

KEY POLICY DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

2025

LIBYA

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ABOUT THIS PAPER

Each year, the ETF monitors developments in education, skills and employment in its partner countries to support informed decision-making by identifying trends, opportunities and challenges. The results are reported by country, across countries and by selected theme.

This document is the 2025 country-level report (country fiche) for Libya. Like all ETF monitoring, it draws on multiple sources of evidence and is the culmination of a year-long process of data collection, analysis and consultations. One key source of evidence is the ETF Key Indicators on Education, Skills and Employment (KIESE) database, which provides internationally comparable indicators on areas such as country demography, economy, education and employment. The indicators are sourced mainly from international repositories, including UNESCO, the World Bank, the OECD, Eurostat and the ILO, while some come directly from partner countries: for instance, from their labour force surveys¹.

Another source of evidence is the Torino Process, a flagship monitoring initiative of the ETF, which compiles system performance indices (SPIs) on the basis of KIESE data and expert surveys. The SPIs combine selected KIESE indicators to track policy and system performance in education and vocational education and training (VET) in key areas such as access, quality and system management. Where KIESE data is missing, the SPIs rely on expert surveys, which help fill the gaps and contextualise the findings at the analysis stage. 'Performance' in this context refers to the extent to which policies and systems deliver results in these areas². In 2025, the ETF compiled SPIs for a total of 32 areas and sub-areas of performance, including for groups of learners such as youth and adults, males and females, socio-economically disadvantaged young people and adults with no or low education.

ETF country missions complement these data sources by engaging with key policy stakeholders, gathering qualitative insights on policy developments, recently enacted legislation and major reform measures. Finally, where necessary, the ETF draws on third-party publications and analytical work to fill gaps in available evidence or to clarify developments that are not fully captured in the ETF monitoring evidence.

The country fiche begins with Chapter 1 – a country profile that describes the demographic and socio-economic conditions in the country. Chapter 2 presents recent policies in education and training, together with the structure of the education system, including adult learning. Chapter 3 provides an overview of employment and labour-market policies and introduces the main strategies, institutions and programmes. Chapter 4, which is the final chapter, presents the results of policies and arrangements in education and training.

¹ The full selection of KIESE indicators for 2025 can be found here: <https://bit.ly/4j6taZW>.

² The subset of KIESE indicators used for the calculation of the Torino Process SPIs in 2025 can be found here: <https://bit.ly/433OR8j>. The full list of questions used in the 2025 round of Torino Process system performance monitoring can be found here: <https://bit.ly/3YUlbXE>. For a full overview of the Torino Process system performance monitoring framework, see <https://bit.ly/47YGA6l>. The methodology for the calculation of the SPIs can be found here: <https://bit.ly/3XJq101>.

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KEY TAKEAWAYS

- **Country profile and developments:** Libya has a predominantly young and expanding population, but its economy is largely dependent on oil and gas, making it vulnerable to the ongoing political instability and conflict since 2011. These challenges have resulted in economic uncertainty, infrastructure damage and disrupted public services, particularly in education and training. The country also contends with internal displacement, migration and regional inequalities, leading to inconsistent access to services and employment and placing pressure on education and training systems due to high youth unemployment. Although there are initiatives to rebuild institutions, diversify the economy and modernise education and vocational training, progress is hampered by fragmented governance and constrained resources, limiting the effectiveness of reforms.
- **Developments in education and training:** Libya's education and training sector has seen a series of reforms and strategic initiatives aimed at modernising both general education and vocational education and training (VET). The system's legal and policy frameworks provide for free public provision and the operation of private providers, while also encouraging financial incentives to boost participation. The main actors include government authorities, international partners and a growing number of private stakeholders, though coordination remains a challenge due to fragmented governance. Recent initiatives focus on updating qualifications, expanding work-based learning opportunities and introducing career guidance services. Efforts to improve quality assurance, digital education and adult learning are underway, but practical implementation is often uneven and heavily reliant on external support, with progress constrained by limited resources and ongoing institutional challenges.
- **Employment and labour market developments:** Libya's labour market remains characterised by low activity and high unemployment rates, particularly among youth and women, reflecting persistent structural challenges and the broader impact of ongoing political instability. The economy's heavy reliance on oil and gas has limited diversification, resulting in few sustainable job opportunities and widespread informal employment. Recent policy efforts have focused on developing labour market strategies to stimulate employment, including the introduction of active labour market programmes (ALMPs) which aim to support young people's transition into work. These strategies are shaped and implemented by government bodies, international partners and private sector actors, though coordination and effectiveness are frequently undermined by fragmented governance and resource constraints. Despite some progress, labour market interventions remain limited in scale, and many jobseekers continue to face barriers to securing stable and meaningful employment.
- **Trends in access, retention, completion:** access to initial and continuing VET in Libya is hindered by fragmentation, uneven territorial coverage and low attractiveness of programmes, despite a legal framework that creates favourable conditions. While enrolment opportunities exist across both government-controlled and internationally supported initiatives, overall access is sustained more by external partners than by a coherent national system. Participation is especially limited for women and often confined to traditionally female occupations. Learners also often struggle to progress and complete their training.
- **Quality and relevance of learning:** the quality and relevance of learning in Libya are limited. Despite near-universal literacy, education and training do not produce competences aligned with labour-market demand. Curricula are outdated and overly theoretical, while practical and digital training are scarce. Many young graduates lack English, IT and interpersonal skills, and women face additional barriers to employment. International initiatives partly fill these gaps but are small in scale.
- **System management and organisation:** funding for VET in Libya is scarce and unevenly distributed. Most public expenditure is absorbed by salaries, which leaves little for investment in infrastructure, equipment or staff development. Institutions remain poorly equipped, while staff

shortages coexist with large numbers of inactive teachers. Data systems and quality assurance mechanisms exist on paper but are largely non-functional due to a lack of effective coordination, oversight and accountability in a governance context that is fragmented between rival authorities.

