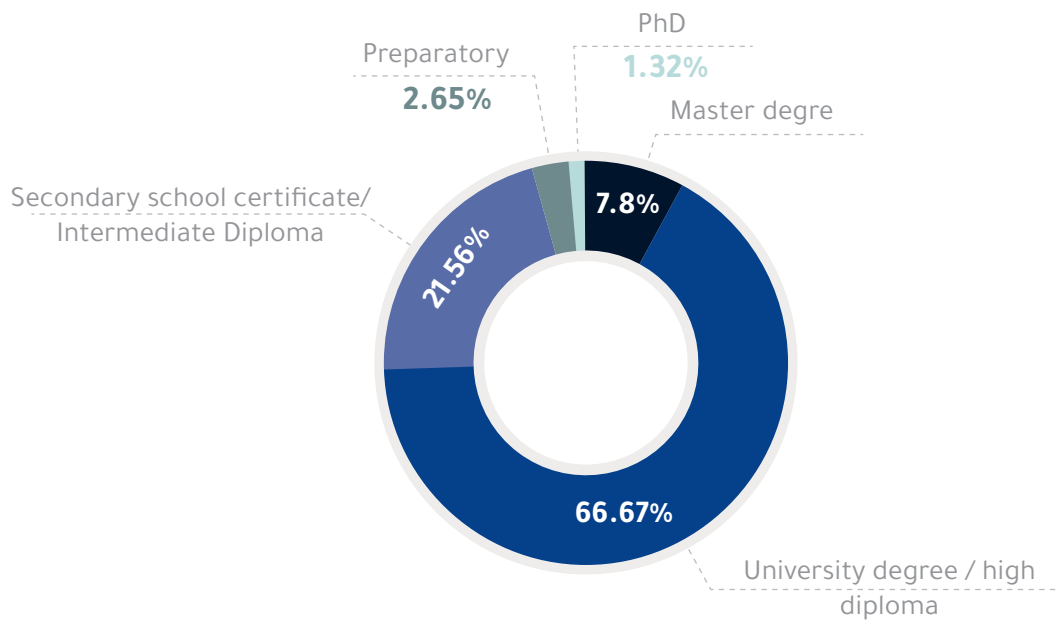
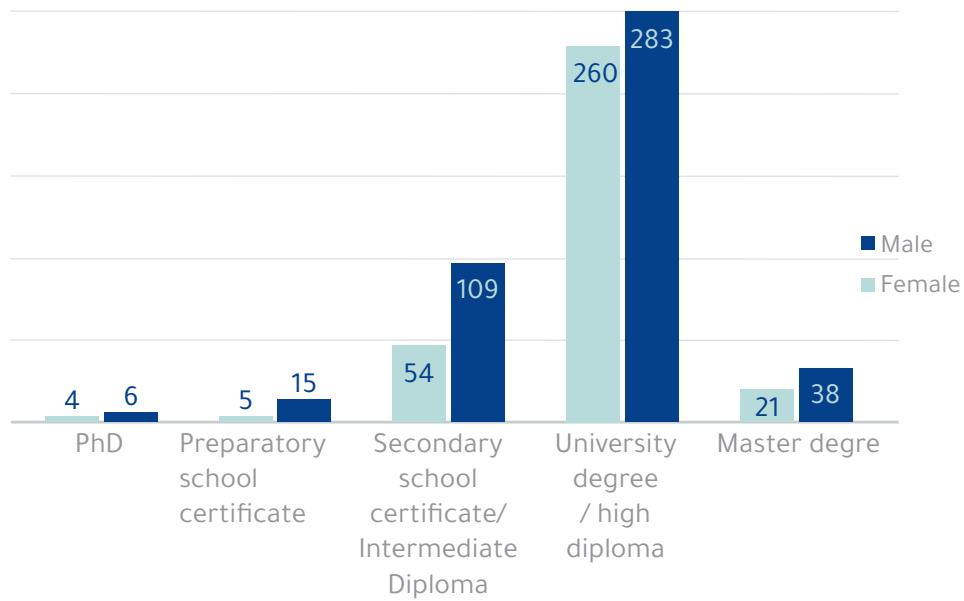


Figure 13: Questionnaire results by highest level of education and gender



It is important to note that most participants, both males and females, have received higher education. 74% of them are graduates of universities and higher institutes, or master’s degrees holders. Additionally, 21% of them are graduates from secondary education (secondary schools or intermediate institutes). Therefore, we are talking about a segment with a good education, which is also in line with the proportional distribution of the Libyan population by academic qualifications.

Figure 14: Questionnaire results by gender and graduation year

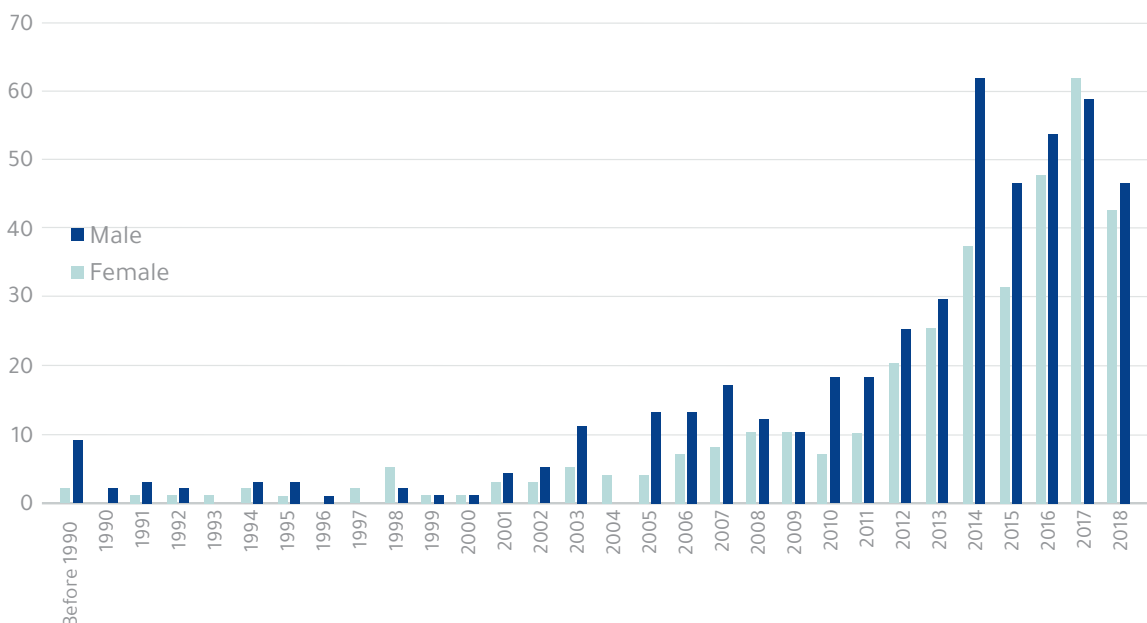


Figure 15: Questionnaire results by gender and type of educational institution

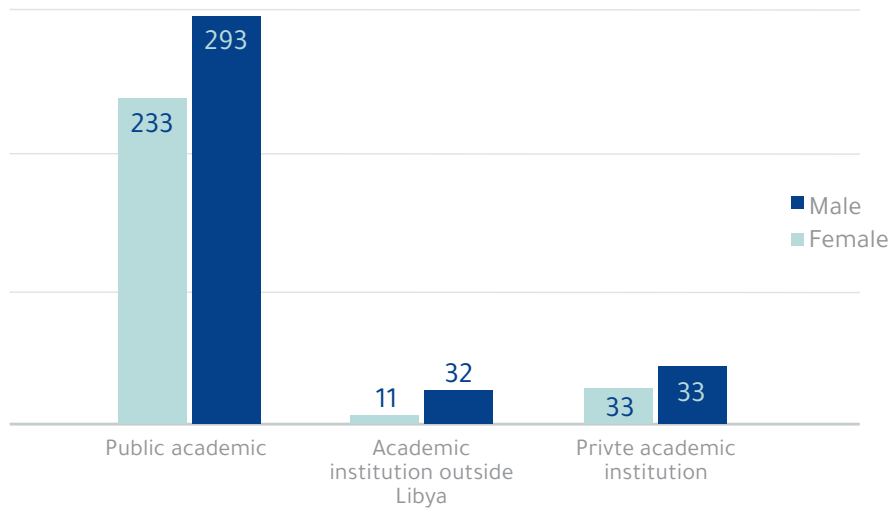
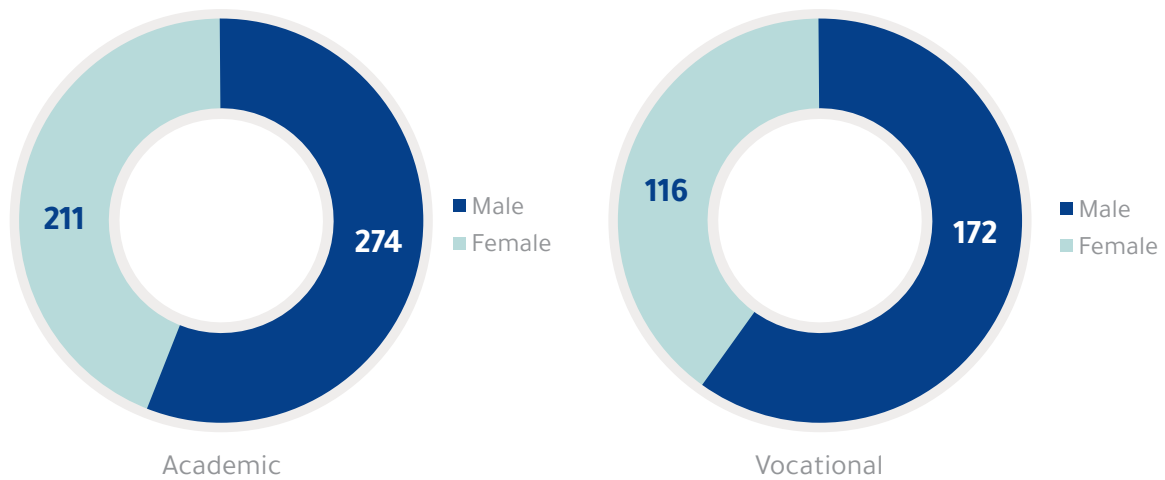
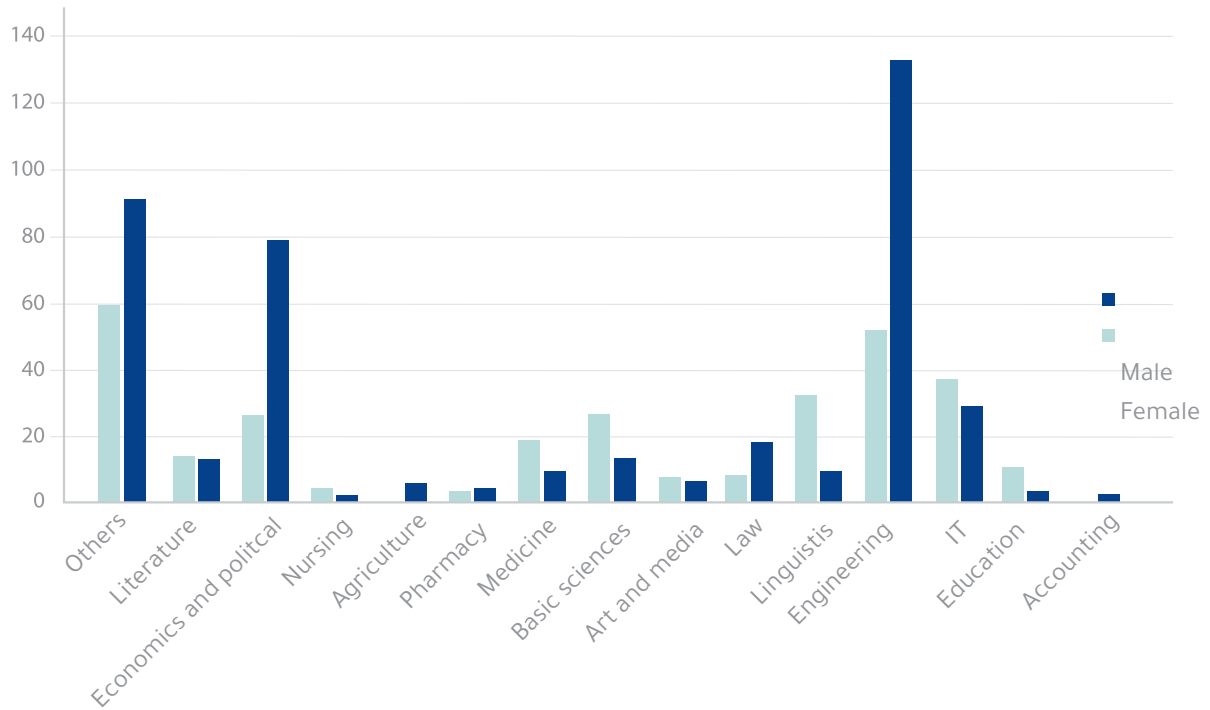


Figure 16: Questionnaire results by gender and type of education



Most participants were young graduates from public institutions. More than half of them have received academic education, while no less than 35% have received vocational education. Therefore, in this questionnaire, we will be analysing the answers of highly educated youth that have graduated recently and have little experience in the job market. This adds to the credibility of the study as it mainly aims to know the challenges that will face youth job-seekers particularly, and the challenges and job market needs for youth in general.

Figure 17: Questionnaire results by gender and academic specialization



Participants are distributed over the fields known to be popular such engineering, economics and political science. These are the highest faculties in terms of enrollment. However, the paradox is that the number of medical graduates is low considering the number of people studying this speciality in different Libyan universities. In general, the speciality variable is going to be important in analysing the answers to some questions. University speciality can affect the behavior and preferences of individuals in the job market as we will later notice.

Figure 18: Questionnaire results by employment status

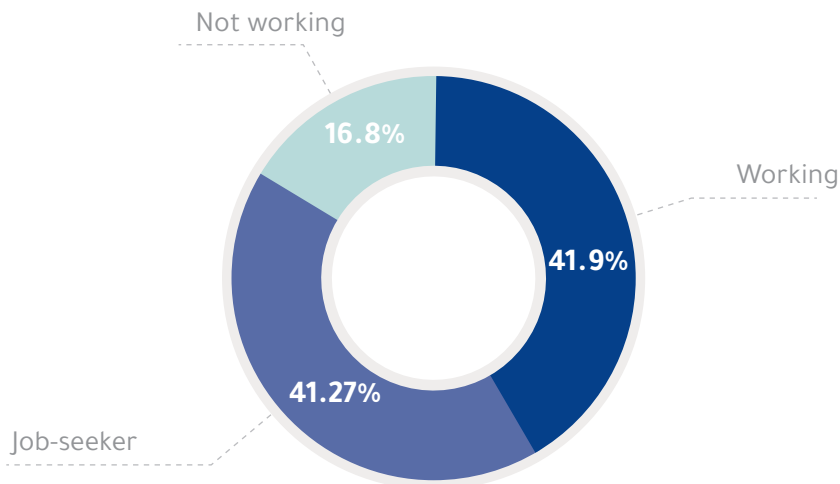


Figure 19: Questionnaire results by gender and employment status

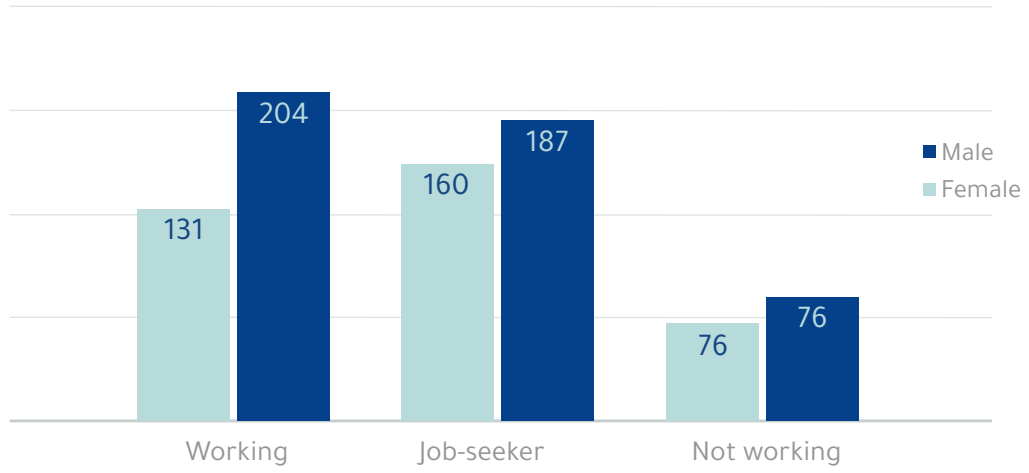


Figure 20: Questionnaire results by gender, employment status, and age group

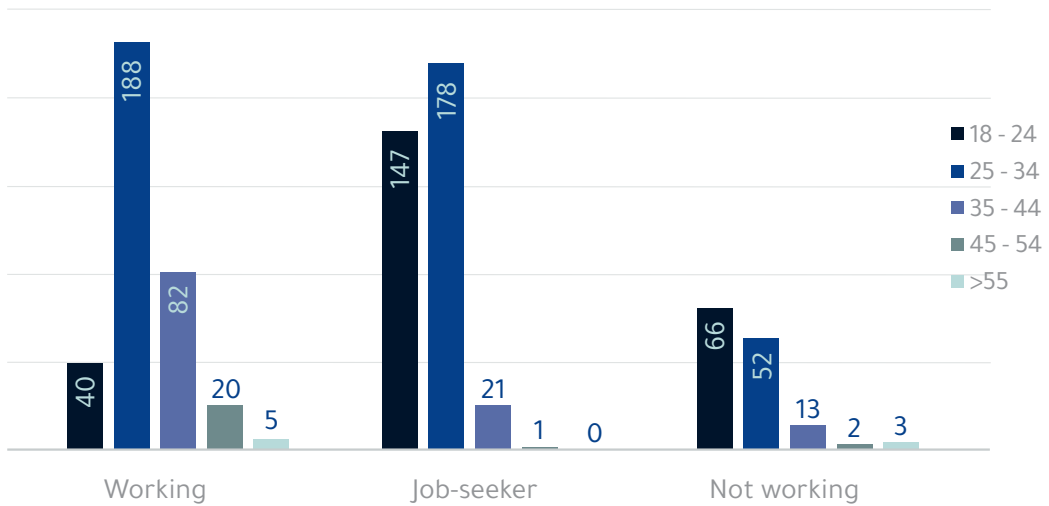
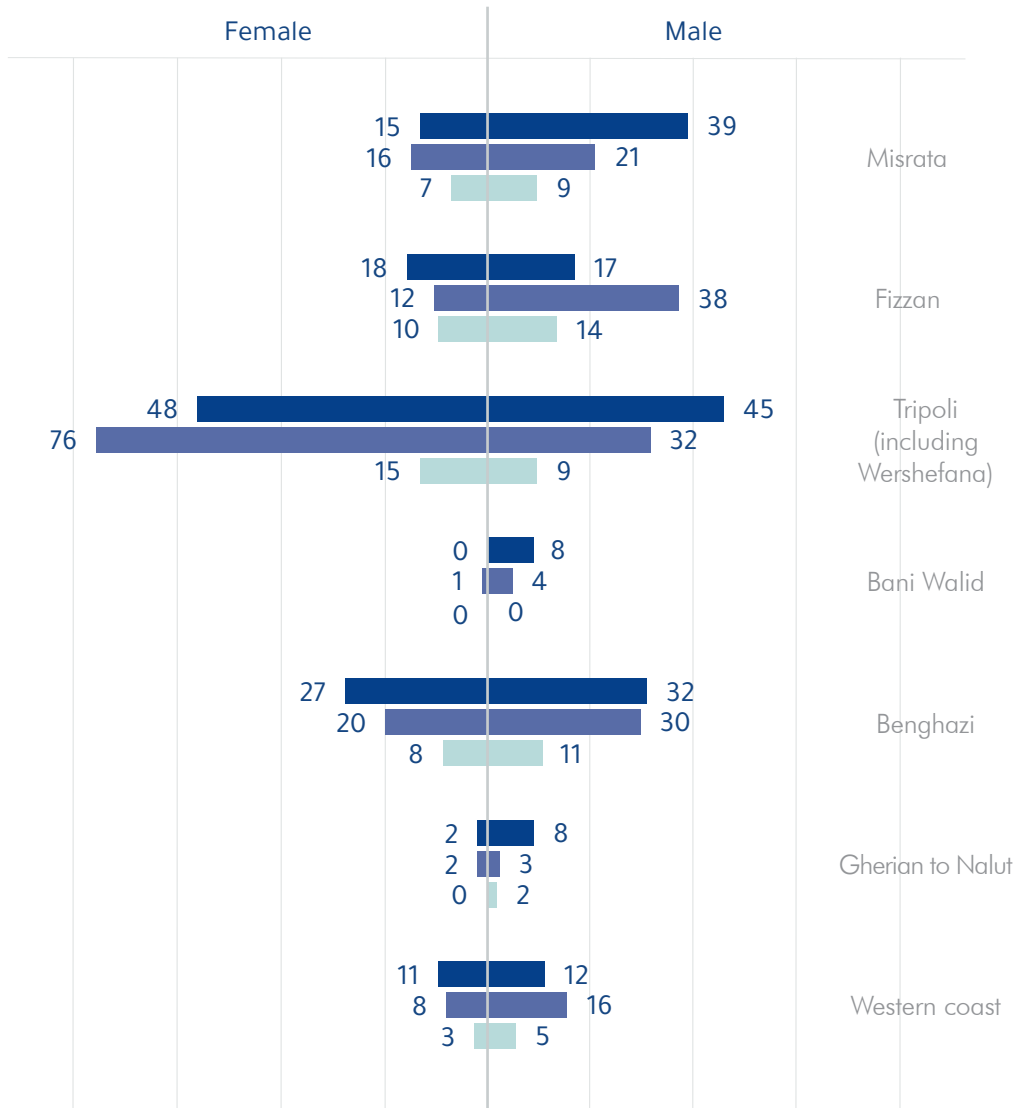


Figure 21: Questionnaire results by gender, employment status, and place of residence



The percentages here are close between males and females in terms of employment status, with 58% of participants belonging to the category of unemployed and job-seekers. It is important to note that most job-seekers were aged 18 – 24, and this is typically the age of fresh graduates, which is a category we are highly interested in knowing their answers and analysing them.

It is important also to note that the highest percentage of job-seekers based on the place of residence and gender are females in Tripoli and males in Fizzan. The high percentage of female job-seekers, especially in Tripoli, is understandable. Official statistics say that women participation in the Libyan economy is very weak considering other indicators such as academic qualifications. The theoretical framework can be revisited for more information regarding this. As for the high percentage of male job-seekers in Fizzan, it can be explained by the insecurity leading to the stopping of many development projects in Fizzan, and that many people now resort to working in smuggling or shadow economy activities, especially with the decrease in public sector hiring and the dysfunction of many government bodies in the region generally.