1. COUNTRY PROFILE

Table 1.1 Demographic and socio-economic context: key indicators, Libya

Indicator	Value	Year	Source
Total population (in thousands)	7 305.7	2023	UN DESA, World Bank
Relative size of youth population (%)	25.7	2023	UN DESA
Population growth rate	1.1	2023	World Bank, UN DESA
Dependency ratio	48.9	2023	World Bank, UN DESA
Immigrant stock as % of total population	12.2	2024	UN DESA
Emigrant stock as % of total population	2.1	2024	UN DESA
GDP growth rate	10.0	2023	World Bank
GDP per capita (PPP)	13 848.8	2023	World Bank
Migrant remittance inflows (USD mil.) as % of GDP	0.0	2023	World Bank
Inflation rate	2.4	2023	IMF
Poverty headcount ratio (USD 8.30/day)	M.D.		World Bank
Gini coefficient (Income inequality)	M.D.		World Bank
Human development index (HDI)	0.721	2023	UNDP, World Bank

Source: ETF KIESE database

1.1 Demography

The population of Libya was 7.3 million in 2023 (Table 1.1). Annual growth is at 1.1%, which is lower than in many countries in Africa and the SEMED region. Libya's dependency ratio of 48.9 is close to the world average and lower than in many lower-income countries. In practice, however, more than a quarter of the working-age population are youth aged 15–24, many of whom are still in school, training or just beginning their transition to the labour market. This means that adults aged 25–64, who are more likely to be fully engaged in employment, paying taxes and undertaking family support responsibilities, carry a greater share of responsibility for supporting dependants than the dependency ratio suggests.

Libya is a net destination country in demographic terms. In 2024, 12.2% of residents were foreign-born compared to 2.1% of Libyan nationals living abroad. Immigration therefore adds more to the population base than emigration takes away, making it an important aspect of Libya's demographic profile.

Most foreign-born residents come from neighbouring African countries. Sudanese now form the largest group, reflecting the impact of the civil war that erupted in 2023 and forced hundreds of thousands to flee northwards. Nigeriens and Chadians also account for a large share, continuing long-standing labour migration to southern Libyan towns but increasingly using Libya as a corridor to Europe. Egyptians, who made up about one-fifth of the foreign population in 2023, are drawn mainly by economic opportunities, despite security risks. Nigerians represent a smaller share, often as part of

irregular migration across the central Mediterranean (International Organization for Migration, 2024, 2025).

1.2 Economy

In 2023, the economy of Libya grew by an estimated 10.0% (Table 1.1), but this sharp increase mainly reflects a recovery in oil production after earlier disruptions. In Libya, economic growth tends to move up and down with oil output, as the sector dominates the economy. This means that large changes in GDP figures often say more about the stability of oil operations than about progress in other areas of economic activity.

Average income levels, measured in purchasing-power terms, reached USD 13 848.8 per person in 2023. On paper, this places Libya among middle-income countries. In practice, however, the figure is inflated by extensive subsidies and controlled prices, particularly for fuel and basic goods. These keep measured living costs low but do not translate into greater fiscal strength or competitiveness. In reality, the economy is less resilient than the income figure alone would indicate.

Inflation stood at only 2.4% in 2023, which may appear reassuring. However, this stability rests on government policies, such as subsidies, price controls and a tightly managed currency regime, that are costly to maintain. As long as oil revenues hold up, inflation can be kept low. But if subsidies are reduced, or if oil exports are interrupted, prices could rise quickly, especially in import-dependent cities.

Libya does not benefit from significant remittances from citizens working abroad; in 2023 these accounted for virtually none of the national income (Table 1.1). This sets Libya apart from many countries where remittances provide households with additional income and the economy with a buffer during downturns. Without such inflows, both state finances and household consumption remain highly exposed to swings in oil revenues.

1.3 Income and living standards

Poverty and inequality are difficult to measure in Libya due to the absence of recent nationally representative household surveys. The World Bank does not publish poverty headcount ratios for the country at the USD 8.30/day (2017 PPP) line chosen in this monitoring cycle, and no official Gini coefficient has been released since before the collapse of state institutions in 2011.

Recent estimates suggest that about one-third of Libyans have lived in poverty in the years following 2011. A study from Misrata University's Faculty of Economics (2023) estimated that 32.5% of households fell below the poverty line, while 1.9% were in extreme poverty (Misrata University, Faculty of Economics, 2023). The same order of magnitude is confirmed by earlier compilations, which placed the share of Libyans living below the poverty line at around 30% (The Borgen Project, 2018).