Career paths:

Figure 22: Questionnaire results by whether or not participants work in their specializations and by gender

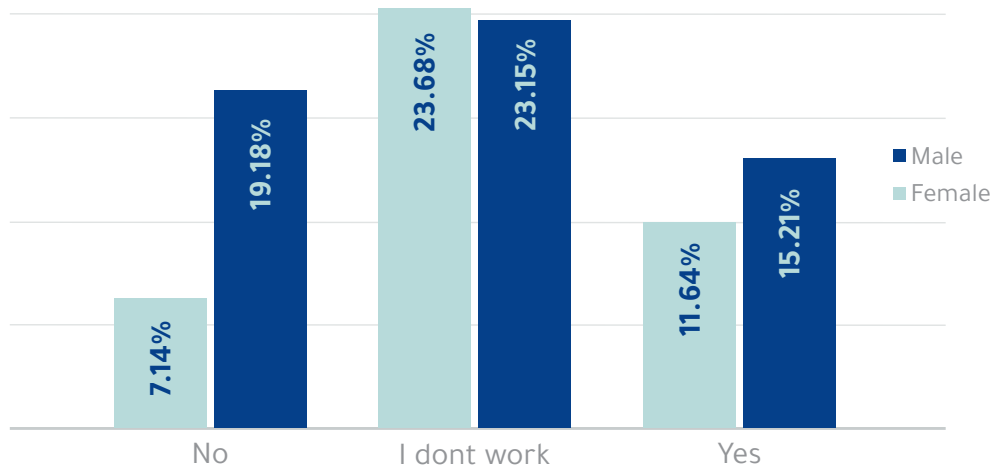


Figure 23: Questionnaire results by whether or not participants work in their specializations and by gender

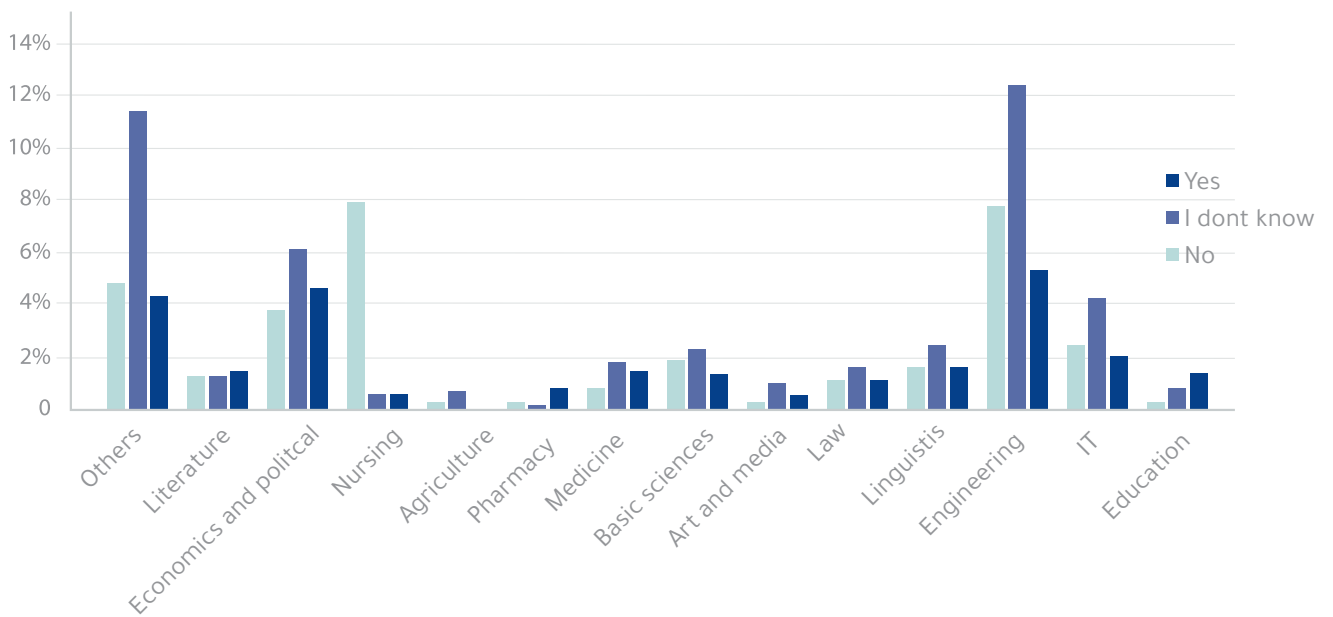
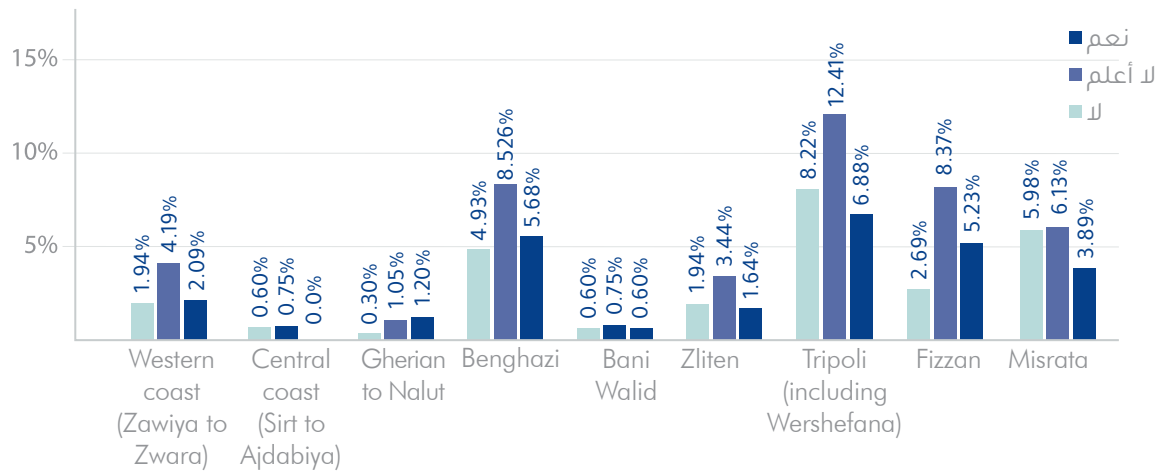


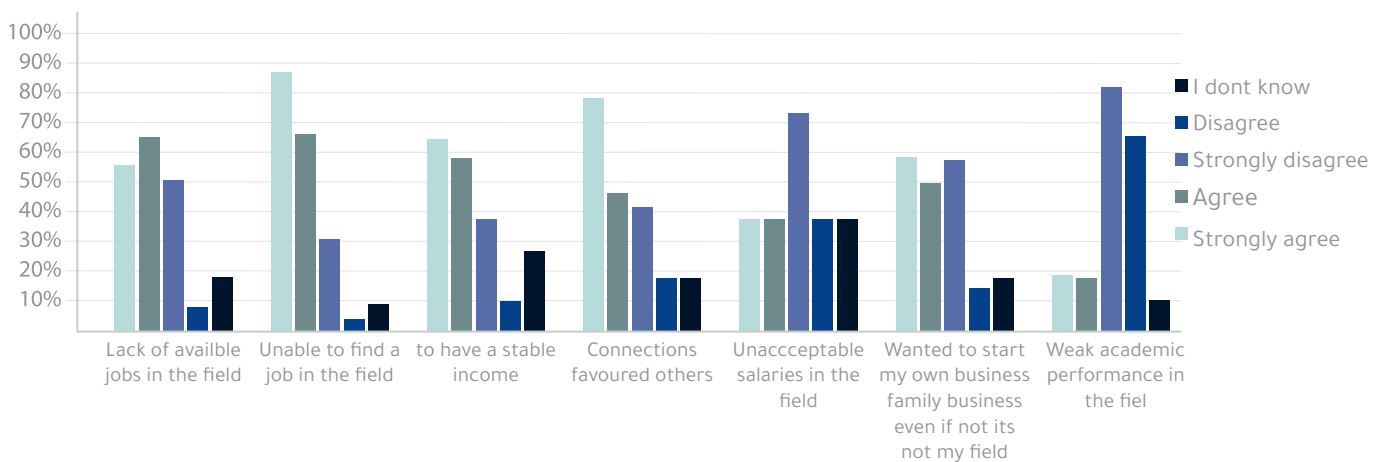
Figure 24: Questionnaire results by whether or not participants work in their specializations and by place of residence



Most participants work in fields different from their academic qualification. It is clear that the percentage of females working in their fields is higher than those not working in them. It is also evident that the highest difference between those working in their fields and those who are not is amongst engineering graduates. This is logical due to the stoppage of development projects in Libya, the large number of engineering graduates, and the lack of projects for them to work in. This is also the case since many of their specialities have no appropriate local job opportunities such as nuclear engineering. We should also mention the lack of practical training in the faculty of engineering, which makes its graduates excellent on the theoretical level but they lack a lot on the practical side.

Reasons for work in a field other than the academic specialty:

Figure 25: Questionnaire results by reasons of working in a field other than the field of specialisation



We notice that the order of reasons that drove participants to work in a field other than theirs is as follows:

- 1- Inability to find a job in the field.
- 2- To secure a steady income.
- 3- Favoritism prevented obtaining a job in their field
- 4- Lack of jobs in their field.
- 5- Desire to have their own business
- 6- Unacceptable salaries in their field.
- 7- Weak academic performance in their fields.

In the diagrams below, we will comment on each one of these points according to some important variables:

Figure 26: Questionnaire results by reasons behind choosing the field of work and by gender

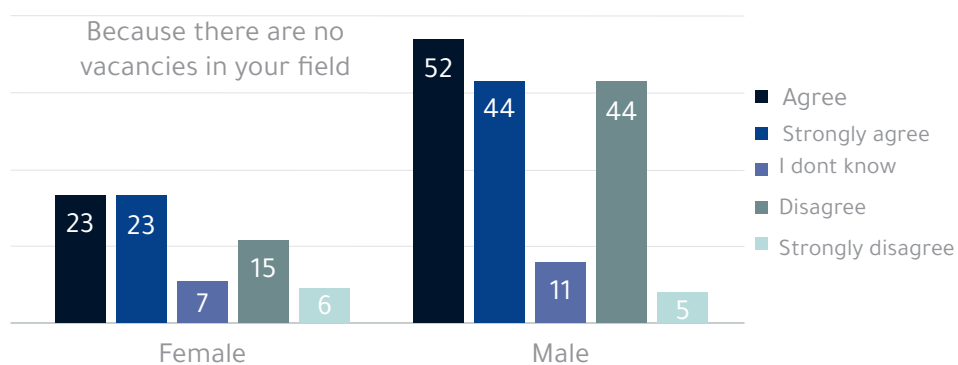
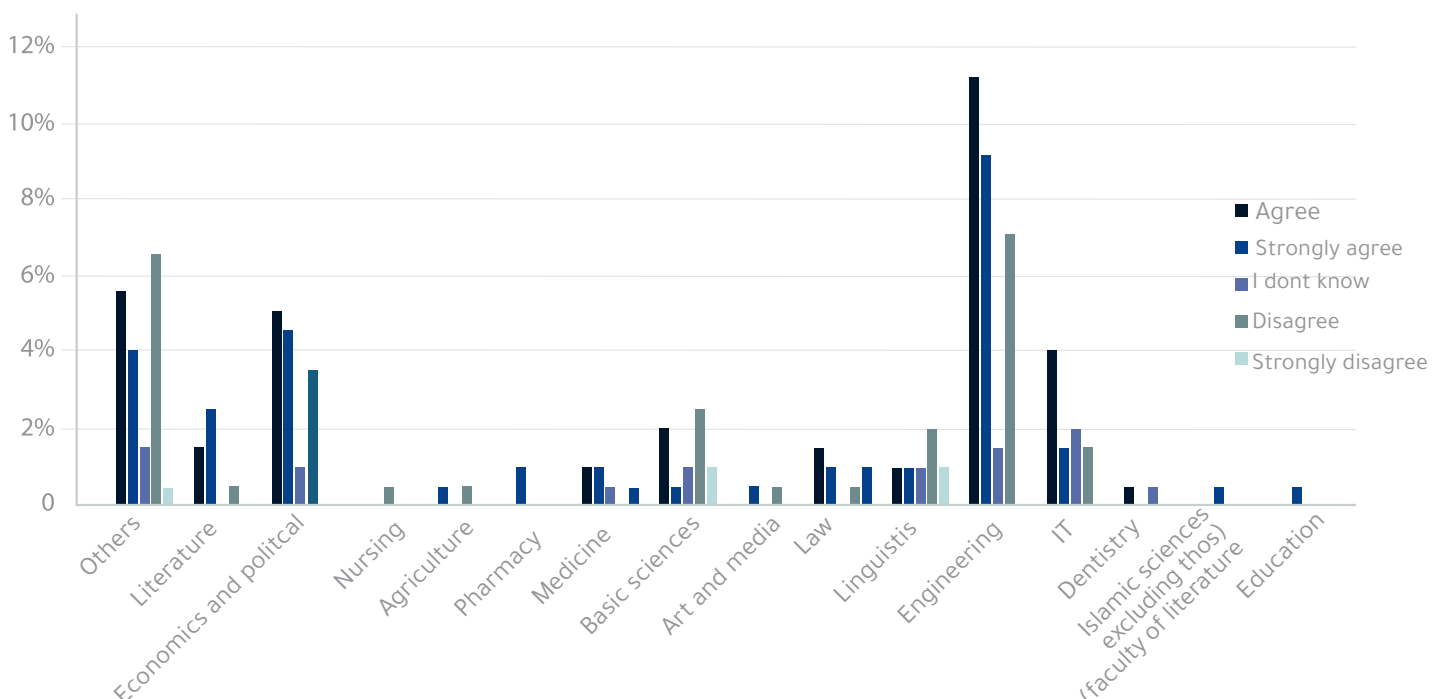


Figure 27: Questionnaire results by choice of field of work and by academic specialization



In general there is no difference between males and females answers to this question. But considering the statistics of university students and the percentage of participants in this questionnaire from particular fields, we find that most of those who said there are no vacancies are generally from fields that have large numbers as there are no entry criteria at university and there is no restriction on the number of new enrollments in each department in academic institutions. This opens the door to graduating a human surplus without enough job opportunities. Therefore, we notice that most of those who chose "I strongly agree" or "I agree" are graduates of engineering, economics and IT .

We should mention that the lack of vacancies in those fields does not mean they cannot exist in the future or that they did not exist in the past. The deteriorating security conditions since 2011, which exacerbated in 2014, has caused the departure of many foreign companies and the stagnation of many development projects that were supposed to accommodate these graduates.

Figure 28: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialization by gender

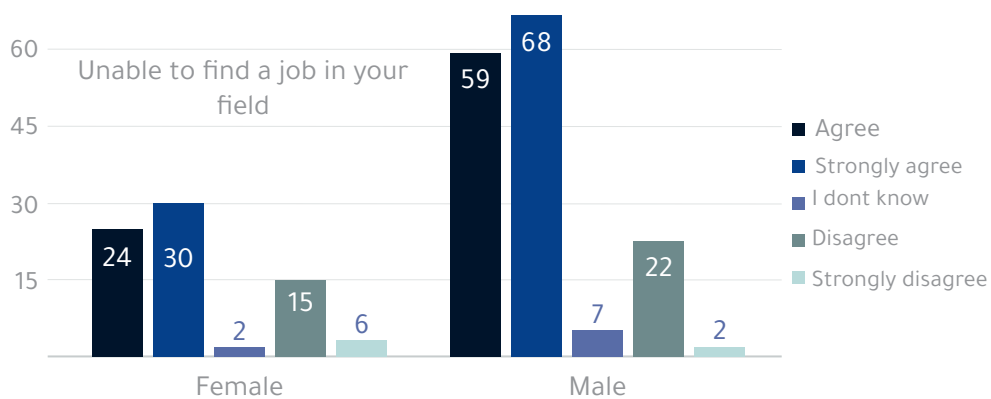
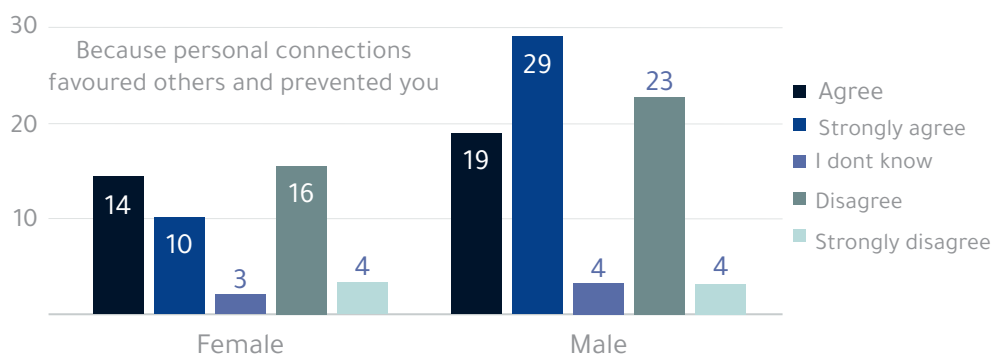


Figure 29: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialization by gender



Inability to find jobs in the field of specialty does not necessarily mean that there are no vacancies. It is possible that there are people from outside the field or with less academic qualifications that fill these vacancies. This is confirmed by participants since most of those who said that favoritism has prevented them from obtaining jobs had also said that they were unable to find jobs in their fields.

Figure 30: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialization by gender

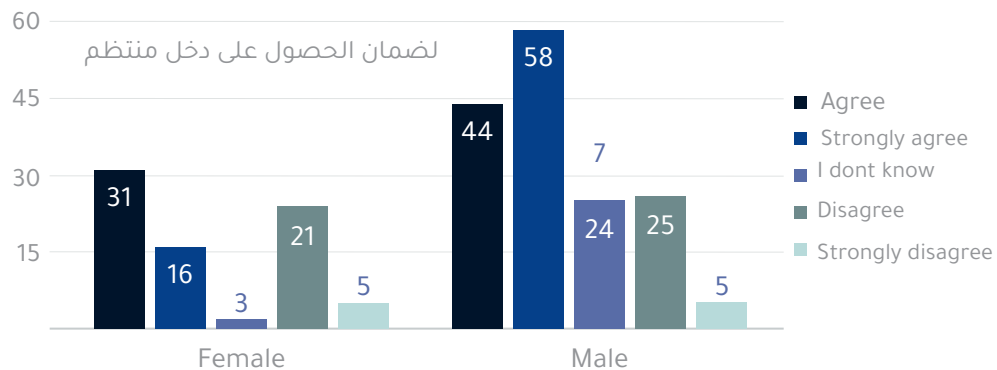
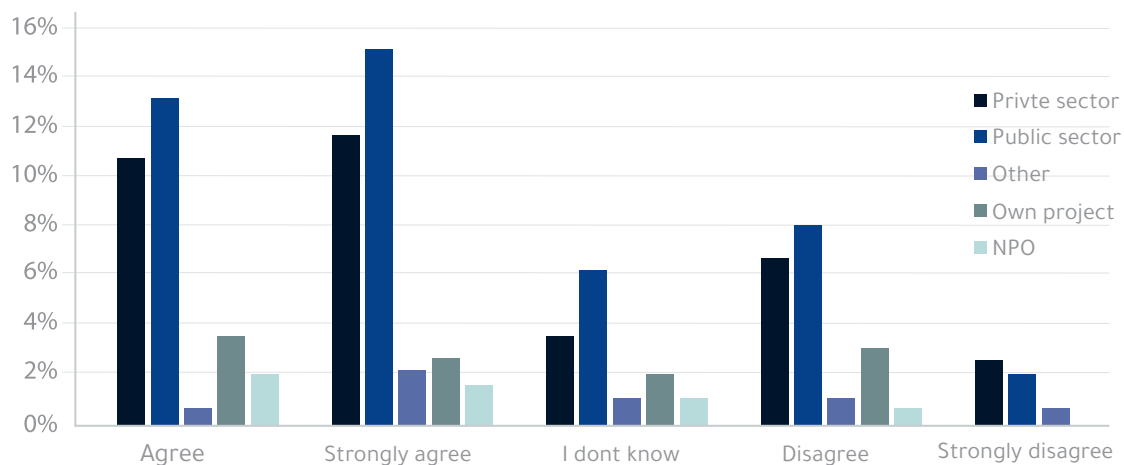


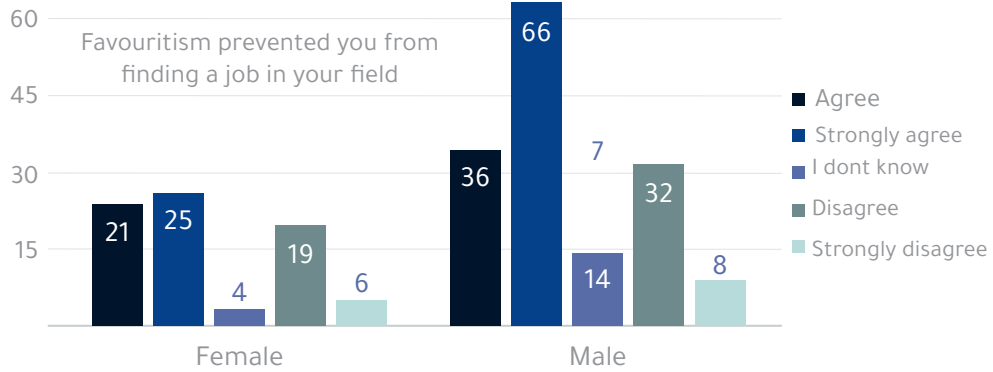
Figure 31: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialization by legal framework of the institution



Working in the public sector is a culture and a social protection more than it is a job. Therefore, graduates and job-seekers tend to try to find a job in the public sector, even if not in their fields, in order to secure a stable income and to have benefits such as registration in the social security fund and the ability to obtain certain facilities and bank loans. Therefore, we find most respondents who said they had chosen to work in a field other than theirs to obtain a stable income are working in the public sector, although the answers are not greatly different from the private sector. But our analysis can be confirmed by reviewing public sector statistics, which indicate there are 1.6 million people in it. The fact that those in the private sector chose the same answer can be attributed to the type and shape of the private sector which is highly

dependent on importing/exporting activities rather than production as outlined in the theoretical framework of this study. These activities, alongside commerce, generally secure a stable income more than other private sector activities.

Figure 32: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialization by gender



There was emphasis on this point and we have previously referred to respondents who said that they chose to work in a field other than theirs due to their inability to obtain jobs in their fields. Therefore, personal connections have a huge effect on hiring people from outside the speciality, or from the same speciality but that are less competent.