While these figures suggest that extreme poverty in the sense of destitution remains relatively rare, more recent official statements point to further deterioration: in 2023, the Ministry of Economy acknowledged that approximately 40% of the population was below the poverty line, which reflects the combined impact of inflation, currency collapse and prolonged conflict (Libya Review, 2023). Localised assessments by the World Bank also confirm the presence of substantial hardship. Almost one-third of surveyed households in some municipalities were living on less than USD 3 per day (World Bank, 2021).

Income inequality, while not officially measured in the last decade, is estimated to be high by regional standards. A modelled Gini coefficient for 2019 places Libya at roughly 0.44, on par with some Latin American economies and significantly higher than Tunisia or Egypt, where coefficients typically fall in the 0.30–0.35 range (World Economics, 2019). This estimate, based on extrapolations from World Bank and UNU-WIDER data, reflects the widening gap between elites with access to oil revenues and foreign exchange and a large share of the population which faces worsening standards of living.

The Human Development Index (HDI) of Libya stood at 0.721 in 2023 (Table 1.1), which places the country in the category of countries with a 'high' level of human development. The result, however, masks uneven performance across the three underlying dimensions. Life expectancy at birth is 69.3 years, which is several years lower than in countries with similar income levels. In education, children entering school can expect to complete about 12.9 years of schooling, while adults on average have attained 7.8 years of education. This gap of more than five years between generations indicates that younger cohorts are progressing further in education than adults currently in the labour force. Income is the strongest contributor to the aggregate HDI result: gross national income per capita was around USD 19 800 (PPP), reflecting the country's oil-based wealth.

1.4 Recent developments

Throughout 2025, Libya's political environment has remained fragile and factionalised. The Government of National Unity (GNU) has partially consolidated control in Tripoli and parts of the west, while the Government of National Stability (GNS), appointed by the House of Representatives (HoR) continues to hold influence in the east and is aligned with the Libyan National Army (LNA). United Nations efforts to bridge institutional divides and advance a unified electoral framework have produced several proposals but no final agreement, leaving the country without a clear political roadmap. Migration flows through Libya continue to fuel diplomatic tensions with neighbouring countries and European partners, while sporadic violence within Libya and in international waters underscores that stability remains far from assured. The persistence of fragmented governance, competing economic centres of power and limited progress on constitutional arrangements continues to constrain Libya's ability to achieve national reconciliation and sustained recovery.

1.5 The crisis/war and its impact

Libya continues to experience the prolonged effects of political fragmentation, insecurity and weak governance structures that have persisted since the 2011 conflict. The division between rival administrations in the west and east has hindered institutional coordination and policy implementation, while localised violence, militia control and disputes over key economic resources continue to disrupt the functioning of state institutions. The September 2023 floods in Derna and the surrounding areas, among the deadliest in North Africa's recent history, exposed the fragility of Libya's governance and infrastructure systems, highlighting chronic underinvestment in maintenance, emergency response and urban planning. Recovery efforts are ongoing but remain slow, constrained by limited fiscal space and overlapping mandates between central and local authorities.

The compound crises have deeply affected the economy and social fabric. Prolonged instability has undermined confidence in the banking system, restricted private-sector activity and increased the population's dependence on public employment and subsidies. Inflationary pressures and currency depreciation have reduced household purchasing power, while recurrent disruptions in electricity and water supply have weakened service delivery. Libya's education and health sectors have been particularly affected, with schools and universities damaged, teacher shortages persisting and access to quality education remaining uneven, especially in rural and conflict-affected areas. Employment opportunities have also been severely constrained by the weak investment climate and the prevalence of informal and low-productivity jobs.

Vulnerable groups remain disproportionately impacted. Women, youth, internally displaced persons, migrants and people with disabilities face heightened barriers to accessing education, training and employment. According to humanitarian assessments, approximately 787 090 people, including internally displaced persons (IDPs), migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, remain in need of assistance (UNOCHA, 2025). The influx of migrants and returnees along the central Mediterranean route continues to strain local services and labour markets, particularly in southern and coastal regions. The combination of economic fragility, institutional fragmentation and environmental shocks