Figure 33: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialisation by gender

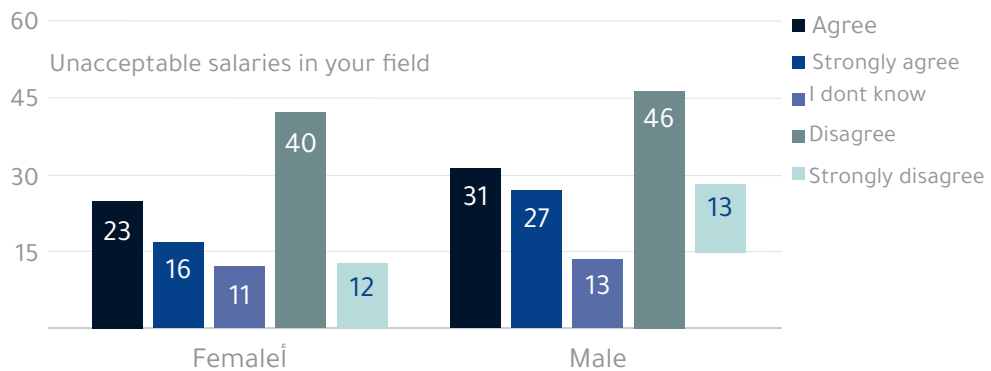
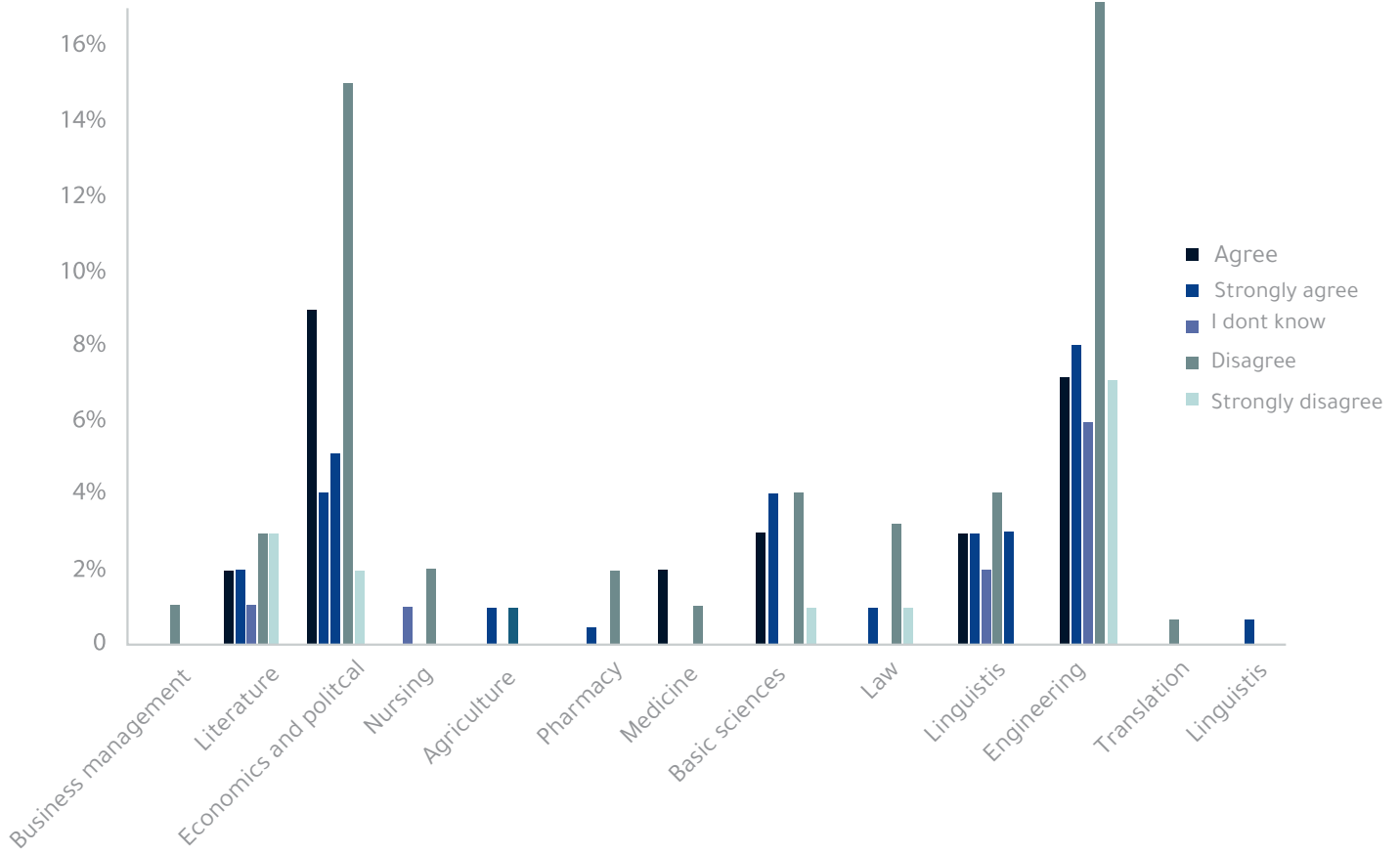
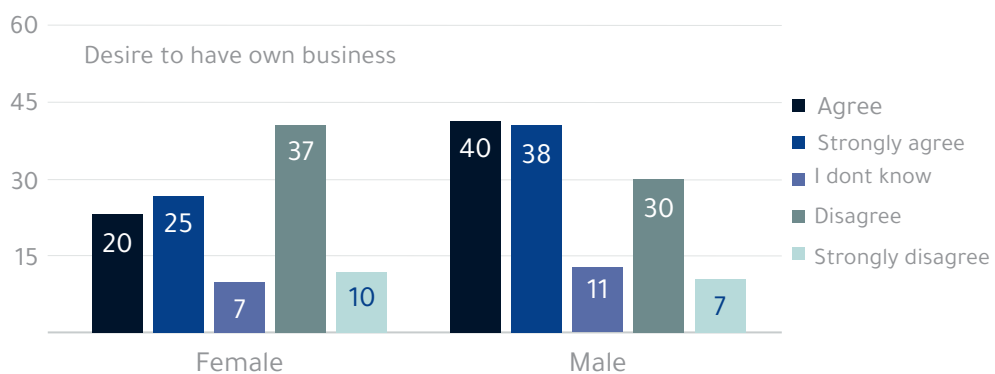


Figure 34: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialisation by gender



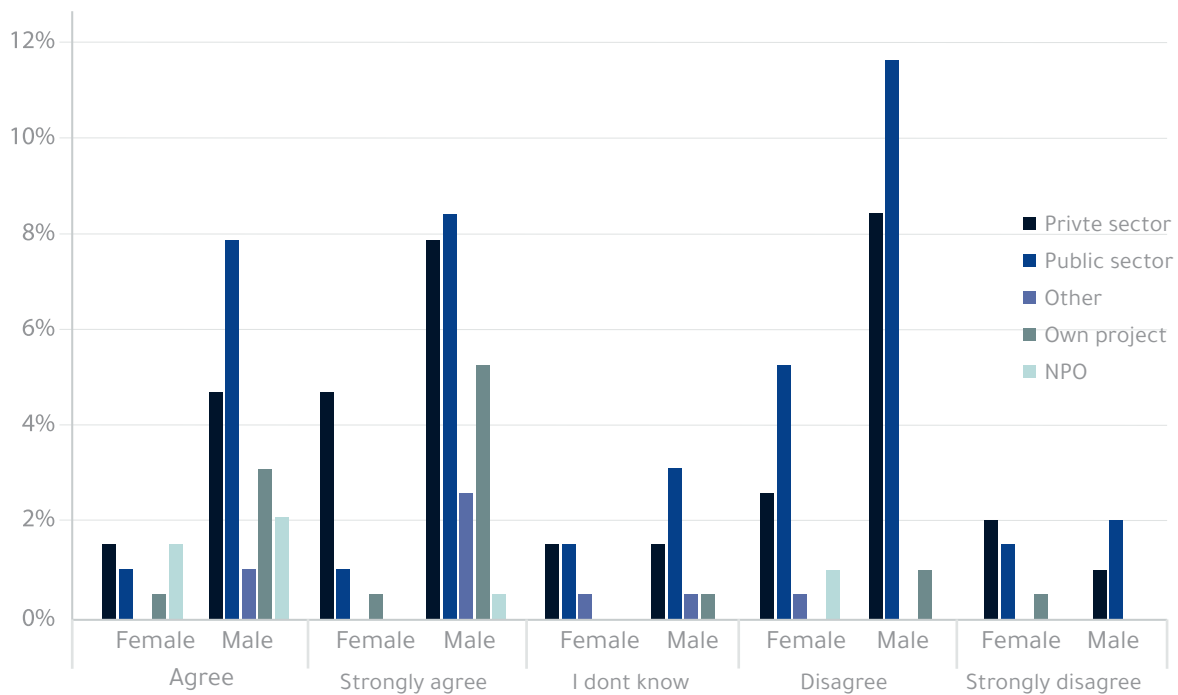
Figures (33) and (34) do not necessarily mean that salaries are not important for respondents, but it confirms that other factors are more powerful in making them choose a field other than theirs. This can be noticed by the speciality variable in answering this question. Respondents with engineering, economics and political science degrees confirm that the reason they chose a field other than theirs is not related to salaries.

Figure 35: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialisation by gender



The results shown on Figure (35) can be analysed from two sides. The first is the difference between males and females answers. Males have chosen 'agree' to answer this question, but females mostly said they disagree. For females, this can be explained in terms of lack of preference of women to create their own businesses generally, even though many of them have projects in the shadow economy to provide for their families. We have discussed the reasons behind this lack of motivation in a previous study by Jusoor on women and the job market. We concluded that many cultural obstacles prevent women from having their own businesses. The second aspect is that there is a confliction in the answers of males in particular. Participants who said they work in a field other than theirs because they wanted to have their own business actually work in the public sector or in other private sector institutions, and most of them do not have their own business as seen in Figure(36) below:

Figure 36: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialisation by gender and legal framework of institution



There is no clear explanation for this paradox, but there are two possibilities. The first one is that they did not understand the question, and this is unlikely because it is clearly stated. The other possibility is that they work in the public sector but as part of the disguised unemployment, meaning they have their own businesses at the same time.

Figure 37: Categorization of results regarding one reason behind choosing to work in a field other than academic specialisation by gender

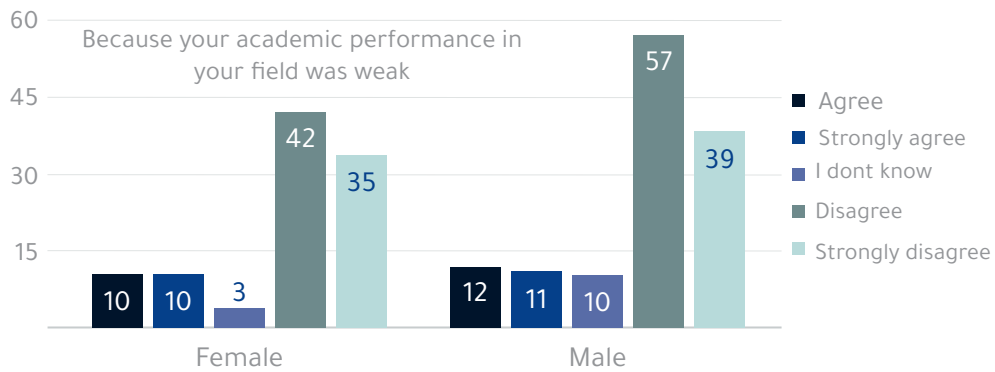


Figure (37) represents the least chosen choice as a reason to why participants chose to work in fields other than theirs. Perhaps there is a direct indicator about the result that is not related to people’s evaluation of their academic performance in their field but their evaluation to the educational process as a whole. The outputs of theory-centered education are similar, as excellence does not create huge differences between individuals except in limited specialities.

Type of jobs and means of obtaining them

Figure 38: Results by type of job and gender

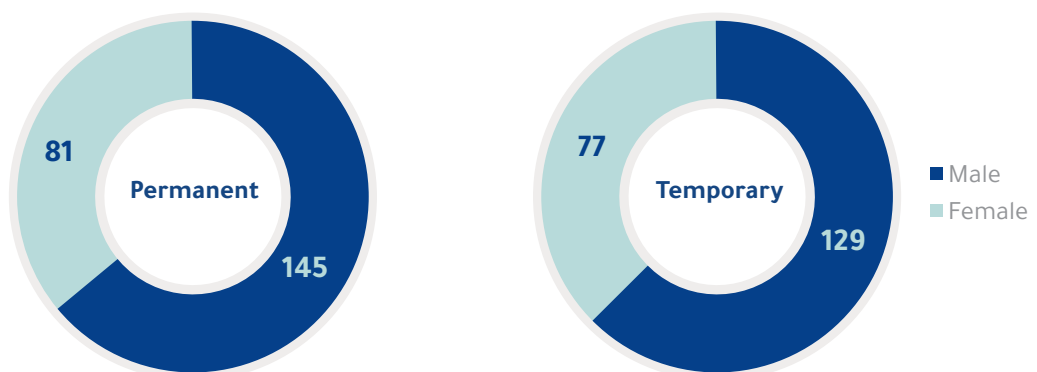
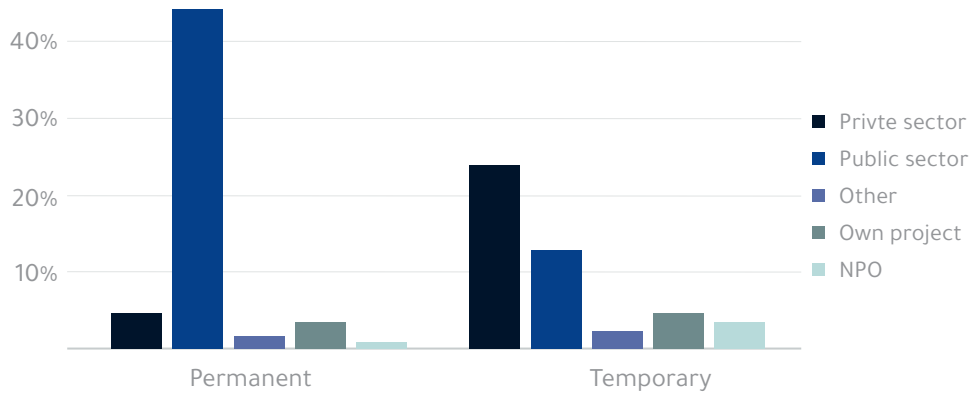


Figure 39: Results by type of job and legal framework of institution



From figures (38) and (39), and as expected, most workers with permanent jobs are in the public sector as clear from the diagram above. The government follows an appointment system, which is a type of employment that is not based on renewed contracts and therefore does not truly evaluate workers.

Figure 40: Results by type of job and place of residence

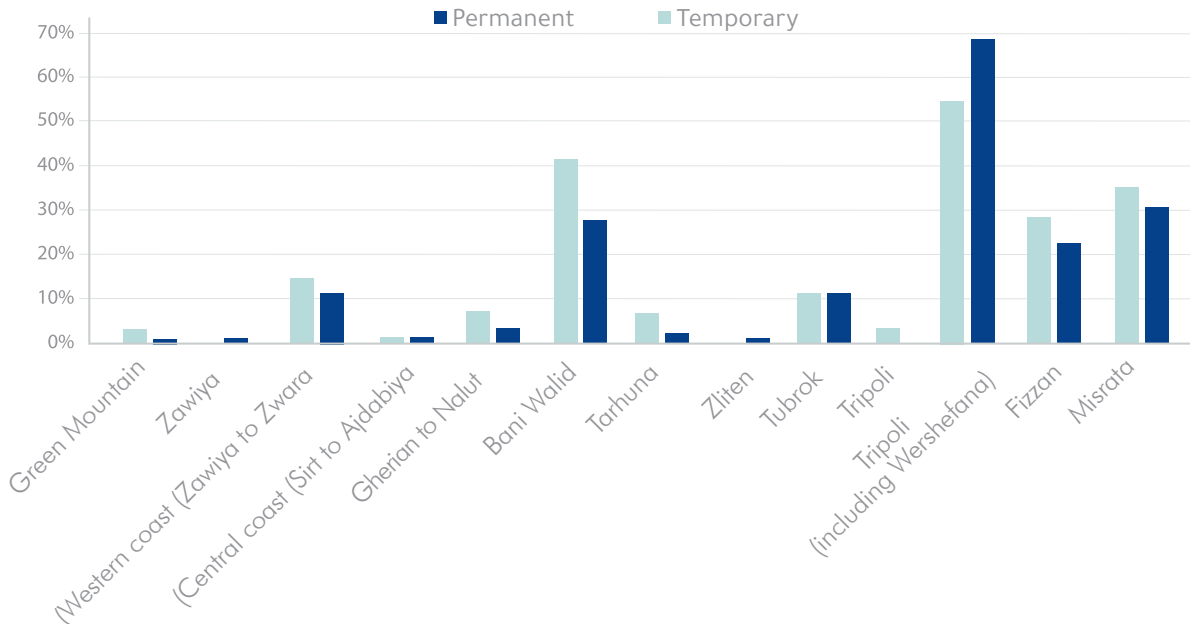
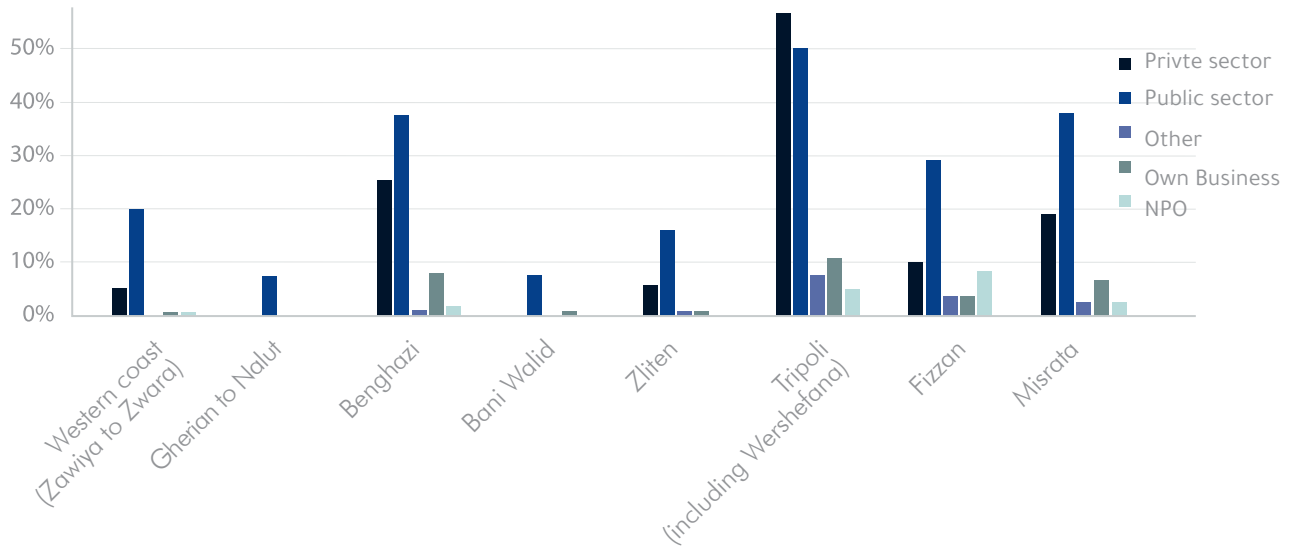


Figure 41 : Results by city and institution’s legal framework



Understanding the choices of people for the type of job depending on their location is a very important indicator. For example, from figures 39 and 40, we find two main factors influencing the difference in the type of job depending on region. These factors are the size of development in those areas and the existence of tribal concentrations in it. This is clear from the answers of respondents from Tripoli, as most said they work in temporary jobs and mostly in the private sector. This is an important thing to note. Even though the difference between the number of people working in the private and public sector in Tripoli is not high, however, considering the size of employees in the public sector all over the country, it is considered a positive indicator. It signals the start of people’s tendency to work in the private sector in cities that witness development, or at least an active commercial market. This applies to Misrata as well where, even though there were respondents working in the public sector, however, the difference was not huge between them and those working in the private sector or in their own businesses.

On the contrary, participants from Benghazi and Fizzan mostly work in permanent public sector jobs. The two regions are suffering. In the case of Fizzan, there is lack of development as an initial situation that exacerbated because of the security conditions. In Benghazi, it is because of the war and the level of destruction it has caused. Additionally, the tribal aspect should not be forgotten as relatives are typically appointed.

Figure 42: Results by length of time to find a job and by gender

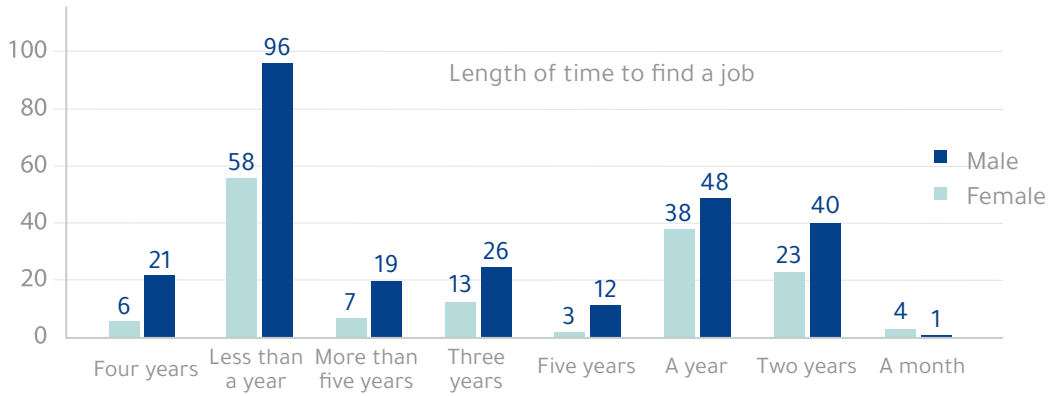


Figure 43: Results by length of time to find a job and by place of residence

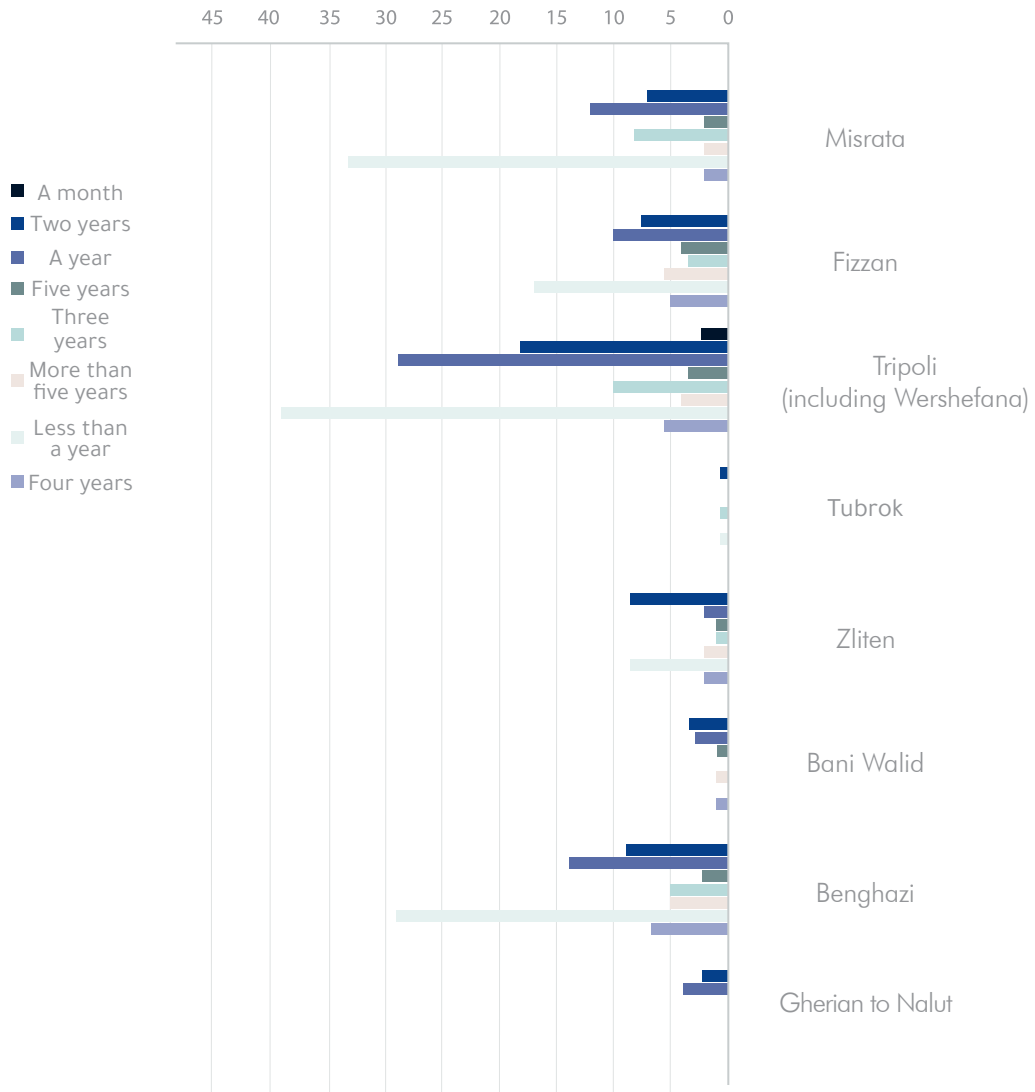
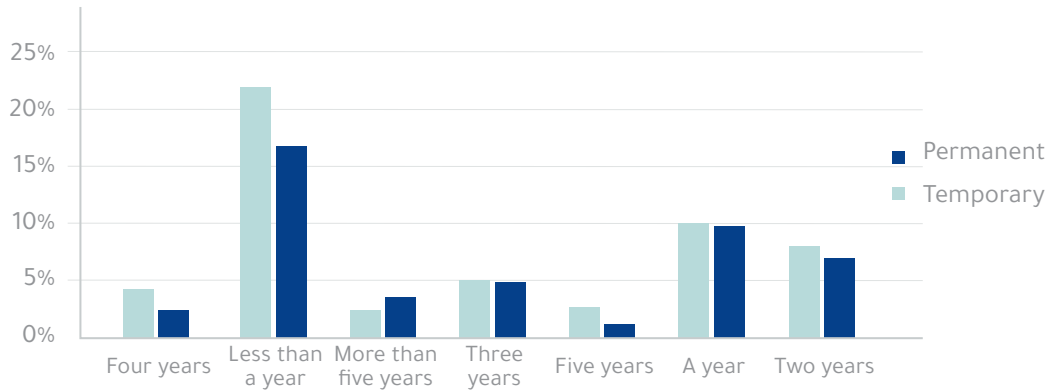


Figure 44: Results by length of time to find a job and by type of job



This is a positive indicator for participants who currently have jobs. There is no big difference between the answers depending on regions and types of jobs, whether the respondents were appointed in the public sector or held a temporary job in the private sector. Most participants said they were able to find a job within a year. However, this is not a positive thing in the public sector especially with the overstaffing in its various institutions, therefore, hiring in the public sector should take a longer time ideally such as in advanced countries.