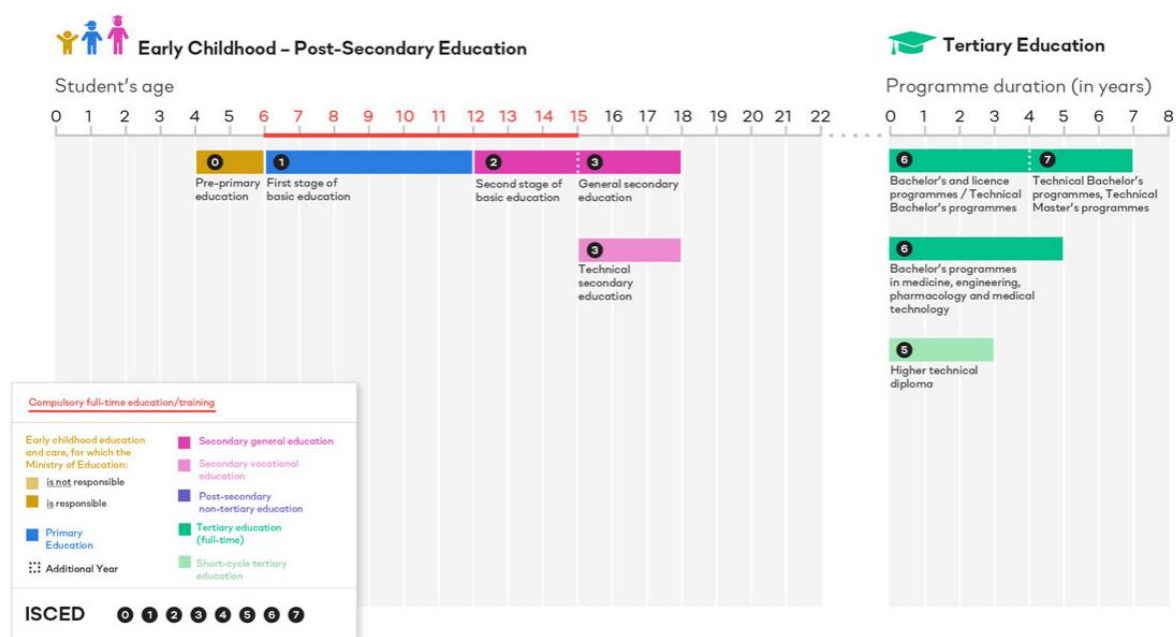
underscores the urgent need for coordinated national strategies that link humanitarian response with long-term reconstruction, social protection and human capital development.

2. EDUCATION AND TRAINING: POLICIES AND DEVELOPMENTS

2.1 Structure and levels of education, including VET

This section provides a brief description of how the education system is organised across different levels, including pre-primary, primary, secondary (distinguishing between general and vocational tracks), tertiary and adult learning. It uses the UNESCO ISCED classification and is based on monitoring information collected through the Torino Process expert survey.³

Figure 2.1 Structure of the education system: Libya (2025)



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2021).

Formal education

At the time of monitoring, the administration of the education system in Libya is formally divided between two rival authorities. The Government of National Unity (GNU), based in Tripoli and internationally recognised since 2021, oversees ministries operating mainly in the west of the country and parts of the north. The Government of National Stability (GNS), formed by the House of Representatives in Tobruk in 2022, meanwhile administers institutions in much of the east of the country and parts of the south. As a result, Libya has parallel ministries of education, labour and technical training.

Despite this duality, the structure of the education system remains broadly consistent across the country. Pre-primary education in Libya is optional and caters to children aged three to five. Provision is largely concentrated in urban areas and is offered by nurseries and kindergartens overseen by the Ministry of Education. A significant share of enrolment at this level is with private providers.

General education in Libya consists of a nine-year basic cycle followed by general secondary education. Basic education is free and compulsory. It begins at age six and comprises six years of primary education (ages 6 to 11) and three years of preparatory schooling (ages 12 to 14). At the end

³ The full questionnaire can be found here: <https://bit.ly/418jfwC>. In this document, the survey may be referred to interchangeably as the 'monitoring survey', 'expert survey', or 'Torino Process monitoring survey'.

of grade nine, learners sit for a national examination leading to the Basic Education Certificate, which is required for entry into upper (general) secondary education. General secondary education begins at age 15, lasts three years (ages 15 to 17) and prepares learners for the national examination which grants access to higher education.

Vocational education and training runs in parallel to general education and is structured by Law No. 21 of 2023. The first stage, basic and vocational training (ISCED 2), is open from age 12 and provides an entry route for individuals who may not have completed the full cycle of basic education. Programmes at this stage are typically short, lasting one to three years, and focus on introducing fundamental vocational skills.

The second stage, intermediate technical education (ISCED 3), begins at age 15 for holders of the Basic Education Certificate. It is delivered through a network of about 400 vocational institutes across the country, usually over a four-year cycle (ages 15 to 18). Graduates receive vocational diplomas qualifying them for employment in technical roles or for further study.

The third stage, higher technical education, operates at tertiary level and is open from age 18 to graduates of general or vocational secondary education. It is offered at technical colleges and higher technical institutes, with programmes lasting two to three years and leading to higher technical diplomas and degrees that prepare learners for advanced technical positions.

In addition to these structured stages, shorter alternative vocational programmes are available for those who did not complete basic education, typically one to two years in duration, providing practical training in trades and leading to lower vocational certificates.

Other forms of formal education are provided by private schools, which follow the national curriculum but are managed outside the state sector, and international schools offering foreign curricula. Home schooling is also legally recognised under specific conditions, with parents required to register annually and learners sitting for examinations at public schools.

Higher education is open to graduates of general secondary education, usually from age 18. It is provided through a wide network of public universities, higher technical institutes and colleges. Universities offer undergraduate and postgraduate programmes across a broad range of disciplines, while technical institutes and colleges focus on professional and applied fields. The Open University, with multiple branches across the country, provides opportunities for distance learning. Bachelor's programmes usually last four years, followed by postgraduate degrees, including master's and doctorates, offered in selected fields.

Adult learning

Libya has invested considerably in adult education since the 1970s, which in subsequent years led to the establishment of literacy campaigns and adult learning centres in all districts of the country. These centres combine literacy and numeracy courses with functional vocational training, through which they offer adult learners opportunities to develop both basic and practical skills. The programmes are flexible in duration and often delivered in evening classes, while the curricula are designed to support students in reaching at least the equivalent of fourth-grade education. Adults can also benefit from workplace training organised by various ministries in sectors such as agriculture, commerce and public works.

The Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation plays a central role in the provision of adult learning. It delivers vocational courses for registered jobseekers, including trades such as electrical installation, tailoring, computer technology and automotive repair. Programmes like the Creating a Libyan Cadre initiative focus on developing specific skills required by the labour market. Active labour market policies also promote entrepreneurship through financial leasing and partnerships with banks to encourage the creation of small enterprises.

Private training centres supplement the public provision, particularly in urban areas, with fee-based courses in foreign languages, information technology, mechanics and business management. International and non-governmental organisations, including IOM, GIZ and UNDP, operate training

programmes targeting groups of strategic significance, such as women, youth in conflict-affected regions and internally displaced persons. These programmes often focus on entrepreneurship, business skills, digital media and handicrafts, extending opportunities to populations with limited access to public provision.

2.2 Strategy and legal framework

Libya's education sector has been severely affected by years of conflict and instability, leading to systemic challenges that have reduced the quality and accessibility of education for millions of students. Since 2011, schools and universities across the country have sustained extensive physical damage; many facilities were partially or entirely destroyed, while others were repurposed for military use. This has left numerous communities, particularly in conflict-affected areas, with limited or no access to functioning educational institutions. According to UNICEF, at least 160 000 children and 5 600 teachers urgently require support to access quality education amid the ongoing crisis. Infrastructure damage has disrupted the education of thousands, contributing to widespread dissatisfaction with the education system (UNICEF, 2023a). In 2025, Libya launched its 10-year higher education and research strategy (2025–2035) to reform universities and research centres, aligning with SDG 4 (Quality Education). The strategy prioritises stronger international cooperation and knowledge exchange, increased use of international funding and partnerships, engagement of Libyan experts abroad, greater integration of technology in education, and the diversification of funding sources, including expanded private-sector investment (Libya Observer, 2025a).

General education

As of 2025, Libya's education sector is guided by a mix of short-term reform initiatives and a longer-term transformation strategy. The Ministry of Education has committed to modernising curricula by integrating environmental education, entrepreneurship, digital literacy and 21st-century skills, while also rolling out school meals programmes in partnership with the World Food Programme to improve retention and equity (WFP, 2023). UNICEF's Learning Passport was adopted as the digital learning platform for students in Libya, the Education Management Information System (EMIS) was launched and the OpenEMIS system was piloted in 200 schools, with data entry completed by 69 schools (UNICEF, 2024). Teacher policies are being revised through continuous professional development schemes that emphasise active learning and technology use. At a systemic level, the National Libyan Public Education Reform (2020–2026) sets out a staged approach to overhaul school organisation and curricula, aiming to launch a 'new generation' school system by 2026, starting with pre-kindergarten cohorts (Academia.edu, 2020–2026). Remedial classes were put in place to help bridge educational gaps reaching almost 20 000 children (UNICEF, 2023). Inclusive education has also gained traction: regulations now facilitate the integration of children with special needs, with adapted exams and support structures in schools (UNESCO, 2022; UNHCR, 2025). Measures include training 40 master trainers and 179 teachers on inclusive education and installing 40 Montessori rooms in public schools for children with disabilities (UNICEF, 2023). However, the absence of a national education sector plan and a fully functional EMIS continues to undermine coherence and data-driven policy, while conflict-related governance fragility and infrastructure gaps constrain reform delivery.

Vocational education

Libya's vocational education and training (VET) system remains in transition as national authorities pursue reforms aimed at improving governance, quality and labour market relevance. The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education (MoTVE) oversees the formal TVET system, which includes intermediate, higher and technical institutes, while the Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation (MoLR) is responsible for continuing and work-based training. This dual structure has historically led to fragmentation and inconsistent policy implementation. Since 2024, the government has taken steps to clarify responsibilities and establish mechanisms for better coordination, including the creation of a National TVET Coordination Committee and a TVET Skills Council tasked with aligning curricula, occupational standards and certification procedures.

The adoption of Law No. 21 of 2023 provided the first comprehensive framework for restructuring TVET in Libya. The law defines a national system of vocational qualifications, introduces pathways from basic to advanced technical education and formally recognises private training providers under MoTVE supervision. In 2025, implementing regulations for this law have begun to take shape, including the development of new sectoral standards and a draft roadmap for the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). These reforms are supported by international partners through technical assistance.

The new governance model aims to link training provision with national development priorities such as construction, renewable energy and digital industries, while also promoting inclusivity for women and persons with disabilities. However, implementation capacity remains limited. Coordination between the MoTVE and MoLR is still weak, and financial allocations for TVET remain insufficient to support large-scale infrastructure upgrades or teacher training. The persistence of political fragmentation and weak data systems continues to constrain the consolidation of a coherent national TVET policy. Sustained institutional strengthening and stable funding will be critical to ensure that ongoing reforms translate into tangible improvements in training quality, employability and labour market outcomes.

2.3 Main actors and governance

National level

Responsibility for education and training in Libya is shared among several ministries and agencies, reflecting the country's fragmented governance landscape. The Ministry of Education (MoE) oversees general education, including primary and secondary schooling, as well as teacher training and curriculum development. It also manages education planning and coordination with local authorities and development partners. The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MoHESR) is responsible for universities, research institutions and higher-level qualifications, and in 2025 is leading the implementation of the Higher Education and Research Strategy 2025–2035, which seeks to modernise governance, strengthen institutional autonomy and promote international collaboration.

The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education (MoTVE) governs public technical and vocational institutions across the country, including 18 technical colleges, 111 higher technical institutes and 382 intermediate vocational institutes. It also manages teacher recruitment and the development of training standards. The Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation (MoLR) retains authority over continuing training, adult learning and employment-related upskilling, including labour market information systems and certification of occupational competencies. Coordination between these ministries remains limited but is gradually improving through the National TVET Coordination Committee established in 2024, which serves as a platform for policy alignment and data exchange.

Other key actors include the National Board of Technical and Vocational Education (NBTVE), which supports programme design and institutional standards, and the Occupational Standards and Certification Centre (OSCC), intended to oversee qualification recognition and testing, although it remains only partly functional. Quality assurance and accreditation functions are being reorganised under the Quality Assurance and Vocational Education and Training Providers Approval Centre (QAVETPAC), which is set to be restructured as an independent oversight body. Regional education offices operate under the supervision of national ministries but have limited decision-making authority. Overall, while institutional mandates are becoming clearer, governance remains centralised, with most policy direction, budgeting and reform initiatives driven from the national level in Tripoli.

International level: donors

International partners continue to play a crucial role in supporting Libya's education and training system, particularly in areas related to vocational education, teacher development and institutional capacity building. The European Union remains the largest education donor through the EU4Skills programme, implemented by Expertise France. The initiative focuses on aligning TVET with labour market needs, promoting digital and green skills and supporting small and medium enterprises

through training and employability measures. Following the 2023 Derna floods, EU4Skills also integrated disaster recovery and resilience components into its training portfolio.

The United Nations system is actively engaged through several agencies. UNICEF supports the Ministry of Education in teacher training, inclusive education and digital learning through the Learning Passport platform, while also providing infrastructure rehabilitation and psychosocial support to children affected by conflict and natural disasters. UNDP works on employment-oriented training and institutional strengthening under its Country Programme 2023–2025, focusing on youth employability and women’s economic participation. UNESCO continues to provide technical support for curriculum reform and TVET policy development, including early steps towards the establishment of a National Qualifications Framework.

Bilateral cooperation complements these multilateral efforts. The Libyan-German Centre for Training and Professional Development, created in partnership with GIZ, supports the upgrading of training facilities and trainer qualifications. Similar collaboration with Türkiye and South Korea provides sector-specific vocational training in engineering, information technology and renewable energy. Other partners such as IOM contribute through targeted skills programmes and labour mobility initiatives that link training with reintegration and employment opportunities. Collectively, these interventions aim to strengthen institutional capacity, promote inclusiveness and ensure that Libya’s education and training system contributes to recovery and long-term resilience.

2.4 Policies and developments

Overview

Libya’s education and training sector remains in a phase of cautious reform amid persistent political and economic instability. Since 2024, the authorities have launched a series of initiatives aimed at rebuilding institutional capacity, modernising curricula and aligning education and training with national recovery and labour market priorities. The Higher Education and Research Strategy 2025–2035 marks a significant policy milestone, setting a long-term vision to strengthen governance, improve research capacity and foster international partnerships. In parallel, the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system is being restructured under Law No. 21 of 2023, which provides the foundation for a unified framework covering governance, qualifications and quality assurance.

Reform efforts have also expanded beyond institutional structures to address cross-cutting priorities such as digitalisation, inclusion and sustainability. The EU4Skills programme, implemented by Expertise France with EU funding, continues to act as the principal vehicle for supporting education and skills development, particularly through digital, green and resilience-oriented training. National ministries have begun to adopt more strategic approaches to coordination, notably through the National TVET Coordination Committee and the emerging TVET Skills Council, both of which aim to bridge the gap between education providers and employers.

Despite these positive developments, implementation remains uneven and dependent on external support. Structural challenges such as weak coordination among ministries, limited financial resources and outdated infrastructure persist. Progress in quality assurance, qualification recognition and work-based learning is still gradual, but the overall direction of reform reflects a growing awareness of the need to link education and training more closely with Libya’s economic diversification, youth employment and post-crisis recovery objectives.

Qualifications, validation and recognition

Qualifications, validation and recognition within Libya’s education and training sectors continue to face major challenges in 2025. The Ministry of Labour’s Occupational Standards and Certification Centre (OSCC) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), initially designed to ensure quality and relevance in TVET, remain only partially operational due to persistent institutional fragmentation and resource constraints (IOM, 2024). While recent ministerial efforts have sought to revitalise these bodies, progress has been uneven and limited to preparatory consultations and technical working

groups. In early 2025, the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education (MoTVE) established a National TVET Coordination Committee and a TVET Skills Council to advance the development of occupational standards and quality assurance mechanisms across sectors. These initiatives are intended to lay the groundwork for an updated national qualifications framework aligned with labour market requirements and international standards.