Figure 45: Results by average monthly income and by gender

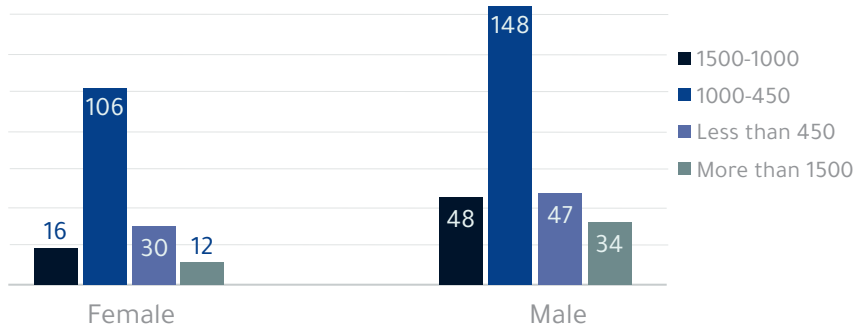
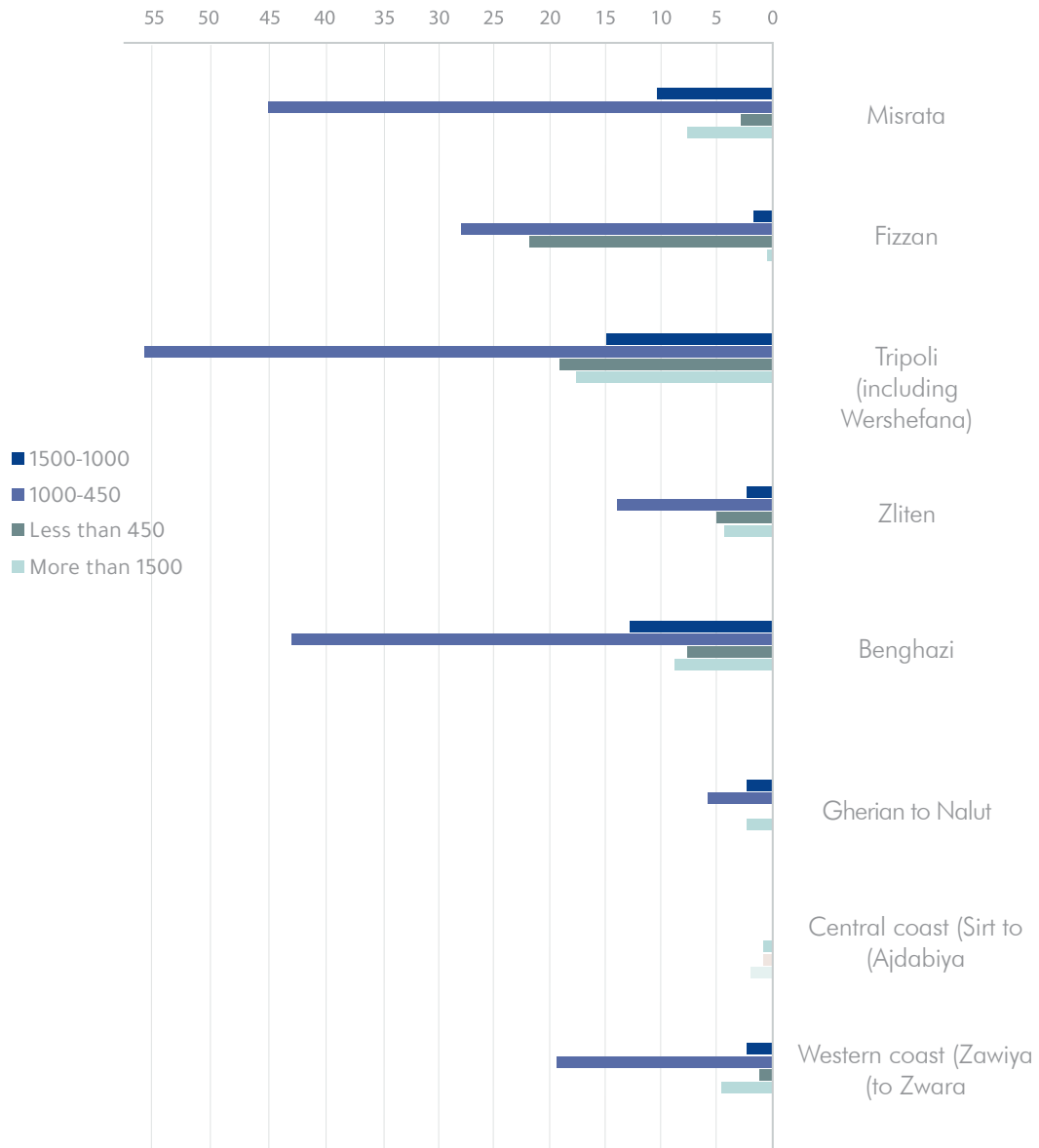


Figure 46: Results by average monthly income and by place of residence



Most participants are employed in the public sector, which explains that the average income of most of them, regardless of the region, is between 450 and 1000 LYD. The salaries of the private sector are not much different from this average as shown in Figure (46).

Figure 47: Results by average monthly income and institution's legal framework

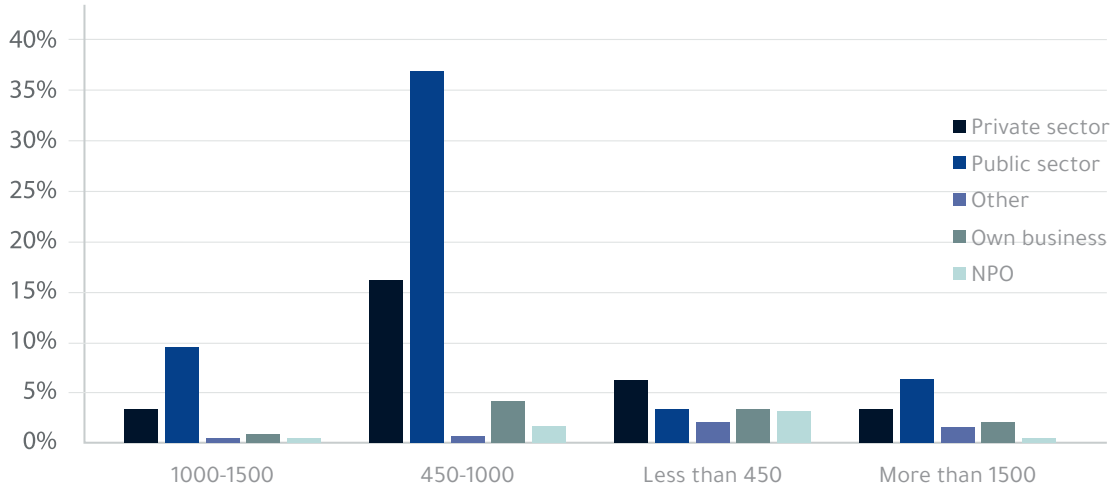


Figure 48: Results by contract status and by gender

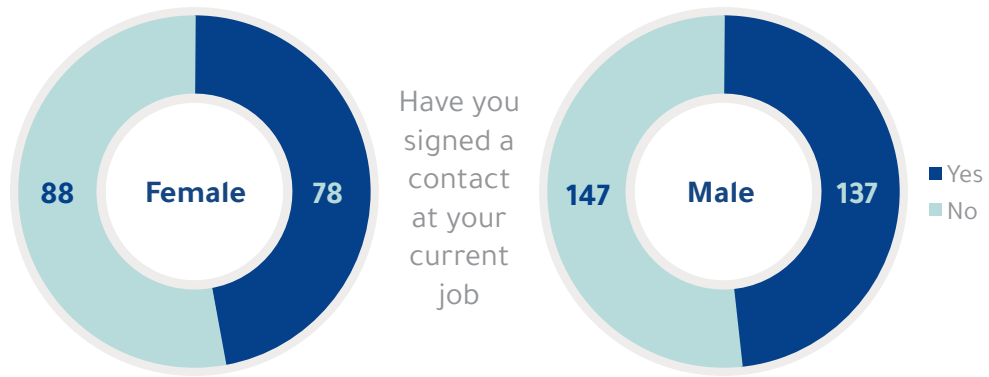


Figure 49: Results by contract status and by institution’s legal framework

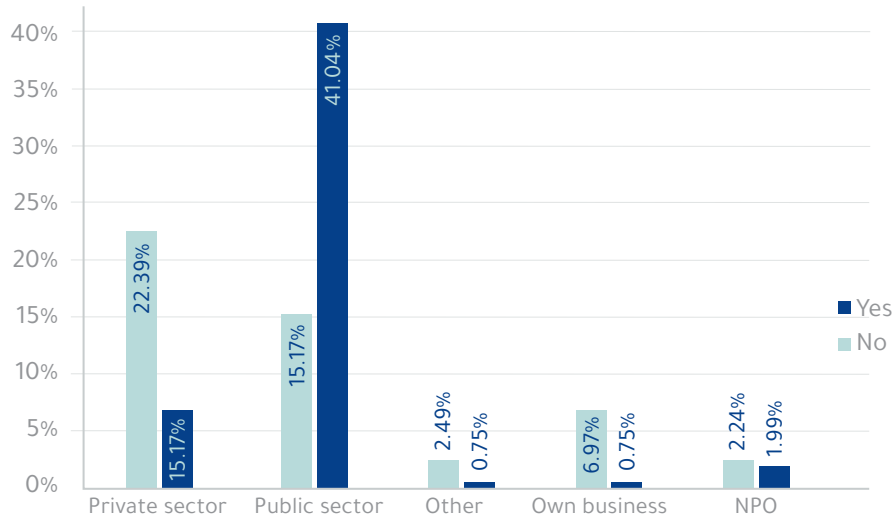
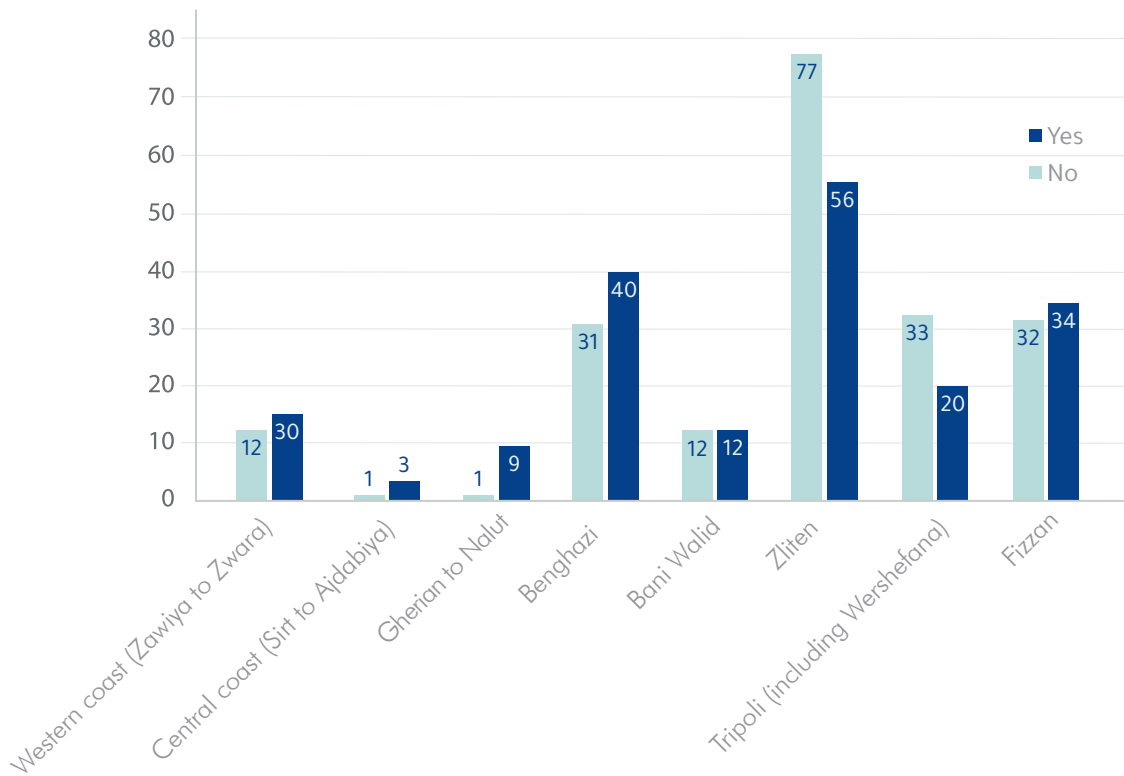


Figure 50: Results by contract status and by place of residence



The difference is not large amongst the answers regarding whether the respondent has signed a contract with their current employer or not. But there is an important indicator that we should shed light on which is that most private sector employees said they had not signed contracts with their current employers as opposed to those in the public sector.

Here we should mention again the desire and persistence of most Libyans generally to look for a job in the public sector rather than the private sector as it is more stable and guarantees more rights. On the other hand, the answers confirm the issue of lack of legal protection for workers in the private sector. This is clear from the fact that they had not signed contracts meaning they do not know their rights and responsibilities, in addition to not being registered with the social security fund, as well as the tax evasion that their institutions practice. This is a negative aspect in the private sector and the government should directly oversee its treatment since the improvement of the situation of workers in the private sector and guaranteeing their rights, including social security, can reduce the burden on the public sector in the future.

Figure 51: Job seeking

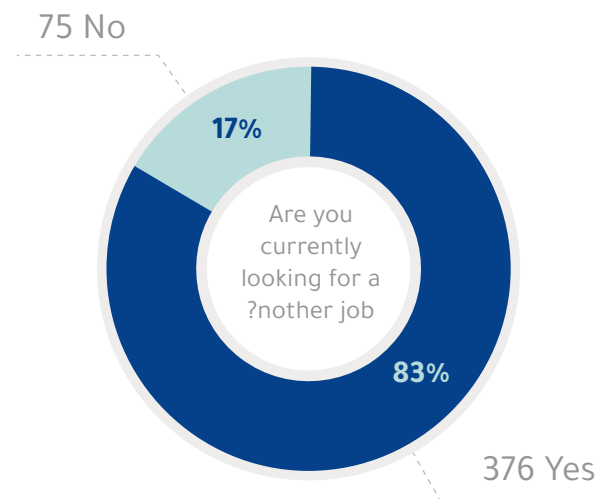
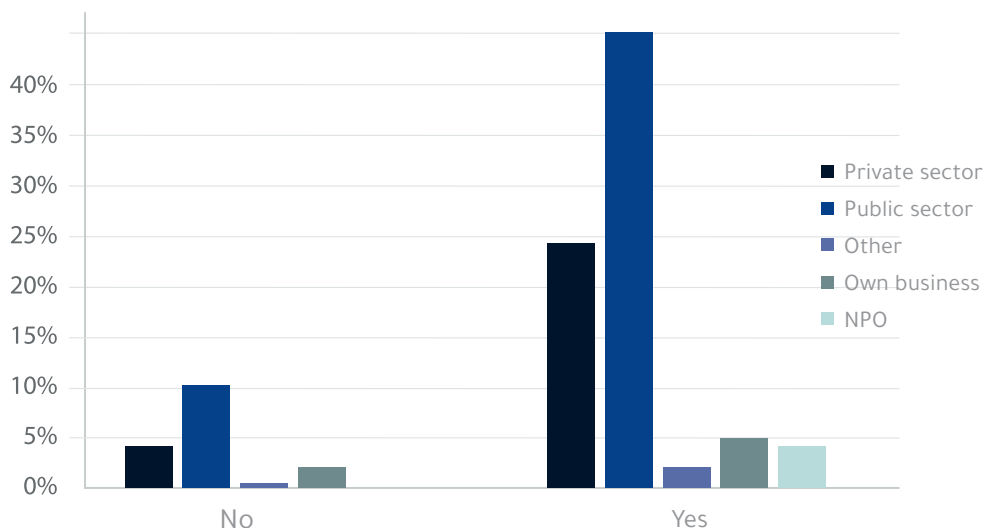


Figure 52: Job seeking and institution's legal framework



In the case of the private sector, it is not strange that workers in it constantly look for new jobs to have better salaries and development opportunities, or new experiences. The desire of public sector employees to find other jobs, as seen in figures (51) and (52), does not mean they will leave their public sector posts. Many works in both the public and private sectors simultaneously since there is not a connected system of workforces in both sectors. In the past, the reason people tended to have their own businesses or that they worked in the private sector in addition to being appointed in the public sector was to obtain higher incomes since salaries were very low. Currently, this can be explained by the difficulty in withdrawing cash from banks, in addition to inflation and increased prices. Therefore, there is a need to work in other jobs in order to have cash to provide basic necessities, while their salary remains in case they are able to withdraw part of it as cash or use it through payment cards when no other ways are possible to obtain basic necessities.

Figure 53: Training in private sector institutions

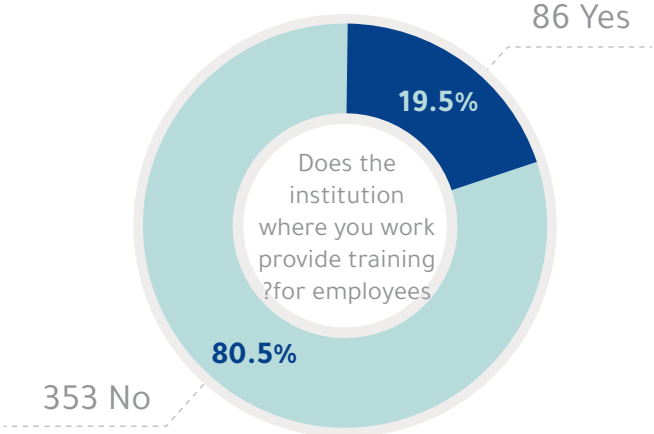
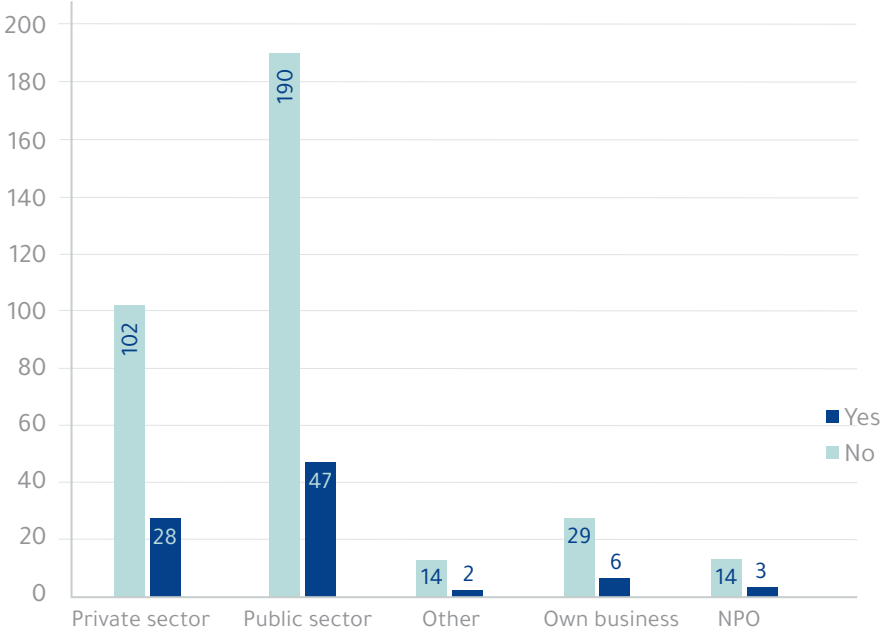


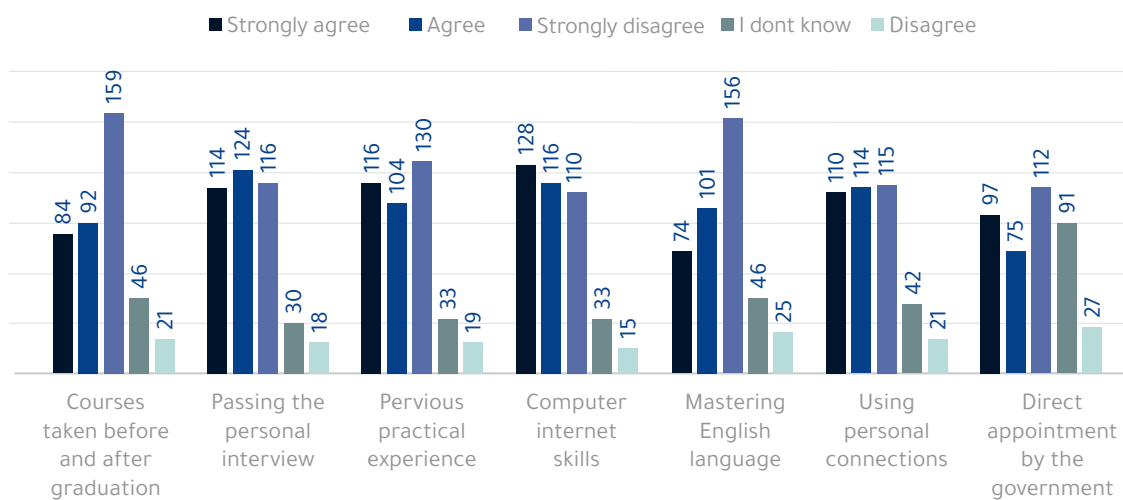
Figure 54: Training by institution’s legal framework



From figures (53) and (54) about training opportunities provided by institutions where participants work, it is clear that there is no interest by institutions to train their staff and develop their skills, which explains why these institutions do not develop. Typically, institutions train their staff regularly whenever there are developments in the institutions' working mechanisms or the projects they are involved in. In the case of private sector, since it is focused mainly on importing activities, these institutions usually find that they do not need to train their employees.

Methods of finding jobs:

Figure 55: Job seeking skills



From Figure (55), the factors that helped participants in obtaining their current jobs can be ordered as follows:

- 1- Computer and Internet skills.
- 2- Passing the personal interview.
- 3- Using personal connections.
- 4- Previous practical experience.
- 5- Direct appointment by the government.
- 6- Courses taken before and after graduation.
- 7- Mastering the English language.

This order is important to understand the behavior of employers and hiring officials as viewed by employees and their appreciation of factors that helped them get a job. The implications of the above order and as illustrated in the diagram are clear. By examining the impact of certain variables on the answers, we can reach deeper explanations.

Figure 56-a: employment skills

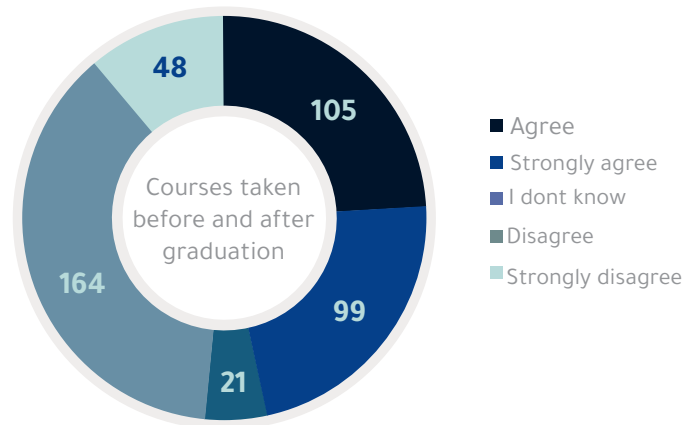
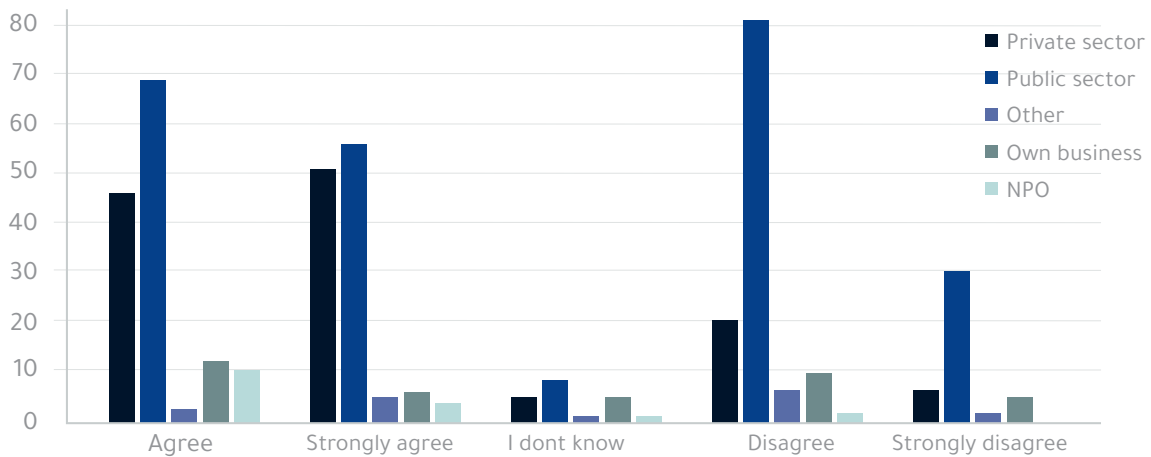


Figure 56-b: employment skills by institution’s legal framework



From the results shown on figures (56-a) and (56-b), we see that public sector employees had the highest numbers in all choices, but in comparison we find that more respondents have answered ‘I do not agree’ than in the private sector. While, with a lower percentage that is close to the answers of workers in the private sector, participants said that the courses they have taken had helped them obtain their current jobs. Therefore, we can say that this factor is more important in the private sector than in the public sector. The fact that participants believe that the courses they have taken had played a role in hiring them in the public sector is a good indicator, however, it also means there are qualified people, but they remain unproductive in the public sector.