Parallel reforms are being driven under the new Higher Education and Research Strategy 2025–2035, launched by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, which emphasises competency-based learning, stronger university-industry partnerships and a progressive move towards internationally recognised degree structures. However, the lack of standardised processes for assessing and validating qualifications continues to undermine the credibility of many TVET programmes and the employability of graduates. The absence of a fully functional NQF also hampers the comparability of qualifications across institutions and regions, perpetuating a disconnect between the skills acquired through training and those demanded by employers.

Work-based learning

Efforts to expand work-based learning in Libya are gaining attention as part of broader attempts to improve school-to-work transitions and reduce skills mismatches. The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education encourages technical institutes to strengthen practical components in fields such as construction, mechanics and renewable energy. Pilot initiatives supported by the EU4Skills programme and bilateral cooperation with Germany and Türkiye are testing dual training models that combine classroom learning with structured workplace experience, with a focus on employability for young graduates and women in selected municipalities.

Institutional support is developing but remains limited. The TVET Skills Council advises on occupational standards and engages private employers to identify apprenticeship and internship opportunities, while small-scale partnerships with chambers of commerce and local enterprises support placements in manufacturing, ICT and services. Most vocational programmes remain school based, and the absence of a comprehensive regulatory framework for apprenticeships continues to limit employer participation, prompting the preparation of draft guidelines on dual education by the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education.

Career guidance

Career guidance services in Libya remain limited in scope and unevenly developed. The Ministry of Education provides basic counselling in secondary schools, mainly oriented towards academic progression rather than labour market outcomes. The Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation offers information on job vacancies and vocational training programmes through its employment offices, but services vary significantly by region and often lack specialised career guidance staff.

Several targeted initiatives have strengthened career guidance links with employment. The EU4Skills project and the UNDP Youth Empowerment Programme have introduced counsellor training, digital tools to map labour market opportunities and awareness activities on entrepreneurship and technical careers. Pilot one-stop guidance centres in Tripoli and Misrata now provide personalised counselling, skills assessment and referrals to training or internship opportunities. Despite these advances, Libya still lacks a national lifelong guidance framework, and institutional fragmentation and limited labour market data continue to constrain impact.

Quality assurance

Quality assurance in Libya's education and training system remains at an early stage of development, with reforms mainly concentrated in technical and vocational education and training. The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education continues efforts to strengthen accreditation and monitoring of public and private training providers, building on existing institutional arrangements. Within this landscape, the Quality Assurance and Vocational Education and Training Providers Approval Centre

(QAVETPAC) exists as a designated body responsible for provider approval and quality oversight in TVET, although its mandate, autonomy and operational capacity remain limited and unevenly applied.

Overall, implementation continues to face structural constraints. Quality assurance practices rely largely on project-based technical assistance and pilot tools supported by international partners, while systematic data collection on learning outcomes and institutional performance remains weak. Coordination between ministries responsible for education, vocational training and labour remains incomplete, and external evaluation mechanisms are not yet fully institutionalised. Strengthening governance, staff capacity and regular quality monitoring therefore remains a key priority for improving the credibility and effectiveness of Libya's education and training system.

Centres of excellence

The promotion of high-performing vocational education institutions is emerging gradually within Libya's TVET reform agenda. The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education is working to strengthen selected technical colleges and higher institutes so they can act as hubs for advanced training, curriculum development and closer cooperation with industry, particularly in sectors such as construction, energy, maritime services and information technology. These efforts focus on piloting improved teaching methods and work-based learning rather than creating a fully formalised national excellence scheme.

A limited number of specialised centres illustrate this approach. The Libyan-German Centre for Training and Professional Development provides advanced technical training aligned with dual training principles, while the Libyan Turkish Centre for the Development of Technical and Vocational Education, established in 2024, supports training in manufacturing and engineering fields. In 2025, preparatory work supported by international partners, including EU-funded programmes, has focused on upgrading selected institutions and strengthening quality and industry linkages, although expansion remains constrained by funding, trainer capacity and governance challenges.

Digital education and skills

Digitalisation is one of the most active reform areas in Libya's education and training system. In 2025, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education are expanding digital learning platforms and embedding digital skills into curricula, notably through the EU4Skills initiative, which supports competency-based digital training modules and digital literacy standards. Pilot programmes in selected technical colleges now include coding, computer maintenance and digital entrepreneurship as part of formal training offers. In parallel, the Government has drafted the National Strategy for Artificial Intelligence (2025–2030), which promotes digital transformation through strengthened governance, expanded infrastructure, support to innovation ecosystems and investment in digital skills and human capital.

At the delivery level, the Mahara Skills School project, implemented by Libyan Spider with EU and UNDP support, continues to train youth in full-stack web development, mobile applications and digital marketing, with new cohorts in Sabha and Benghazi. UNICEF's Learning Passport complements these efforts by providing online learning access for displaced and out-of-school children. Despite these initiatives, limited connectivity, outdated equipment and skills gaps among teachers remain key constraints to a National Digital Skills Strategy.

Green transition

In 2025, Libya's approach to supporting the green transition through education and training involves adapting existing training systems and donor-backed skills initiatives to include sustainability-related competencies. International support programmes, such as the EU4Skills initiative, are working with Libyan institutions to align technical and vocational education with labour-market needs and to strengthen skills in the green and blue economy, including environmental awareness and climate change adaptation topics in curricula and training design (European Commission, 2023).