Figure 57-a: employment qualifications

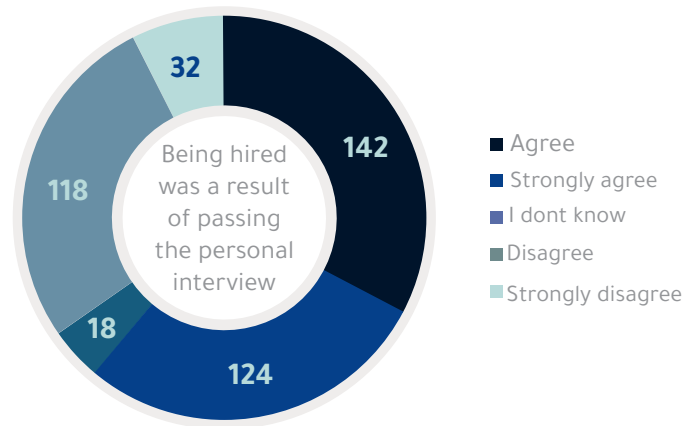
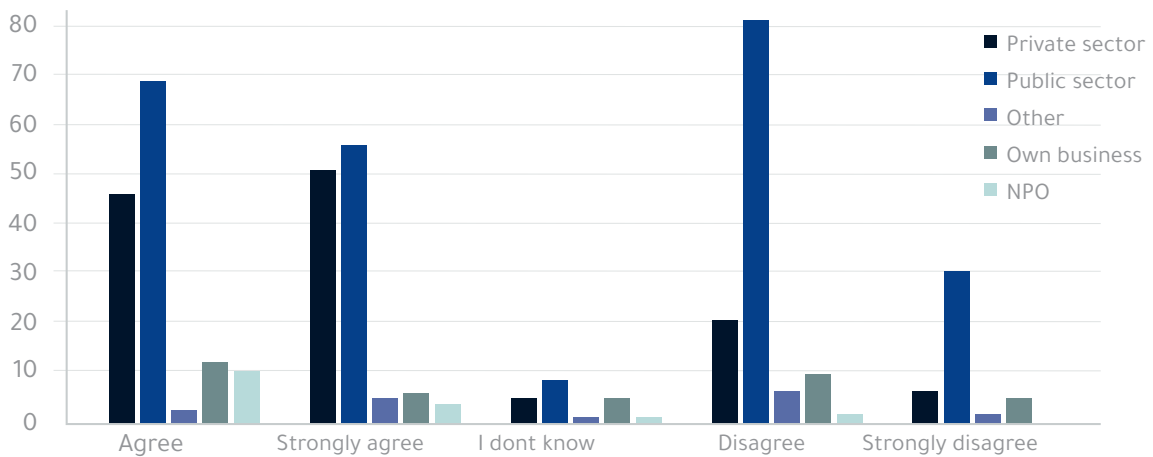


Figure 57-b: employment qualifications institution's legal framework



Normally, hiring in the private sector is done through appointment lists. These are lists including names of those officially appointed. There are rarely job interviews in the public sector. Even though the majority of workers in the public sector said the personal interview had no role in their appointment, many also said it did. As for the private sector, the majority said the interview had a role in them securing the job.

Figure 58-a: employment qualifications

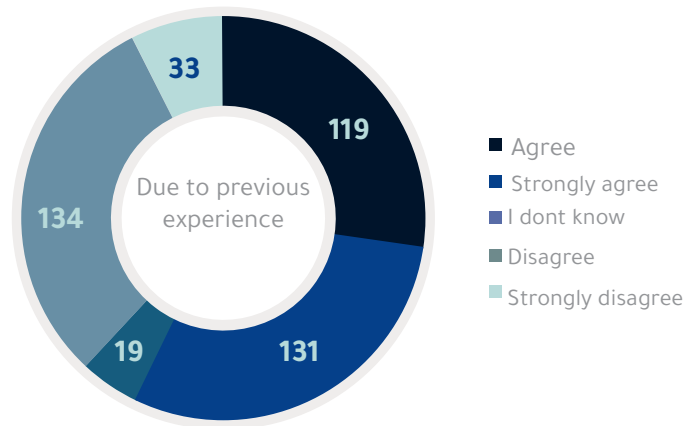


Figure 58-b: employment qualifications by institution's legal framework

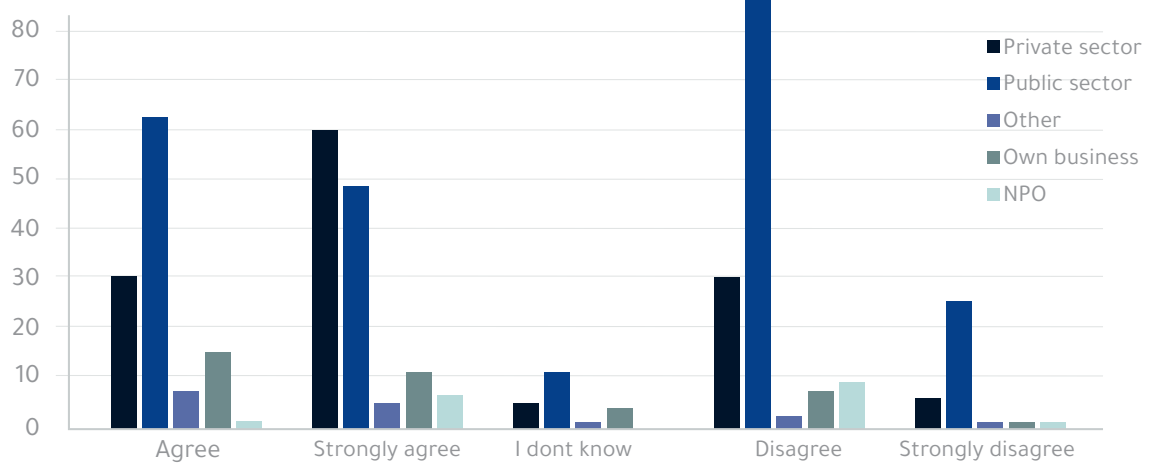


Figure 59-a: employment qualifications

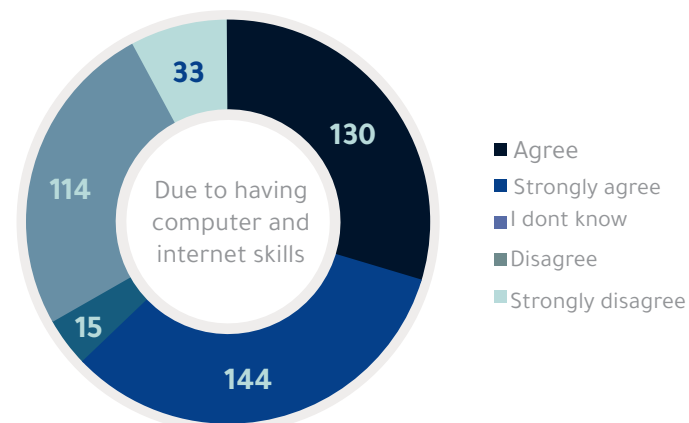
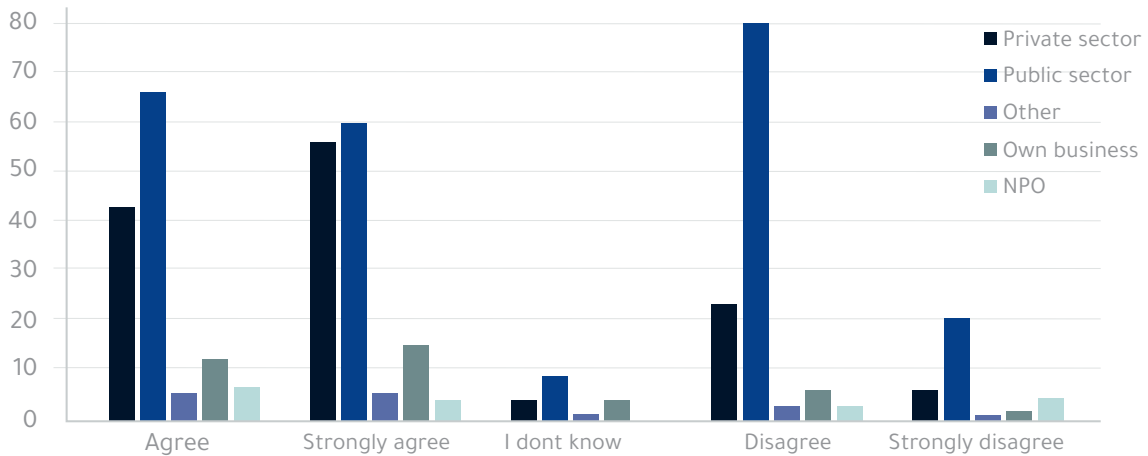


Figure 59-b: Employment qualifications and institution's framework



Our analysis of figures (58-a), (58-b), (59-a), and (59 b) applies to what we mentioned in our analysis of the answers to questions (57-a) and (57-b) in terms of the role the personal interview plays in obtaining their current jobs. Previous experience in addition to computer and Internet skills did not play a role in hiring the participants in the public sector but they had a great role in that in the private sector.

Figure 60-a: Employment qualifications

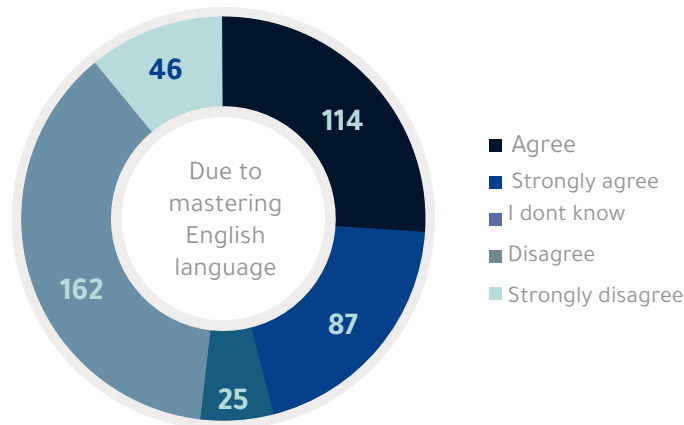
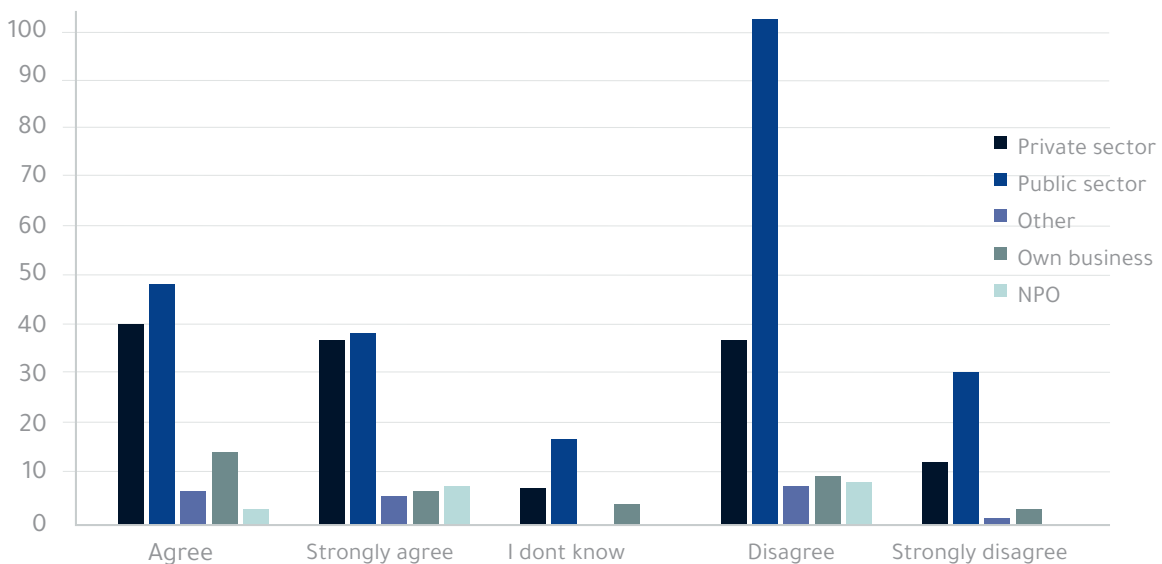
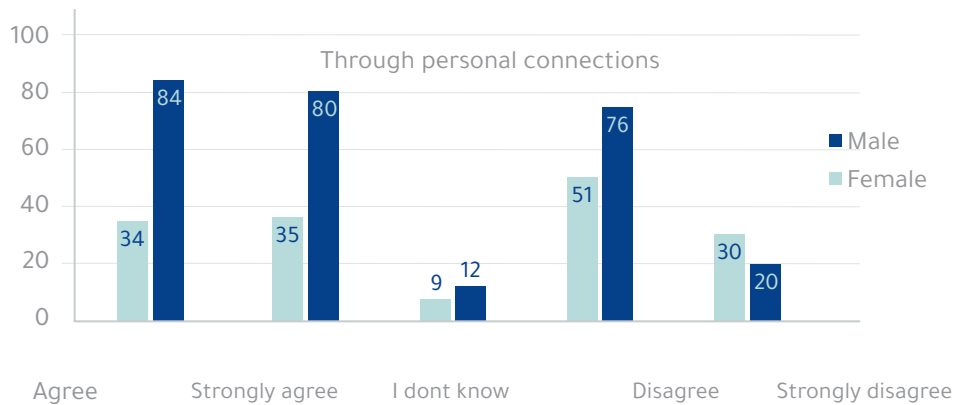


Figure 60-b: Employment qualifications and institution's framework



From figures (60-a) and 60-b) it is confirmed by public sector employees that their level of English played no role in being hired. The percentages of those who agree and disagree to that in the private sector were very close, meaning that mastering English was important only for a small group of them.

Figure 61-a: Employment qualifications by gender



From Figure (61-a), we notice a big difference between the answers of males and females in whether or not personal connections played a role in being hired for their current job. The percentage of males who agree is higher as they have said personal connections played a great role in being hired for their current position. This can be understood within the greater contribution of males in the local economy as seen in official statistics shown in the theoretical framework of this study. Therefore, males' networks are better, especially since even if females had personal connections, certain differences and factors make hiring males a priority for employers and hiring officials. Amongst these factors are customs and traditions which impose certain gender roles which impacts women's employment options, in addition to the law which gives women more days off than men.

In terms of differences between private and public sector employees, the following diagram shows that slightly more employees in the public sector said that there personal connections played no role in their recruitment than those who did. However, private sector employees confirm that personal connections played a direct and major role in being hired for their current positions. Companies and private institutions usually hire directly without advertising the vacancies. Even when they are advertised, typically the positions are given to people other than those who have made applications for the job. Hiring officials in the public sector might be excused to do this since personal connections can help know the most competent and trustworthy candidates, and this would suffice instead of carrying out interviews. However, this also means depriving many from a potential job opportunity.

Figure 61-b: Employment qualifications and institution's framework

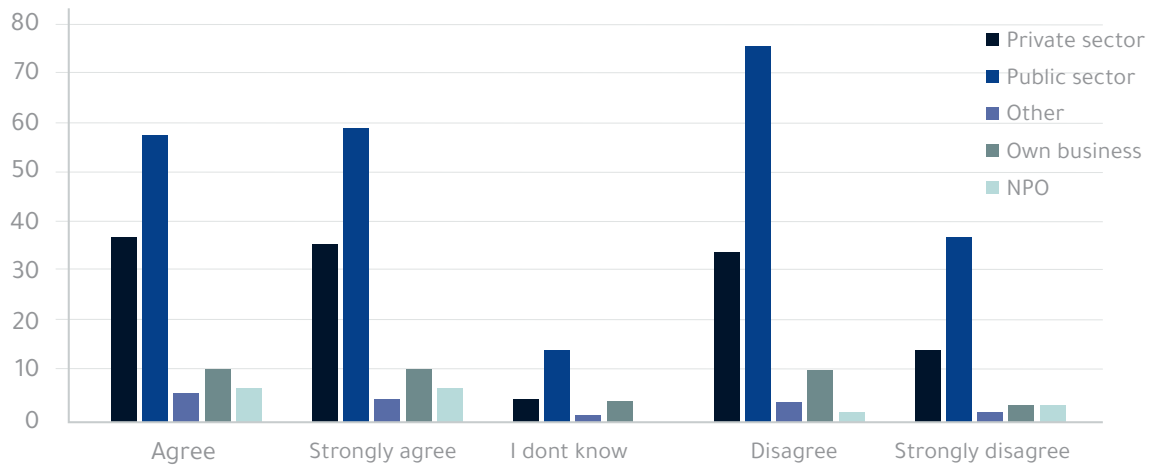
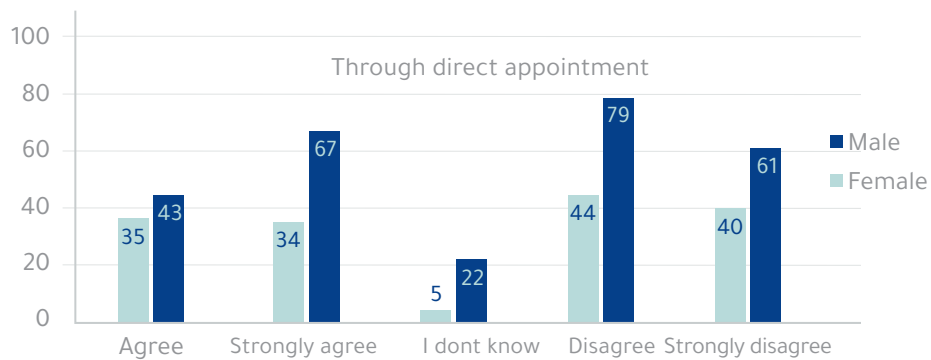
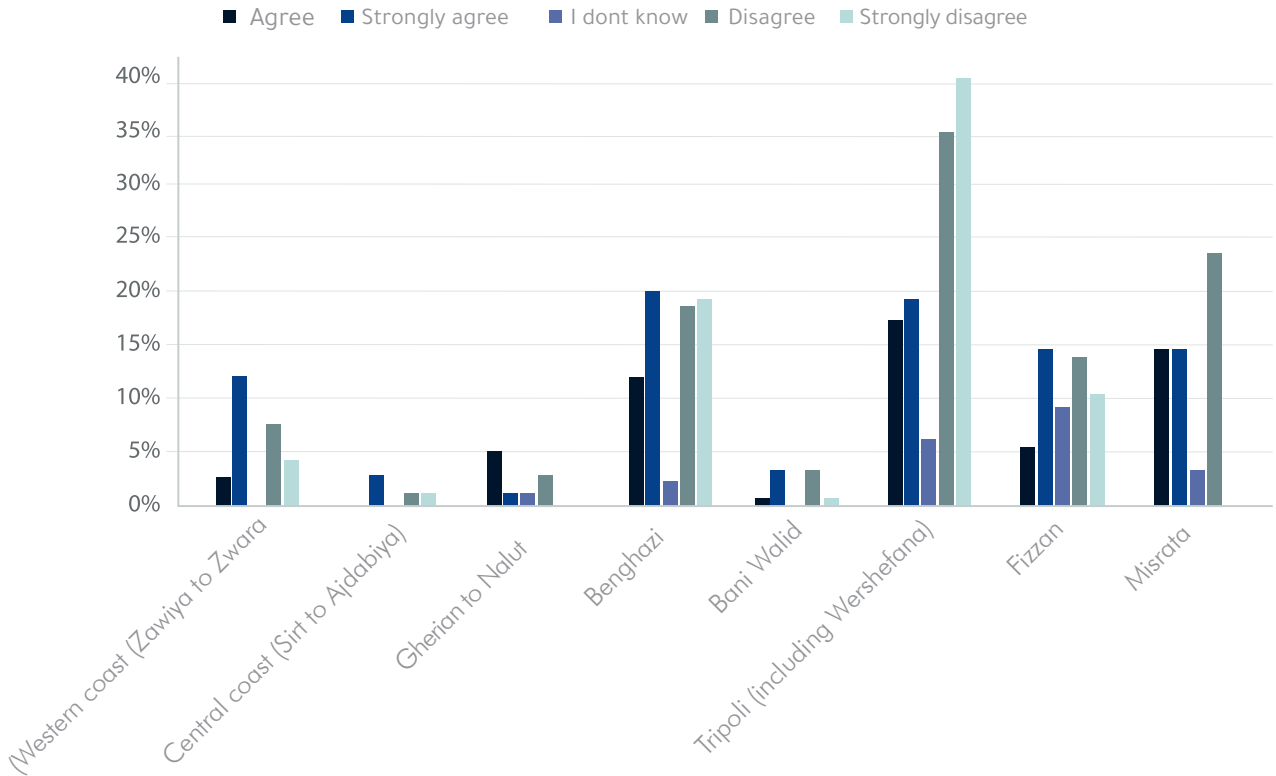


Figure 62-a: Employment qualifications by gender



From Figure (62-a), we see that the percentage is close between the answers of males and females considering the percentage of their overall participation in the questionnaire. In fact, their chances of being hired in the public sector (i.e. direct appointment), are close. Many husbands, fathers and other guardians resort to having their wives or daughters hired in the public sector in order to secure stable salaries. Many of them then deprive them from going to work with the excuse that it is a mixed environment or for other reasons. This happens frequently in rural areas or in areas with high tribal concentrations.

Figure 62-b:Employment qualifications by pace of residence



Considering the percentages of participants working in the private and public sectors, and taking into consideration the region variable in Figure (62-b) will help us in analysing the results shown in Figure (62-a). We find that the factor that helped participants to be recruited for their current position is direct appointment done by ministers or the highest governing body. This is particularly the case for participants working in the public sector in areas where there are more employees in the public sector than the private sector.

Figure 63-a:Employment qualifications

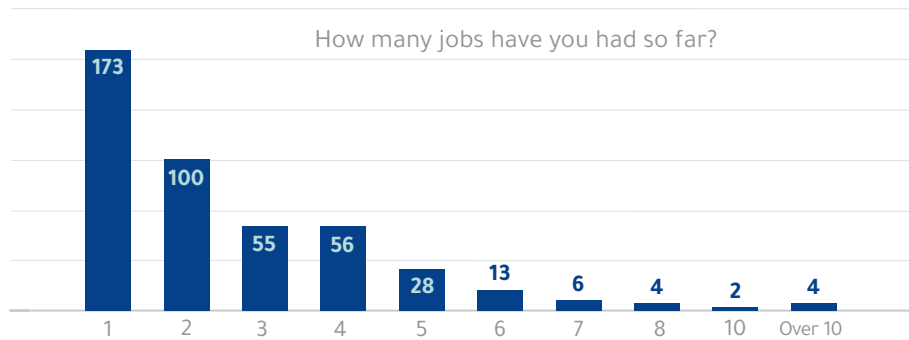


Figure 63-b: Employment qualifications by gender

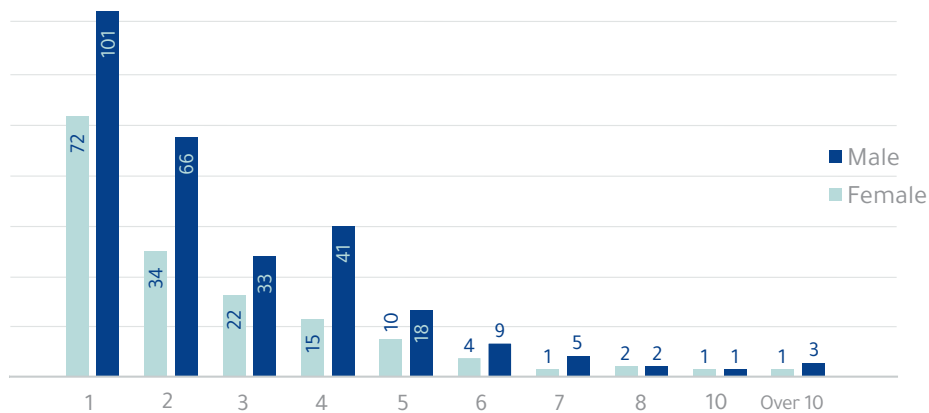


Figure 63-c: Employment qualifications and place of residence

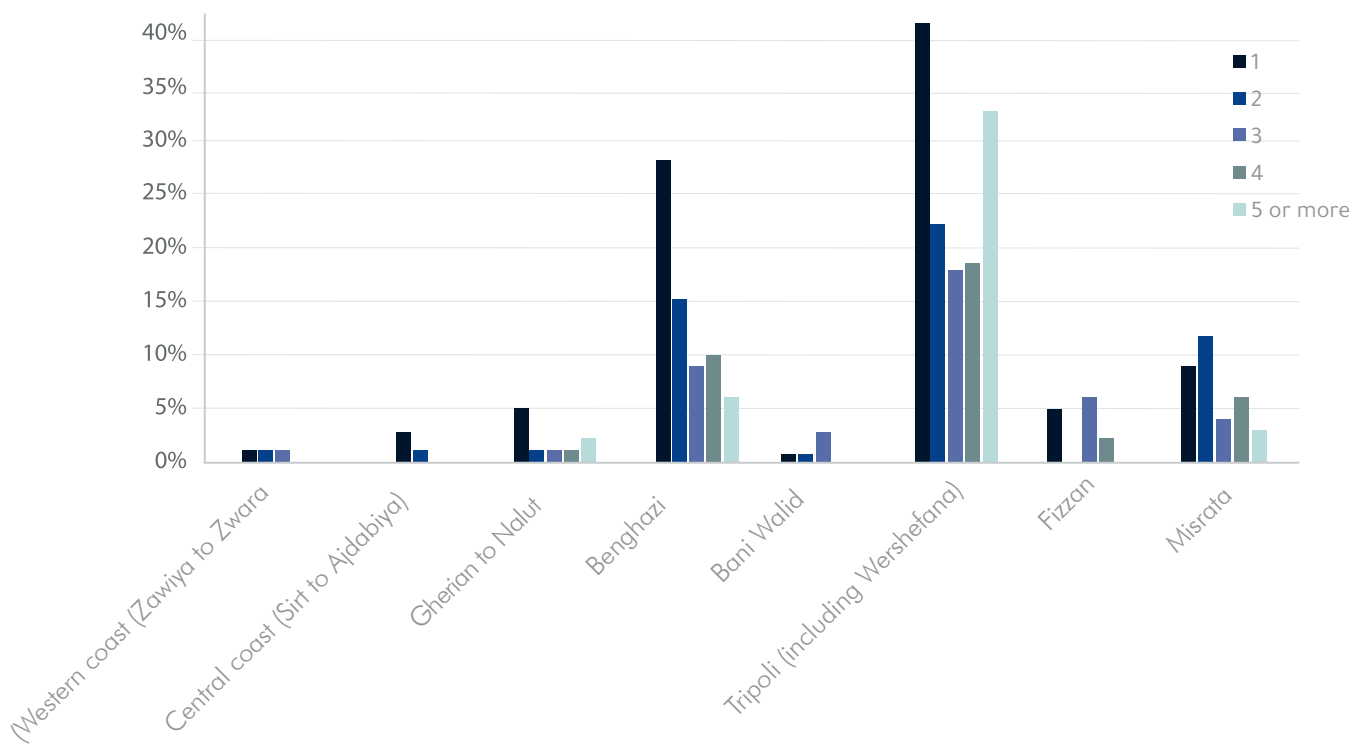
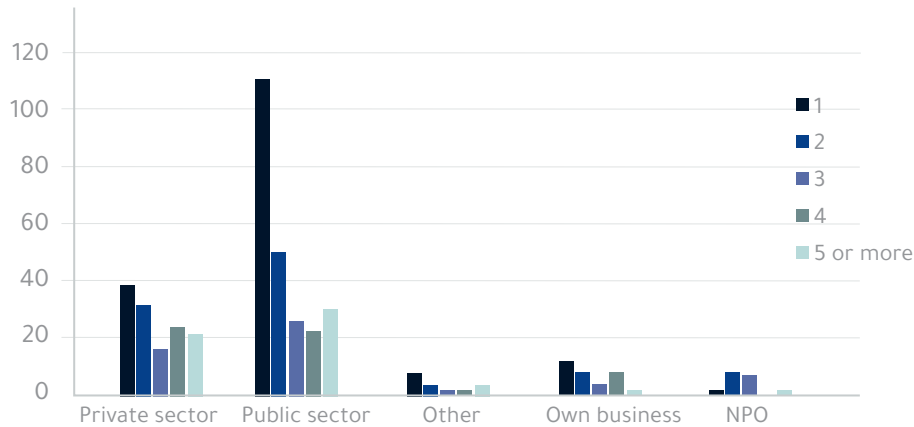
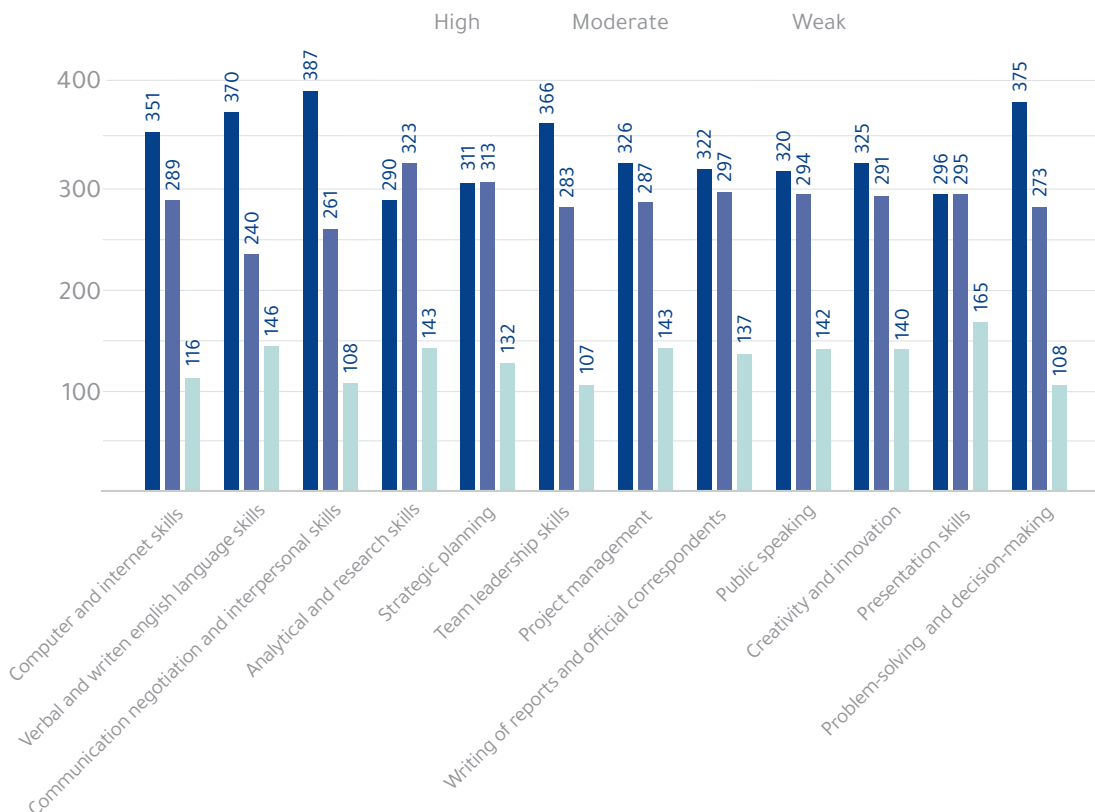


Figure 63-d: Employment qualifications and institution’s legal framework



Considering the percentages of participants working in the private and public sectors, and taking into consideration the region variable in Figure (63-b) will help us in analysing the results shown in Figure (63-a). We find that the factor that helped participants to be recruited for their current position is direct appointment done by ministers or the highest governing body. This is particularly the case for participants working in the public sector in areas where there are more employees in the public sector than the private sector.

Figure 64: Skills and knowledge that participants believe may help them to be hired, to develop their performance in their current positions, or to help them find better jobs



From Figure (64), we find that there are differences in training needs of workers and job-seekers. Participants who are currently working said they have a pressing need for all training and skills given in the choices. However, it is different for job-seekers and the unemployed. Job-seekers participating in the questionnaire said they highly need training in the following fields:

- 1- Computer and Internet skills.
- 2- Project management.
- 3- Verbal and written English language skills.
- 4- Communication, negotiation and interpersonal skills.
- 5- Problem-solving and decision-making.
- 6- Team leadership skills.

Summary of the results of the focus group discussions

Within the study, we carried out 5 focus group discussions targeting youth job-seekers and youth in 5 different regions which are: Yefren, Tripoli, Misrata, Benghazi, and Sebha. Every group had 5-18 people. We will focus here on presenting a comprehensive summary of all focus group discussions according to the discussion topics:

Firstly: Job searching methods

When discussing with the youth from different cities their experience of searching for a job, some agreed that volunteering and working in civil society organizations and community associations – especially in Tripoli – provide an opportunity to gain experience, develop skills, train, and network. Some start to gain necessary skills by volunteering while studying, inside or outside university, which qualifies them to work in these organisations and associations.

It was agreed on that networks gained by volunteering or through civil and community organisations give a better opportunity for finding work. Nepotism, through family or tribe, was mentioned as it plays a role in finding training opportunities that job-seekers take during or after study, which helps increase their chances of being hired.

Others mentioned the role of private businesses as an opportunity by which job-seekers can have an income, despite the difficulties in starting such projects such as uncertainty about its continuity or its low financial resources in the first years.

Participants have said that in all cases, finding a job normally requires a university degree, English language, computer skills and experience.

In general, some participants mentioned that searching for a job is an uncomfortable experience as it takes them out of their academic field in search of income, and it takes a long time even when they have university degrees with excellent grades. For instance, some find opportunities in finding a job in education, which is considered comfortable

and without many difficulties, as long as transportation is available. Searching for a job in marketing was referred to as a suitable and positive experience.

It should be noted that participants from rural areas were unanimous on that there is a lack of job opportunities within their geographical reach, due to absence of the private sector (except small traditional commerce- buying and selling).

Difficulties facing job-seekers reported during focus-group discussions were:

- Social pressures in choosing the field of study or work.
- Lack of practical experience makes it difficult to find work opportunities.
- The education system does not help and does not create strong outputs for the job market.
- More job opportunities for men than women.
- Most job opportunities come through connections, as there are no modern means to apply for jobs.
- The gap between education outputs and academic specialisations on one hand, and the job market requirements on the other.
- No hiring standards and no job descriptions.
- Even though there is a difference between recommendations and nepotism, however they both impact having equal opportunities for applicants.
- Lack of actual places or locations to look for jobs.

By discussing with participants about the difference in working for the private and public sectors, participants mentioned that amongst the negative aspects of the private sector are low salaries considering the working hours, having to work in fields different from academic qualifications, and the large number of hiring requirements. However, some say that, under these exceptional circumstances, working in the private sector is better financially and also in terms of providing diverse job opportunities. Amongst the negative aspects of the public sector is administrative corruption which creates an unfair hiring process, in addition to the fact that some graduates have to wait for a long time to receive salaries after being appointed and beginning work. The advantages of the public sector include guaranteed legal and financial rights, job opportunities which are better financially and are also better in terms of training, development, and opportunities to study abroad. Absence of the law and financial guarantees is common in the private sector which remains unmonitored. Many youth agree to working without a contract or any guarantees to protect them.

Secondly: Challenges facing youth

Academic study has a positive impact on work even though the field of study can be unrelated to the field of work. People can establish a great network while in university and can gain skills through training courses given by associations, organisations or private companies inside the university. On the other hand, academic study has not had a positive impact on job opportunities for several reasons, most important of which are:

- University study does not provide any practical training so it does not impact work.
- The education system is old which impacts the potential to have a suitable job opportunity.
- Academic study does not provide any planned development in terms of personal skills, and that depends only on the person him/herself.
- Wasting time and effort without a positive outcome in terms of skills and knowledge.

Many youth that have academic qualifications and have not found job opportunities tend to try to develop their skills through courses in their fields or in other fields that help qualify them for other jobs.

Female participants agree that there is gender-based discrimination in finding work. This is due to lack of specific standards for hiring and the absence of the principle of equal opportunity in the job market. Personal connections, nepotism and favouritism are more important than competency and skills

Important skills for female job-seekers include:

- 1- Presentation skills.
- 2- Time management.
- 3 Team work.
- 4- CV writing.
- 5- Self-marketing.
- 6- Body language.
- 7- Communication skills.
- 8- Leadership and character-building.
- 9- Foreign languages.
- 10- Computer skills
- 11- Advocacy campaigns.
- 12- Human development.
- 13- Specialised courses and workshops.
- 14- Operating software such as Microsoft applications, in addition to engineering and administrative software.

Employment offices

Participants in the focus groups discussions had different experiences with the employment offices of the Ministry of Labour. In Sebha, most participants found that registration and procedures at employment offices were easy, even though their effectiveness in finding work was not mentioned. This is also the case in Tripoli where participants said that communication with the employment offices was easy and practical. However, all agreed that they go to these offices without any trust that they would find work through them.

Participants from Benghazi were unanimous on mentioning the bureaucracy, lengthy procedures, and lack of a clear registration mechanism at the employment offices. Some mentioned that the procedure requires many documents, making it costly. It also lacks automation which makes it difficult for job-seekers to register with these offices. It should be mentioned that participants from Yefren were not aware of the existence of employment offices and especially of the registration of job-seekers in the area. This should be dealt with by appropriate authorities in both the local and national levels.

Thirdly: Suggested solutions by participants in the focus group discussions

The focus group discussions reached many recommendations that can be summarised in four main points:

Education and training, particularly:

- Listing training while studying in the education system. Adopting on-the-job-training and providing applicants with a practical orientation period.
- Opening advanced vocational institutes, supporting vocational training, and giving opportunities to Libyan human-power by providing incentives and benefits to people enrolled in these institutes.
- Finding a strategy to match higher education outputs and the job market.
- Providing universities with modern educational methods to stay up-to-date with technological developments. Canceling traditional methods of teaching such as memorization and theory-centered learning.
- Evaluating current specialisations taught at universities, and canceling unnecessary ones to open new modern courses in fields such as: management, technology, logistical management, information and cybersecurity.
- Widening discussions to include other groups of youth such as those with professional and technical specialisations, and listening to their views on the current situation of the Libyan market.

Creating a set of reforms such as:

- Producing awareness materials for both parents and students in addition to conducting studies on fields of work that will be needed by the Libyan market in the near and far future.
- Conducting entry exams for job-seekers before hiring them.
- Guiding secondary school students to the specialities needed by the job market
- Training children in primary and secondary education on basic skills.
- Raising awareness during education about scientific and vocational specialities.
- Holding conferences and scientific seminars on challenges facing youth, especially regarding the education process and the difficulty of creating new jobs for youth.

Creating a set of reforms such as:

- Enforcing a youth quota to be employed in public and private institutions.
- Encouraging youth to work by providing incentives for those with private businesses such as exemption from taxes for a certain period.
- Utilizing local labor instead of foreign labor in some specialised fields and sectors by building the capacity of staff and qualifying national cadres, localising gradually in these jobs.
- Supporting small projects and ideas that can be a source of income for youth.

Promoting and activating legal protection for job-seekers by:

- Finding ways to apply the provisions of the Labour Law and its regulations to employers in the private sector.
- Developing the Labour Law to be up-to-date with modern work fields and finding a suitable mechanism to formulate it as clear policies and decisions that would be distributed to stakeholders and provided as a booklet.
- Enacting laws that enable the spread of entrepreneurship amongst the youth and protecting entrepreneurial projects via fair laws and legislations.
- Finding ways to integrate the youth in the job market, such as policies of reducing retirement age.
- Raising awareness about rights and responsibilities in the private sector, so that employees would know their rights, such as the right to have a written contract, the right to have vacation days, and pensions.

Analysing results of employers' questionnaire

In accordance with the study methodology, 13 interviews were conducted with employers or hiring officials in public and private institutions. The purpose of this questionnaire was to learn the viewpoints of this category and their experience on issues related to mechanisms of hiring human resources, and the most important skills and needs they look for in their institutions. Below we present the main results of this questionnaire. Some of their comments will be cited in the final summary of the study.

Analysing results of employers' questionnaire

Figure 65: Results by gender

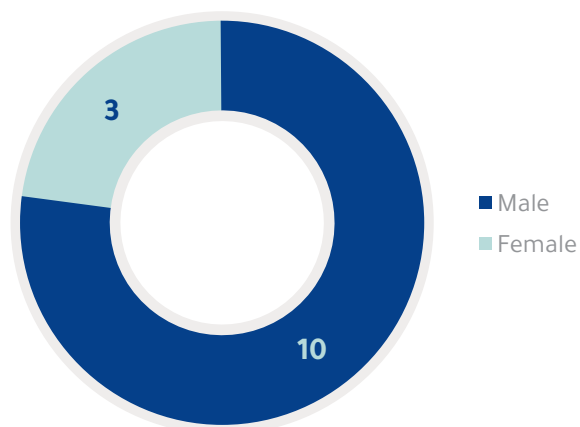


Figure 66 Results by age group

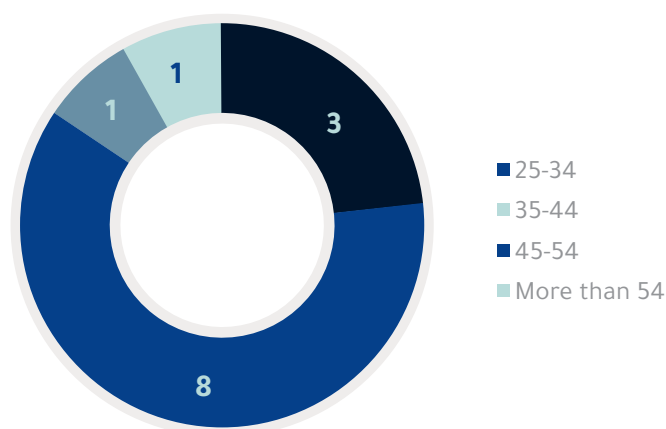


Figure 67 Results by position in the institution

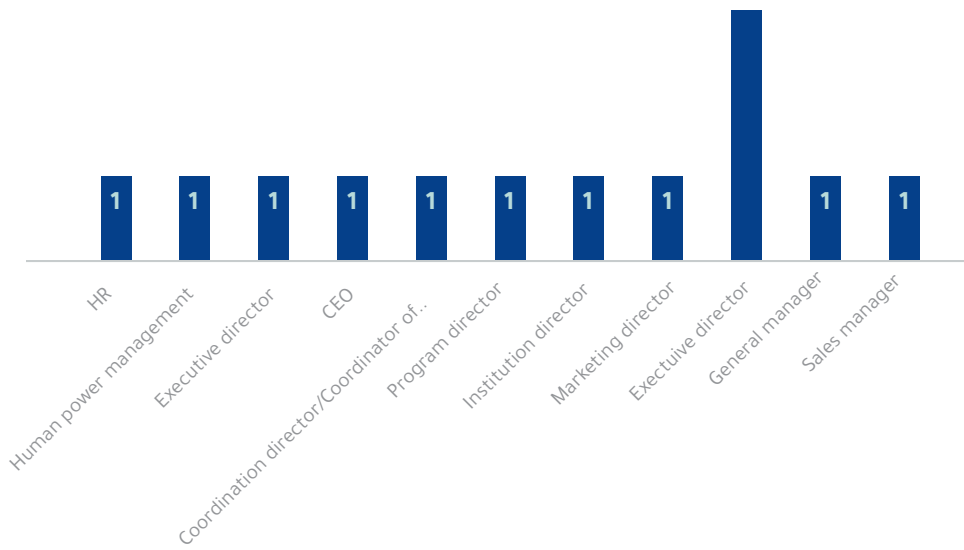
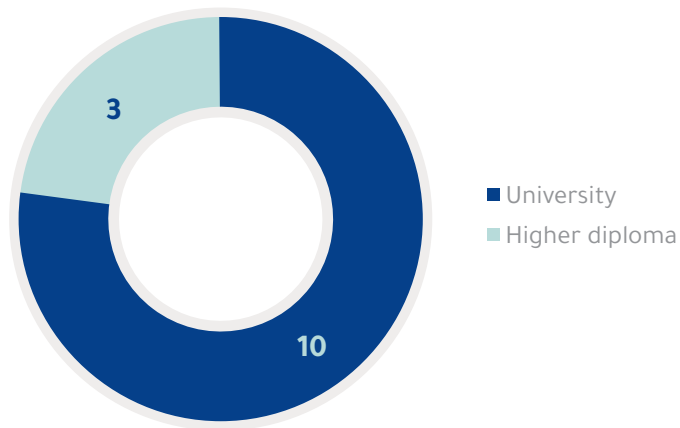


Figure 68 Results by academic qualification



Most participants in this interview, which was done as a closed interview (a questionnaire), are in charge directly or indirectly, of hiring in their institutions. They are mostly males, with a reasonable female participation considering the size of their presence in the private sector. Most participants have higher education degrees. Additionally, the majority of them are youth or very close to this category.

The characteristics of this sample can add to the credibility of the results, as they achieve the questionnaire and study objectives by giving the necessary information.

Figure 69 :Results by Legal framework of institution

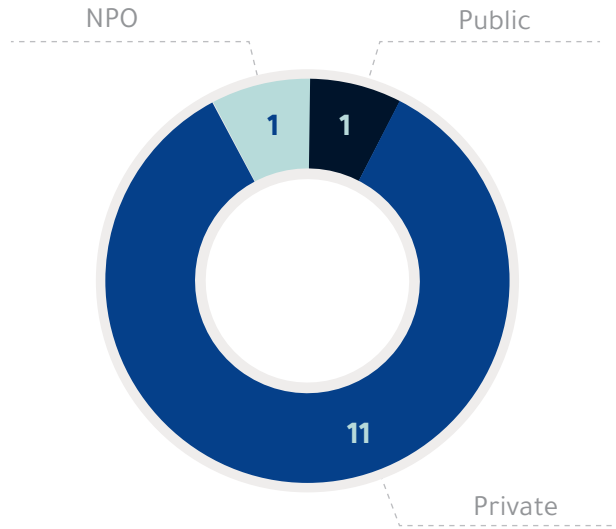


Figure 70 :Results by Institution's establishment year

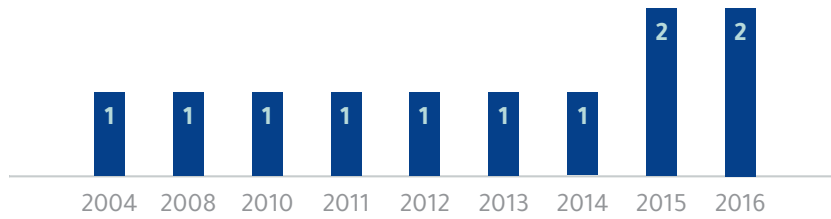
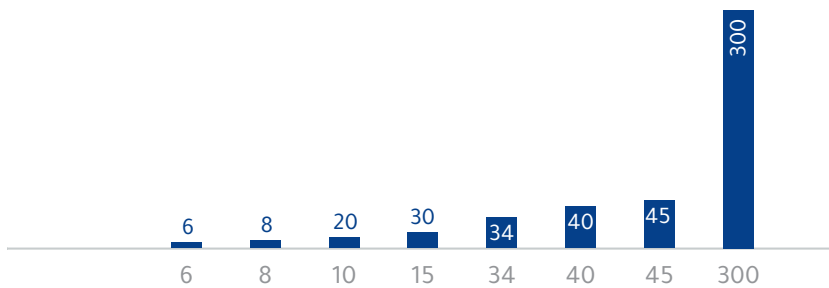


Figure 71 :Results by number of employees in the institution

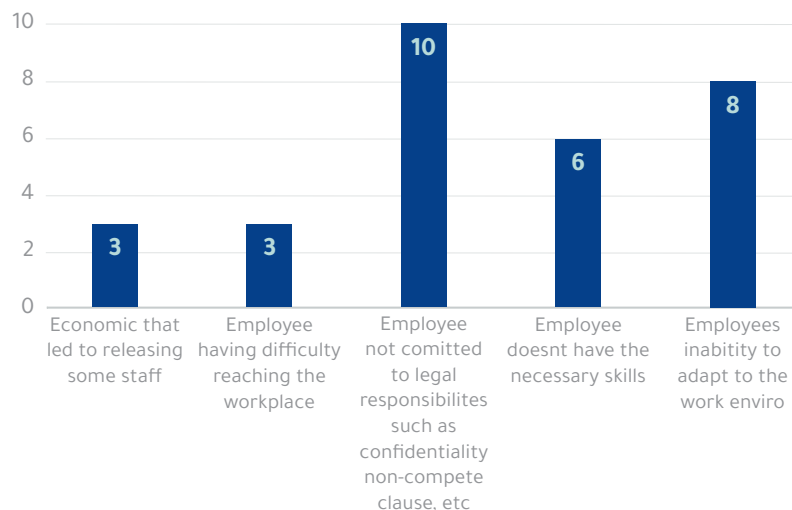


Most institutions in which participants work are relatively new (less than 10 years' experience). But at the same time, they mostly have a medium number of employees since these institutions belong mostly to the private sector as seen above.

Institutions experience with recruitment:

If your institution has released employees, what were the reasons?

Figure 72 :Reasons behind lay-offs



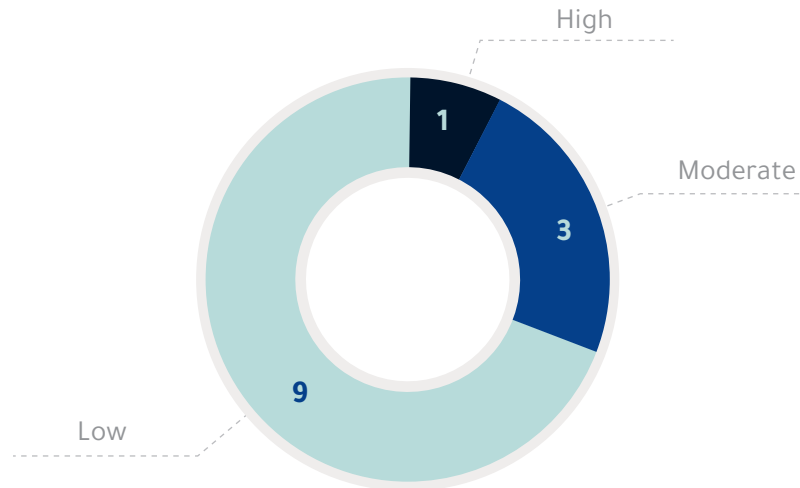
From answers shown in Figure (72), we find that the most common reason that most institutions released employees is for not committing to their duties stated by law. This contradicts the answers of employees and job-seekers. Most workers in the private sector said they did not sign contracts in their jobs. Therefore, there might be misunderstandings regarding rights and responsibilities of employees in the private sector since they have not signed contracts that specify them explicitly. This may lead to conflicts between employees and employers, which result in resignations or layoffs.

We should also mention the fact that the second and third reasons that led employers participating in this questionnaire to release employees were inability to adapt to the work environment in addition to not having necessary skills for the job. In our analysis, we should mention that inability to adapt to the work environment might be vague, as the work environment might depend on the mood of the employer and not on correct legal and scientific basis to manage the institution, especially if the institution does not commit to signing contracts with its employees nor does it commit to local labor laws.

As for not having necessary skills, this could be the result of not conducting entry exams or personal interviews prior to hiring, and basing recruitment on personal connections. This is in line with what the participants said in the questionnaire to evaluate the needs of workers and job-seekers in the Libyan job market in the first part of the theoretical aspect where most private sector participants confirmed that personal interviews did not play a role in their recruitment.

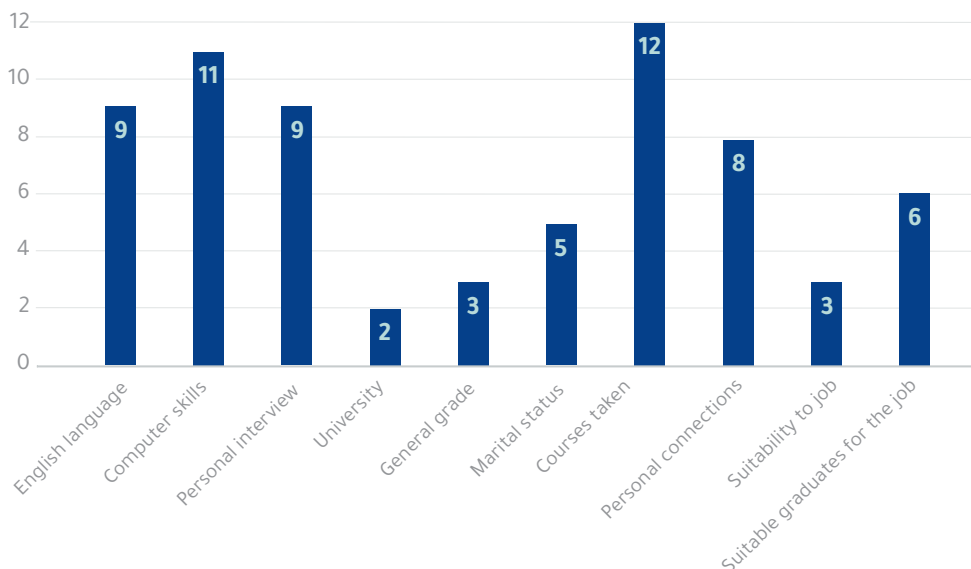
In your institution, what is the rate of employees leaving work within a short period?

Figure 73 :Rate of employees leaving work



Results shown in Figure (73) are considered a positive indicator for the private sector. However, it might not be attributed to the quality and benefits of working in these institutions as much as it is employees seeking financial stability. If this is the case in fact, then the work environment in the institution should be improved to be more suitable in order to achieve higher productivity.

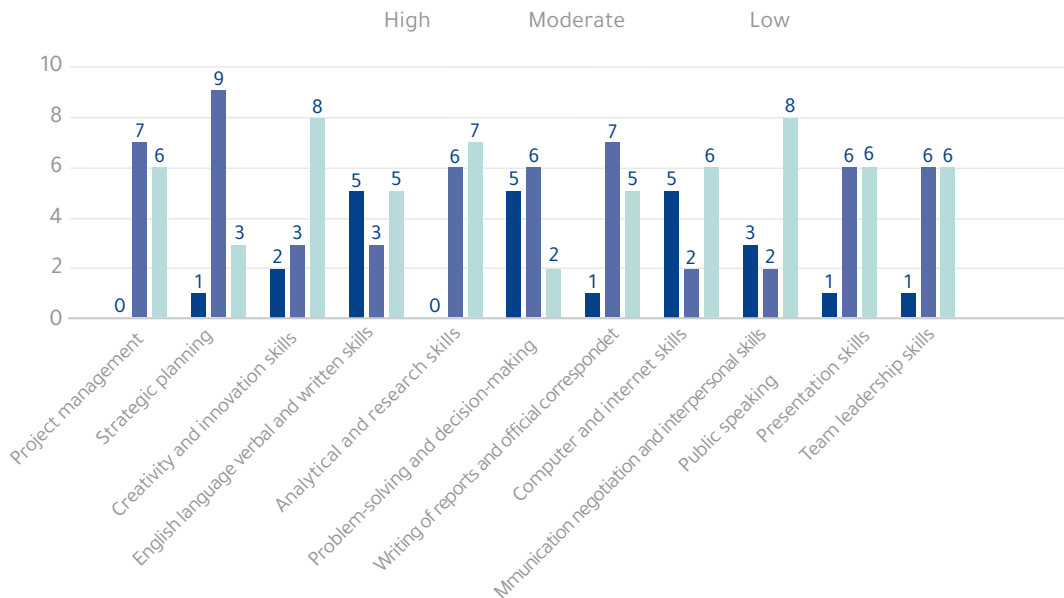
Figure 74 :Criteria of recruitment in the institution



From Figure (74) we find some standards that agree with the results of the employees and job-seekers questionnaire. Most participants said that experience and computer skills played a role in being recruited. But unlike answers in this questionnaire, the participants in the employees and job-seekers questionnaire said that the personal interview and English language did not play an important role in their recruitment.

In general, if public and private sector institutions committed to putting these standards amongst their requirements, this would create a noticeable development in these institutions and the performance of their employees.

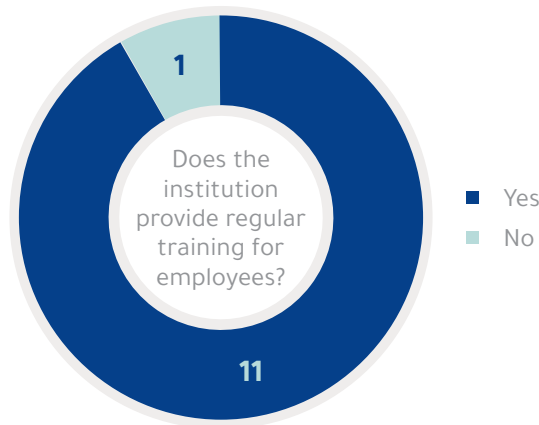
Figure 75: Competency of fresh graduates considering institution’s requirements



According to the views of employers participating in this questionnaire as shown on Figure (75) we find that there is a need to train and develop the skills of fresh graduates in several areas so that their competencies are suitable for the requirements of these institutions or other institutions in the sector. They are ordered as follows:

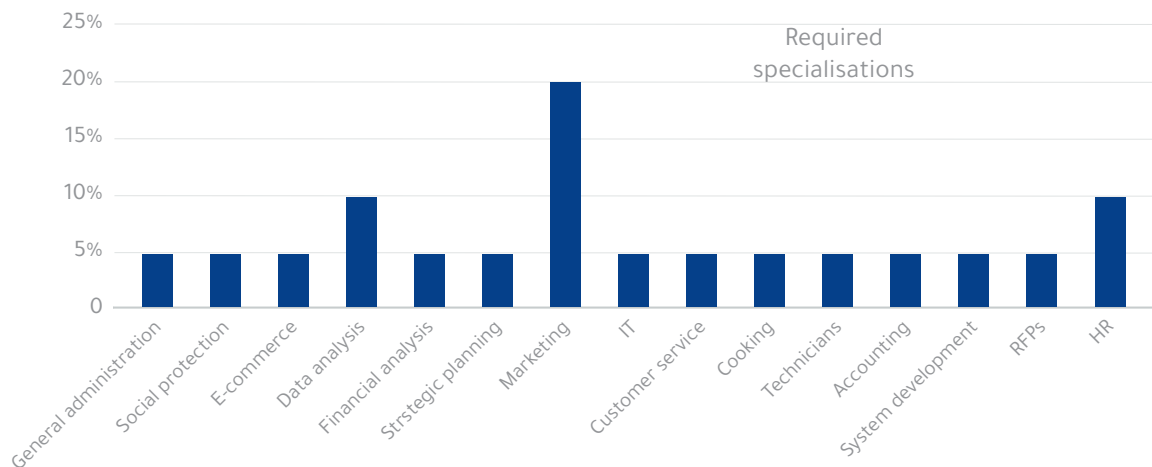
- 1- Strategic planning.
- 2- Project management.
- 3- Writing of reports and official correspondents.
- 4- Analytical and research skills.
- 5- Public speaking.
- 6- Presentation skills.
- 7- Team leadership skills.
- 8- Problem-solving and decision-making.
- 9- Computer and Internet skills.
- 10- English language (verbal and written skills)
- 11- Communication, negotiation, and interpersonal skills.
- 12- Creativity and innovation skills.

Figure 76: Training for institution's employees



The indicator shown on Figure (76) is considered a positive one, but it contradicts the answers of employees and job-seekers as more than 80% of them said they did have training in the institutions where they worked. Training remains a very important matter as we mentioned earlier. It is natural that institutions develop themselves regularly in accordance with the size of their responsibilities and activities, and also in accordance with developments in their fields. Technology, products, marketing and distribution methods, and management systems are constantly developing. Therefore, institutions that do not provide regular training do not develop.

Figure 76: Required specialisations by the institution within five years



In terms of the required academic specialisations by employers participating in this questionnaire, it has been found that there is a high demand for specialisations related to customer service in general. This can be seen in the diagram above, as the required specialisations related to customer service have been detailed including marketing, e-commerce, requests for proposals (RFPs), in addition to customer service specifically which was mentioned one time, constituting 5% of the answers. Other specialisations can be categorised under administration. It was mentioned, at least once, that there is a need for individuals qualified in human resources management, accounting, financial analysis (financial administration), and general administration. To a lesser extent, some employers mentioned they need specialisations related to IT (programming and networks), using several terms such as IT and system development. The demand for technicians was mentioned only once.

What do we understand from the demand for those specialisations?

We have spoken generally about the Libyan job market, and we will add details in the final analysis. While there is a lack of standards in the required specialisations and skills in most public administrations, the situation is different in the growing private sector (or attempting to grow) in the main coastal cities, especially Tripoli and Misrata. The private sector in its current growing locations depends mainly on importing/exporting activities and selling various products. After 2011, there has been a growth in certain service companies such as internet, communication, and training companies.

These activities directly require specialisations and skills to run the business and provide the services in the appropriate manner. These are generally the specialisations mentioned in the diagram above. The demand of the private sector for these specialisations cannot be understood solely as fulfilling requirements to implement the work, but the case is that they are required in order to work with the necessary efficiency and organisation. This may be attributed to the partial openness in the period 2006-2010, which increased dramatically and noticeably after 2011 in terms of usage of internet and social media networks particularly. Upon following social networking sites in Libya, one can notice that there is a certain evaluation of services and products via reviews written by customers either on their personal pages or on specialised groups and pages. Additionally, direct and indirect advertisements that spread on social networks by individuals and private companies have attracted some interest and created a culture of providing services in the best way, even if just for appearances. They have also encouraged the administration of economic activities in a more organised manner. We should also mention the civil society movements that contributed greatly in developing the skills of many youths in various aspects, especially those who have worked in foreign organisations or organisations that have foreign funding and oversight.

A comprehensive summary:

(Examination of World Bank 2015 report on employment and unemployment in Libya and an analysis based on results of questionnaires and focus group discussions)

The data gathered in our study confirms the results of the World Bank study of 2015, with more detail in terms of the personal viewpoint. The questionnaires targeted a representative sample of youth employees and job-seekers in addition to the employers' questionnaire. We have also conducted 5 focus group discussions in 5 different locations which are Yefren, Tripoli, Misrata, Benghazi and Sebha. As a summary of all data that has been gathered, we will present tables that clarify certain points to be added to the World Bank remarks in terms of challenges facing youth and the job market.

Inability to find work (overstaffed public sector and weak private sector)

1- Introduction on finding work:

We can define the issue of the inability to find work as it was defined in the World Bank 2015 Report on employment and unemployment in Libya, which said:

"After the flight of many foreign laborers during the uprising, based on 2012 data, Libya's labor force stands at an estimated 1.9 million, of whom only 34 percent are women. Prior to the uprising, Libya's labor force comprised nearly 2.6 million workers, nearly 50 percent of whom were foreign. Libya's active labor force now comprises 1.5 million workers. The vast majority (84 percent) of the employed in Libya are found in the public sector—a high number even by regional standards—and higher still for women (93 percent). As a corollary, employment in industry (largely the oil sector) and agriculture accounts for only 10 percent of the labor force— 20 percent of the level seen nearly 30 years ago. Given the dominance of the public sector as the main employer, job security is high, particularly for 45-year-olds and above, who tend to have open-ended contracts. Moreover, nearly all public sector workers are covered by some form of social insurance. In contrast, only 46 percent of private sector workers are enrolled—a striking difference. Wages in Libya are buttressed by substantive state subsidies on fuel, food, and benefits.

Libya has one of the highest unemployment rates in the world relative to its rate of tertiary enrollment, highlighting both the lack of labor demand and a skills mismatch. Unemployment increased from 13.5 percent in 2010 to 19.0 percent in 2012. In 2012 youth unemployment was estimated at 48 percent and female unemployment at 25 percent. Given the inflated public sector and the limited options in the private sector, these

patterns likely reflect a lack of jobs for both skilled and unskilled Libyans, job queuing for public sector jobs, inefficient school-to-work transitions, and a low willingness for Libyans to accept certain positions. The 2010 Investment Climate Assessment (ICA) showed that 30 percent of firms reported difficulties in recruiting Libyan nationals.”⁽²⁷⁾ The World Bank report relied on the latest Libyan government, in addition to data gathered during the time of the study. But there are certain small variables that we should mention due to their importance. They are indicators that have affected the data gathered in our study:

- The increase in US dollar exchange rate against the Libyan Dinar, and the inability of Libyan banks to provide liquidity.
- The continued separation of financial, executive and legislative institutions. The spread of appointment in the public sector in a disorganised manner, and the entrenchment of each government in its territory.
- Inflation and the inability of the Central Bank to provide hard currency for institutions and individuals.

(28) Employment and Unemployment in Libya, 2015, World Bank study.

(29) Audit Bureau reports of 2016 and 2017.

2- Analysing the problem using gathered data:

Problems	Indicators and explanations
<p>Low number of job opportunities and an undiversified job market</p>	<p>57% of respondents to the questionnaire on the challenges facing job-seekers and young workers are distributed between job-seekers and unemployed. 80% and 90% of participants said they work in a field other than theirs due to lack of jobs in their fields or their inability to obtain a job in the field for other reasons such as nepotism. This was confirmed by participants in the focus group discussions in the various areas.</p> <p>The Libyan job market is undiversified as mentioned in the theoretical framework of the study. This was confirmed by the World Bank report which indicated that the state dominates major projects and investments, as well as weak Libyan legislations to encourage foreign investors to invest in Libya. This is in addition to lack of stability factors, most important of which is security. An indicator of the lack diversity in the Libyan job market is that most of those who said they do not work in their fields are engineering and economics graduates. In the case of economies based on industry, services, and tourism, these fields are needed specialisations. In the following points we will refer to the challenges facing youth in the job market in addition to challenges in finding work in the private sector due to problems related to the private sector and its low contribution in the GDP.</p>
<p>Unequal job opportunities, hiring process not based on competency</p>	<p>79% of youth workers that participated in the questionnaire said that they did not work in their fields because personal connections favoured others, perhaps even from outside the field, to be hired for those jobs. Participants in the focus group discussions unanimously agreed on this. The tribal factor and personal connections play a major role in the hiring process even in the private sector as shown by the conducted questionnaire.</p> <p>It should be mentioned that the hiring standards are not adhered to by both public and private sectors in most cases. We can add to this that the job opportunities in the public sector are not advertised. Hiring depends on the mood of the management or the ministry, which determines when hiring is done and surely it is not based on the need to hire new employees. There is huge overstaffing and disguised unemployment in the public sector. As long as hiring in the public sector is conducted under this much chaos, it is natural</p>

that job opportunities are not advertised because these jobs are given in favour of certain individuals or groups based on personal connections.

There has been improvements on the mechanisms of publishing job opportunities in the private sector. Social media networks have contributed to that via individual efforts, but there are still negativities in private sector hiring. In a lot of cases it is also based on personal connections or on standards unrelated to competency. Most participants said that they believe the personal interview plays no role in whether they are hired in the private sector.

Employment offices and job-seekers offices do not play an effective role

There is no benefit from employment offices and job-seekers offices in municipalities. This is what was confirmed by participants in focus group discussions in various areas. The World Bank study said that only 15% of job-seekers look for jobs through job-seekers offices belonging to the Ministry of Labour.

Job-seekers offices should register job-seekers in the various municipalities and they should categorise them through a unified database. They should also play another role which is to guide these job-seekers to vacancies or to recommend the relevant offices in the Ministry of Labour to train them.

This practically does not happen. The director of the Information Centre at the Ministry of Labour has confirmed to us in a previous study on women in the job market that there is a real issue in job-seekers data. Job-seekers offices do not gather information correctly and work on a haphazard manner. Therefore, they do not achieve any of their objectives such as understanding the human power of unemployed people or job-seekers, and hence assist relevant bodies in the Ministry of Labour or other ministries in creating clear strategies to absorb them.

High retirement age, and stopping the implementation of staffing hierarchy

First of all, we should mention that in general there are no job descriptions for employees in both the private and the public sectors except in limited exceptions. The staffing hierarchy is only used in the staff grade, based on which salaries and bonuses are increased. As for the staffing hierarchy, it is not implemented in a correct manner. Some department heads remain in their jobs for long periods while they should have been transferred to better positions leaving the space for others with less grades and experience to become heads in order to develop further. This practically does not happen as promotions and appointments are not done based on competency nor staffing hierarchy.

This was confirmed by the conducted focus group discussions. Participants have discussed, with some criticism and anger, the decision of the House of Representatives to raise the retirement age from 65 to 70. These participants believe, and their opinion is supported by the World Bank experts and local economy experts, that the retiring age needs to be lowered rather than increased especially in the public sector. High retirement age means depriving youth of employment and promotion to leadership positions held by older employees. This also prevents the progress of institutions and reduces their efficiency as youth are more productive.

There are some positive aspects to the private sector. In it a person can develop their skills more than in the public sector. This is a clear reality expressed by participants in the focus group discussions. But on the other hand, and similar to the job-seekers questionnaire's participants, they said that the public sector represents more social security as appointments are done indefinitely so the employee would be guaranteed a secure and stable source of income, despite current difficulties in obtaining liquidity from banks as opposed to private sector employees which are in some cases paid in cash.

The public sector represents a safety net for employees and that is the reason everybody seeks a job in the public sector even if they had jobs in the private sector.

Discouraging private sector

Social security is clearly different between private and public employees. More than 80% of the highest salary is given to public sector employees after stopping work, while it is less than 50% for private sector employees. This adds to the desire of job-seekers to be hired in the public sector as confirmed by the World Bank study.

We should finally mention that there is a lack of legal protection in the private sector. Most participants in the job-seekers questionnaire have confirmed that workers in the private sector do not sign contracts and therefore they are deprived of registering in the social security fund in addition to the absence of legal protection due to the fact that their employers do not adhere to the Libyan law which states that there must be a contract between the employee and the employer to guarantee the rights of both parties.

This practically does not happen. Focus group discussion participants reiterated this important point which agrees with

the World Bank study which mentioned that legal protection in the private sector is weaker than in the public sector. There is failure from the private sector in this aspect but the real failure is from the Ministry of Labour and the bodies involved in monitoring the private sector which is operating outside the law.

All these factors render the private sector a repelling environment despite its many positive aspects. To be more accurate, this creates pressure on the public sector as many work in both the public and the private sectors in order to have the benefits of both.

Weak private sector in general including entrepreneurial projects:

1- Introduction into the issues of entrepreneurship and self-financed projects:

Recently, there has been an interest in the private sector and especially in small projects and entrepreneurship. There is a large trend towards working in the private sector and creating small entrepreneurial projects in large cities such as Tripoli and Misrata, and to a lesser extent Benghazi. However, this type of private sector projects is facing many issues added to the general issues of the private sector. We will be brief in this introduction regarding the many issues of the private sector, as we will discuss them in more detail in the following table. However, what we would like to raise is that small projects are being promoted as the main solution to reduce unemployment and provide new jobs, at a time when the country is undergoing an economic crisis. This is promoted by activists and local and international organisations in an attempt to suggest solutions for this crisis. And the reality is that it is true that small projects can reduce unemployment, but they will have a very limited impact during this economic crisis if attention is only paid to them as a solution without solving the root problems of the Libyan economy, the social security system, and the financial system. The public sector in general and entrepreneurial projects will remain limited as the current direction of the economic system remains the same with the state dominating it and with the lack of diversity in it.

2-Analysing the problem:

Problems	Indicators and explanations
Lack of mechanisms to fund private sector projects	In the past, funding of private projects was done through loans with interests, and usually they do not obtain these loans without having to go through corruption and bribery. In the last years of the previous regime, and the years following the Libyan revolution, no real programs emerged to support the private sector with clear mechanisms and programs whether for large, medium-sized or even small projects. Therefore, there have not been incentives for people to start private projects. The many challenges and factors of failure in addition to lack of funding and encouragement all create the unwillingness of many to enter the private sector which can provide alternative jobs to the public sector.
Limited foreign investments	Current Libyan rules and regulations do not encourage investors enough to enter the Libyan market compared to other markets which have many more incentives. Restrictions on foreign capital are many, in addition to many instability factors in Libya. In the past, these factors were to do with the isolation of the regime and the continuous change in laws and regulations before the attempt to open up and change during the last years of the previous regime. However, that was not fast nor radical as discussed in the theoretical framework of this study.
Discouraging laws	During the eighties, the previous regime executed a set of changes in administrative and economic laws and turned all sectors to what is called the public economy. Many institutions were dismantled and turned into chaos . Therefore, laws in general, and especially in terms of economy and investment, were changed with the pretext of socialism and justice, and this paved the way to chaos and the interference of the state in monopolising the economy and not just organising it and managing it in a way that does not conflict with the interest of the state.
The state is the largest investor and the biggest client	The state monopolises large projects and this is a reality that the World Bank report referred to. However, what was not referred to is the fact that the state is the biggest client. Despite the fact that the private sector is limited and undiversified, its largest client is the state. Therefore, any private project seeks to obtain a tender from the state due to its monopoly over the Libyan market, which turns it into the largest potential client for the private sector. The private sector puts all its effort into obtaining tenders from the government, with a lot

of corruption happening due to both parties not adhering to the purchasing standards such as public invitations to bidding, transparency in contracting, adhering to standards and other points that have been previously mentioned in the Audit Bureau report.

The fact that the state is the largest client, not only means corruption, but it also means that any economic crisis happening in the country with regards to its only source of income, oil, means cutting public sector spending on development and the freezing of many of its institutions. This means stagnation for many private sector institutions which would be hugely affected due to their dependency primarily on the biggest client which is the Libyan state. In fact, this is what is happening at the moment. The private sector has been affected, especially during late 2014 and 2015, by the economic problems that the country has been going through. It should not be forgotten that suspicions of corruption amongst these operations means the possibility of the client, which is the state, to continuously change the companies it contracts with as public institutions officials change.

High population density and large projects for small projects

Components of the economy and the job market and interconnected on different levels. We can simply refer to two levels of interdependency. Products and services in their various types are provided either to individuals or groups (public institutions, companies etc.). The size of economic projects varies in their capital and their products and services depending on the size of their clients whether individuals or groups. But economic projects mainly depend on the existence of larger economic projects. Large private projects, whether they were industrial, service or else, depend mainly on the economic and development orientation of the government since it is the largest client and since it is the one enacting legislations, quotas and facilities. And to a lesser extent, medium-sized projects depend on these large projects. For instance, let us look at the interdependency levels in the aviation sector where the large project belongs to the airline company, while the medium-sized project can be a catering company or a ground services company, and there can be a small-sized project such as a café in the airport, a small water bottling factory or else. In this way, the catering company would be the client of the water company or the wholesale food supplier, while the airlines company would be the client of the catering company. The same example can be applied to the oil sector which also

(30) For instance, the Intercity Transportation Company was dissolved and replaced by people buying cars or buses and turning them into a public transportation vehicle or taxi.

includes catering services companies, internet companies, food producers, wholesale stores, construction companies, maintenance workshops, and other projects ranging from small to medium size that exist in the work chain in the oil sector so that they all depend on each other, and they all depend on the existence of an investment and a high oil production. What we would like to summarise in this level of interdependency is that without diversified sources of income in the state, the diversity of the private sector will also remain limited, and so will be the opportunities and options available for private projects in all sizes. Investments in tourism, major industries, sports, transportation, and services would provide opportunities for the private sector projects and hence create new jobs.

To return to the second level of interdependency, which is related to the individual clients of the private sector, whether as user of services or products, it can be said that this level of interdependency relies on several factors such as the economic condition of the individual and their location. Small and medium sized projects can achieve success in locations with a high population density and a good economic condition. This is available in very limited number of locations in Libya. We have mentioned in the theoretical framework of the study that there is a bad distribution of the Libyan population over the main region with 80% being concentrated in the coast, and over 50% in 6 main cities or less. Therefore, if projects outside these areas were not to provide basic necessities for the individual and they were providing luxury goods or services, they probably would not succeed. In fact, what is happening in Libya at the moment is a practical example of that. The economic condition of Libyan citizens has worsened, especially for those depending on public sector salaries and social security salaries, due to the liquidity crisis in Libyan banks. This is in addition to the continued migration from the inlands to the main cities due to lack of services and insecurity. This situation created prosperity for the private sector in the main cities, especially Tripoli, due to the high population density, shopping habits and lifestyles that are still relatively comfortable and hence its inhabitants can be clients for projects that do not necessarily provide essential services. On the other hand, the private sector is still weak in the inland areas, even in main cities away from the coast such as Sebha, Ubari and Murzuq. This is due to the absence of the government and lack of security in those areas, in addition to the migration of citizens from them and the difficult living conditions. Benghazi is still affected by the aftermath of the war, but it can recover soon. This

has led to a booming of the smuggling business and an increased crime rate, especially in south of Libya due to lack of development and jobs, which is a clear example of the interdependency of the components of the economic process which manifested in negative results.

In summary, we should not be over-optimistic that small projects and the private sector in general would solve issues related to jobs and revitalisation of the economy. If the status quo remains as it is, then the continuously deteriorating living conditions of individuals and the continued economic collapse could impact the private sector even in main cities including Tripoli. This is in addition to the fact that there are limited future opportunities for the private sector in areas with low population densities. Depending on the private sector, at a time when public expenditure on development is halted and when economic development by the state as its main driver is halted, is a lost bet. The private sector is threatened with losing a part of its clients at least, whether individuals or groups (especially public sector institutions), if the current situation remains the same with political divisions, increased dollar exchange rate in the parallel market, widespread corruption, rising inflation, continued behaviours of public sector officials in not enforcing reforms, and with corruption being common amongst them. Any reform process, even if limited, can revitalise the private sector, and apart from that there is a direct threat to the private, and particularly young private sector.

3- Final conclusions: can the private sector provide jobs?

Despite the economic crisis and the difficulty for public sector employees to withdraw their salaries from banks for long periods due to the liquidity crisis, the general trend is that fresh graduates still prefer public sector employment. This was found as a result of the questionnaire conducted for this study. Many graduates of academic years 2014 to 2018 went to work in the public sector or have the desire to work in it. According to the World Bank study, to balance between the value of public sector salaries and the difficulty in withdrawing cash, and the rising prices of virtually everything in the local market due to inflation; therefore people tend to work in the private and the public sectors simultaneously. The reason why job-seekers do not seek jobs in the private sector is very clear. It is mainly the lack of employees' rights, low salaries in some fields, in addition to lack of social security mechanisms in comparison to the public sector. Hence, before considering whether the private sector can create new jobs, we should first ensure we solve the issue of 'the unattractive private sector', by solving the issues of social security and the fact that the private sector does not apply labour laws and workers' protection. The opportunities for this sector to grow are very possible, especially in the main regions, but these issues must be dealt with first.

The future belongs to the private sector. This is the correct direction, which the previous regime did not follow leading to bad economic conditions, and which weakened the capacity and development of human resources in Libya. But betting on it must be on solid and realistic foundations. The private sector can grow considerably but it will not be a stable growth. Considering the future of economic development and dependency on the private sector to reduce the burden on the public sector to balance the Libyan job market should be done by establishing a national economic strategy that can be built on what Michael Porter reached in his project after re-evaluating the new situation and the changed factors. The state should first determine the main outlines of the economic market and the general objectives in this field. The sectors are connected and there should be work to diversify sources of income by exploiting available opportunities such as the geographical location and the natural and human resources. After establishing this, it will be necessary to work in parallel in a comprehensive manner between the different sectors of the government. Education outputs, transportation structure, and other sectors are linked to the economic plan as they complement and serve one another. We should not forget that this all relies on stability factors, mainly security. But this should not prevent the initiation of planning and monitoring to observe changes in any factors on which the plans will be based. The only constant in Libya is that the situation is always changing.

The gap between the education outputs and the job market requirements

1- **An introduction to the issue of the gap between the education outputs and the job market requirement**

What we mean by the gap between education outputs and the job market is the extent to which graduates benefit from what they had learnt at different educational stages when they enter the job market. In reality, and as Libyan experts always confirm, there is no written philosophy of education in Libya, or specific objectives of each academic year and each academic stage, and no objectives of the educational process as a whole. The lack of this philosophy, in addition to the absence of a clear national economic project or a national economic strategy, is causing the gap between education outputs and the job market. Naturally, the job market is changing and therefore what we mean here is not that the student studies a certain field, graduates and then works in the same field in the job market, even though that is necessary in some fields. Instead, what we mean is that the student should learn a set of skills and obtain the necessary knowledge to enter the job market.

Naturally, this gap between the education outputs and the job market is understandable. The public sector employs virtually 75% of the workforce, and therefore the education outputs had not taken into consideration graduating competent individuals that can compete in the different fields as long as graduates are employed in the public sector regardless of their competence or their specialisations.

2- Analysis of the issue

Problems	Indicators and explanations
Education without objectives	<p>We have mentioned in the theoretical framework of the study that there is not objective to the educational process in Libya. In turn, an education without objectives cannot create an economic development as it relies mainly on detailed planning in terms of the needed size and type of required human resources.</p> <p>Everybody agrees that education in Libya focuses on the theoretical aspect, which is one of its shortcomings. Some imagine that the solution to that would be an education that relies on laboratories inside the academic institution. This is part of what we need, but it is not everything. After graduation, graduates enter a new world that they know nothing about, and therefore they need to get to know it without pressures of termination of employment. So they need, as part of their curricula, to obtain a training period in a public or a private institution, in order to understand the job market, the opportunities available, and the paths to take after graduation</p>
Social issues	<p>The World Bank report has indicated the issue of Libyans rejecting to work in some professions, especially in manual labour. We have also mentioned the concentration of students in limited academic fields, due to family pressures and to social status. This was confirmed by the job-seekers questionnaire as most participants were graduates of academic institutions, and were mostly from 4 academic fields.</p>
Low expenditure	<p>Education expenditure in Libya is one of the lowest in the region and in the world. Additionally, current expenditure is limited to operating the educational process. It is not used to develop it and to utilise its output to improve the economy and hence the expenditure on education would be continued.</p> <p>Expenditure on education should be increased, but with guaranteeing the results of this expenditure and using it appropriately. In this way, education expenditure would be part of the investment capital that has economic benefits to Libya, as opposed to graduating students to be hired by the public sector without any productivity and with huge sums of money being spent to cover their salaries.</p>

Final conclusions: do we fix education or the job market?

When there is a discussion about the gap between the education outputs and the requirements of the job market, it is often understood that the issue is education and that it needs real reforms to provide the needed human resources to the Libyan job market. But the reality is different from that. Education and the job market are chaotic despite the fact that they can be outlined and described. The summary of this description is that it is dominated by chaos⁽³¹⁾. Therefore, any reform process, as mentioned above, needs to consider them both and that one does not wait for the other to be fixed. The planning and execution of reforms should be done simultaneously with a specific timetable to reach the desired result.

Restoration or reconstruction:

There are many problems related to the human resources of the education outputs which were clarified and detailed in the theoretical and analytical part of this study. But the question is do we restore or reconstruct human resources? Reforming education is the root to resolve the issue of the competency of education outputs, regardless of their relationship with the job market. It should produce a new generation of human resources, completely different from the previous generation and does not suffer from the same issues. But what will happen to the graduates from the current educational process? And to the students of higher education, i.e. the human resources which have already been created in the dysfunctional educational process?

In fact, there has been a self-correcting process by job-seekers and young workers to solve some of the issues they face regarding their low capabilities and knowledge compared to the challenges and needs of the job market. Self-correction has been limited to two areas. The first one is regarding quantity and quality. That is the type and number of people doing this process, which is normally limited to inhabitants of cities who face challenges in the job market due to the growth of private sector in cities such as Misrata and Tripoli, and to a lesser extent Benghazi. The second aspect is that the fields and skills which are self-developed and self-corrected are limited.

While internet and social media have contributed in this, the Ministry of Labour has attempted to start similar reform initiatives by working to provide several training courses in various fields. Despite the fact that they helped develop some people individually, they have failed to produce collective results.

We need both restoration and reconstruction. Restoration needs to occur on different levels. A part of it must have guaranteed and quick results because it is linked to reconstructing the current educational process on the right foundations. This means restoring and correcting the outputs of a part of the current educational stages. The targeted groups here are primary education students moving to secondary education and secondary education students moving to higher education. The second part is to do with restoring the education outputs as a whole, i.e. those who have finished higher education and are currently looking for jobs or even those who have already been hired. Three main parties can oversee this

(31) This does not mean that all its outcomes are bad. Academically and theoretically, ending illiteracy has had a positive impact, and the job market and the shape of the current economy had a role in the high standards of living for Libyans compared to others especially between 2004 and 2014.

restoration process after registering, categorising, and describing this group of human resources accurately. These parties are the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Education, and the public and private sector institutions. As such, the restoration or development program would have different patterns, and in our view these patterns should be as follows:

- 1- Development in the institution itself for those working in it.
- 2- Development through an additional educational stage after higher education. It can be one or two years including a training program in a certain institution. This should include classes and lectures in languages, IT, research and other skills. The graduates from this educational process can have a higher educational and employment grade than bachelor degree holders and lower than master degree graduates. But it should also have a certain set of entry criteria.
- 3- Development through regular training overseen by the Ministry of Labour, to evaluate needs based on the different areas, institutions and sectors.

These restoration patterns can treat part of the issue of graduates' competency in the job market, but they are not the only patterns that can be delivered as we can benefit from other countries' experience in this field.

Recommendations

Stressing the need to apply the recommendations of the 2015 World Bank report on employment and unemployment in Libya:

Several important recommendations were made in the World Bank report, so it was necessary to refer to them here again as they are in line with some of our recommendations in this study, and they are the result of the work of a team of experts from a specialised institution in this field. The report included the following recommendations:

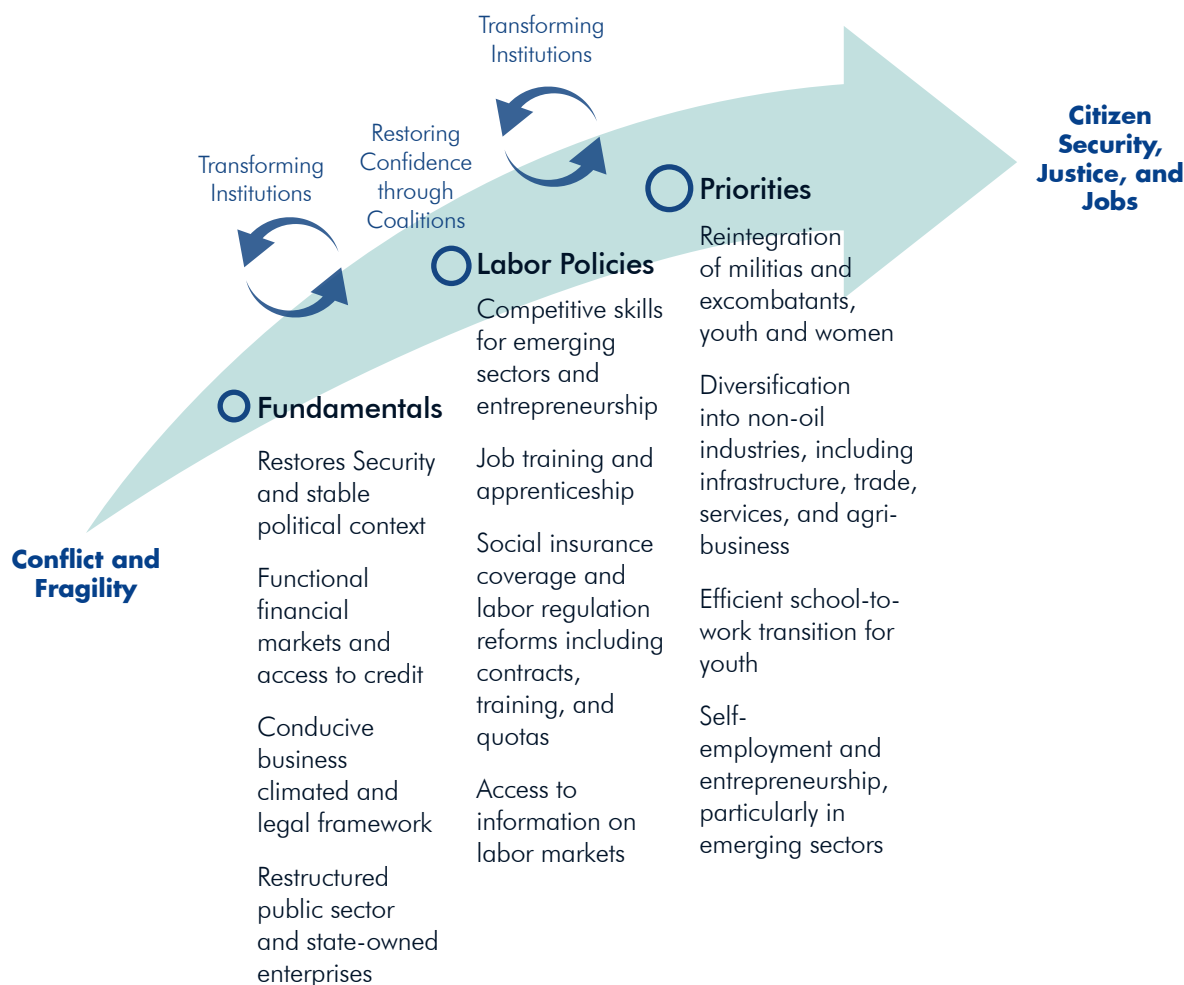
“Policy Options for the Short to Long Term

An integrated jobs strategy would help promote reintegration during Libya’s transition phase and pave the way to boost employment in the long term.

This policy note highlighted multiple structural factors that affect the Libya’s labor market, notably a nascent business climate and an unexperienced labor force. Mired in political instability, Libya faces challenges to youth and excombatant employment that can impact long-term stabilization and statebuilding. Given Libya’s context, two key policy objectives emerge:

- 1- To build the fundamentals for sustainable, diversified growth. Growth requires interventions to restore security and stable institutions, a well-functioning financial market, and a competitive investment climate over the long run.
- 2- To improve the efficiency of labor market insertion. The lack of efficiency calls for interventions for youth and ex-combatants in the short run, such as through public-private partnerships (PPPs) for on-the-job training, followed by more structural reforms to labor policies and social protection in the public and private sectors.

To promote jobs and reintegration, an integrated jobs strategy is needed to tackle these dual objectives in three main policy areas.



These key reforms and interventions include:

- 1- Strengthening the stability and incentives within the business climate in the short to medium term, particularly by boosting access to finance, business services, and incentives to invest in emerging sectors for small, medium, and large enterprises, particularly in sectors with a high job-creating potential in Libya such as construction, trade, services, and agribusiness
- 2- Shifting the role of the public sector as employer of choice in the medium term by reducing the dominance in the economy of the public sector and state-owned enterprises
- 3- Ensuring labor regulations that guarantee adequate incentives for job creation in the private sector in the medium term, notably in the structure of employment and training contracts, quotas for nationals and non-nationals, training requirements, and hiring and firing policies
- 4- Reducing the dichotomy of social security policies between the public and private sectors in the short to medium term, particularly the low social insurance coverage in the private sector and queuing for public sector jobs.

- 5- Targeting job-relevant skills development in the short to long term, which will help reduce barriers faced by firms in recruiting qualified nationals for both high- and low-skilled jobs.
- 6- Improving the school-to-work transition in the medium term to facilitate labor market insertion among youth and women, especially given Libya's particularly high tertiary enrolment.

Moving forward, the realization of a jobs strategy that is based on Libya's economic vision will be needed. The strategy would need to address the range of challenges to Libya's business climate, labor market institutions, and education system. For untapped sectors such as trade, services, tourism, and agribusiness, the potential is particularly great. As Libya's transition unfolds, building coalitions for improving the employment outlook will help support long-term state-building. Libya's challenges are in some respects similar to those faced by the rest of Middle East and North Africa as well as other middle-income and fragile contexts. However, Libya needs to both fill a long-standing, deep institutional vacuum and facilitate reconciliation among rival factions in a nascent state. Significant structural and institutional reforms are needed".

Building a comprehensive social protection network⁽³¹⁾

It is well-known that people with low incomes usually fall victim to economic reform measures whether regarding reducing the number of government employees, removing subsidised commodities, or other potential reforms. Unless there is a social protection network (social security) for this group of the society, then these changes will cause them great harm that might render them unable to access basic services or obtain basic needs.

Social protection, as defined by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, is concerned with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affect people's well-being. Social protection consists of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to manage economic and social risks, such as unemployment, exclusion, sickness, disability and old age.

(31) There is a lot of emphasis by Libyan Central Bank experts, such as Mohamed Abusnena and Ezzidine Ashour on the necessity of having a social protection network due to the dire need for economic reforms which may include termination of employment, transferring to other departments, and reducing the human resources in the public sector.

Most common types of social protection are:

Labor market interventions: are policies and programs designed to promote employment, the efficient operation of labour markets and the protection of workers.

Social Insurance: mitigates risks associated with unemployment, ill health, disability, work-related injury and old age, such as health insurance or unemployment insurance.

Social Assistance: is when resources, either cash or in-kind, are transferred to vulnerable individuals or households with no other means of adequate support, including single parents, the homeless, or the physically or mentally challenged.

We need to plan and start to implement reforms on the current social protection network before starting to execute radical economic reforms, especially since there will be a pressing need to reduce the number of public sector employees, which would have a negative effect on most Libyan families that depend immensely on salaries from the public sector with no social protection system to lean on. Economic changes are usually difficult, but their results would be catastrophic on wide groups of citizens, as was the case in Chile and Argentina, if there was no effective social protection system.

(32) National Economic Strategy: Libya's Moment for Action, Prof. Michael E. Porter ,February 22nd, 2007
https://www.academia.edu/24416685/National_Economic_Strategy_Libyas_Moment_for_Action

Implementing the recommendations of the National Economic Strategy 2007-2022⁽³²⁾ (Michael Porter's recommendations remain useful)

We do not see any drastic or radical changes in the general Libyan situation and the situation of the Libyan economy that would make us ignore the recommendations of Michael Porter with regards to the mechanisms of economic reform. The current collapsing situation of the Libyan economy is directly due to the lack of security, instability, and conflicts over resources. However, it is also the result of a bad economic, political, and education system that we inherited from the previous regime. The National Strategy created by Porter has already described it, evaluated it, and made recommendations based on that. There remains a need to deal with the urgent security issues, the liquidity issue, and the damages to the oil sector. These recommendations could be extended to include incentives for those involved in the security and political conflict, which is in fact largely a conflict over resources. Below are the main recommendations in Porter's National Economic Strategy:

Figure 74: National economic strategy