Recently, a Green Economy Department was launched at the Libyan-Korean Centre (LKC), backed by UNDP, which offers vocational training geared towards renewable energy, sustainable agriculture and other green sectors and includes instructor training and programme development for emerging green job pathways (UNDP, 2025). This initiative exemplifies integrating practical green skills into TVET provision, expanding qualifications aligned with the low-carbon transition and increasing awareness of sustainable practices among learners and educators.

Adult learning

Policies supporting lifelong learning, upskilling and reskilling for adults in Libya continue to rely on established adult education and labour-market instruments rather than new standalone strategies. Adult learning provision remains embedded within the mandates of the Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation and the technical and vocational education system, which offer short courses and vocational training for jobseekers and workers looking to update their skills. These programmes prioritise employability, practical trades and basic digital competencies, and are delivered through public training centres with flexible formats adapted to adult learners. No new national lifelong learning strategy has been formally adopted as of 2025; available public information indicates continuity rather than structural reform. Implementation is largely reinforced through internationally supported initiatives that expand access to upskilling and reskilling opportunities.

2.5 Education and training for reconstruction and recovery

Education and training are central to Libya's recovery from conflict and crisis, given the extensive damage to institutions, infrastructure and human capital. In several regions, including the south and Derna after the 2023 floods, schools and training centres remain damaged or inaccessible, while disrupted schooling and teacher shortages continue to undermine learning outcomes. Restoring education services and rehabilitating infrastructure are therefore seen as foundational to economic recovery, social stability and the reintegration of displaced populations and returning workers.

Skills development and system reform underpin longer-term resilience. Short-cycle vocational training in reconstruction-related sectors, such as construction, energy, logistics and water management, targets unemployed youth, women and internally displaced persons, aligning training provision with labour market needs. At the same time, reforms in formal education and vocational training aim to strengthen lifelong learning, improve quality and relevance and better link education with employment and social cohesion, positioning education and training as key drivers of sustainable recovery.

3. LABOUR MARKET AND EMPLOYMENT: POLICIES AND DEVELOPMENTS

3.1 Strategy and legal framework

Libya's labour regulations, primarily outlined in Law No 12 of 2010 Concerning Labour Relations, provide a framework for employment practices while highlighting areas in need of further review and refinement. Key provisions include incentives for hiring nationals, wage and benefits regulations and unemployment protections. However, enforcement gaps remain: reports indicate that some private employers bypass formal contracts to circumvent mandatory social security contributions. Although the labour code mandates formal employment contracts and in-house training for nationals, the specifics regarding social contributions and training obligations are often vague. Working hours are capped at 48 per week, with additional restrictions and non-wage benefits for female workers, such as maternity leave, intended to support female workforce participation. However, certain regulations limiting female employment by sector and working hours, alongside unclear rules for setting minimum wages, show the need for a more robust policy framework (Security Legislation Libya, 2010).

Additionally, the labour code provides generous leave entitlements, including hajj and family leave, which may impose financial strains on employers, particularly within the private sector. Dismissal procedures are highly regulated, requiring employer justification, public authority review, advance notice and severance pay, which can introduce rigidity into labour market dynamics. A thorough review of these regulations is essential to align labour policy with Libya's objectives of increasing private-sector employment and job creation (Security Legislation Libya, 2010).

In 2023, the GNU MoLR reported completing a draft National Employment Strategy (Libya Observer, 2023); however, no recent evidence confirms that it has been formally adopted or implemented, and publicly available information on the detailed content of the strategy remains limited. At the same time, the eastern authorities announced a five-year strategic plan for labour in 2024, addressing 15 integrated files such as resolving overlaps between the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Civil Service, refining training initiatives and organising labour market functions (Libya Review, 2024). Although the plan was finalised in July 2024, there is no further available information on its implementation.

3.2 Main actors and governance

National level

There are currently two functioning ministries in Libya, both with priorities and an interest in tackling stalling labour market issues: the Government of National Unity (GNU) and the Government of National Stability (GNS) ministries of labour and rehabilitation (MoLRs). This duplication has historically resulted in inefficiencies and blurred lines of accountability in labour management, as mentioned above. Both have aimed to formulate policies in order to tackle the overwhelming number of unemployed individuals, putting additional pressure on the public market.

International level: donors

International partners play an important role in supporting Libya's labour market and skills development, through a range of programmes aimed at employment creation, institutional strengthening and economic recovery.

The European Union is a key partner in Libya, supporting labour market development and skills systems through targeted programmes and sector-focused initiatives. The EU4Skills⁴ initiative aims to

⁴ [EU4Skills – Promoting Skills and Employability for Private Sector Development](#)

better align the skills of Libya's workforce with labour market needs by promoting technical skills for private sector growth and strengthening public institutions. The programme focuses on the blue/green economy, digitalisation and the financial sector. Following floods in Derna, it will also prioritise disaster recovery skills and community resilience. Additionally, the initiative will integrate disaster risk reduction, climate change adaptation and sustainable development into its framework.

The UN also supports the Libyan labour market through the work of different agencies and programmes. The UNDP Country Programme for Libya (2023-2025)⁵⁶ focuses on sustainable growth, job creation and peacebuilding initiatives. Its employment and training projects aim to create job opportunities and enhance vocational training infrastructure, particularly for women, youth and marginalised groups.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) supports Libya through capacity-building initiatives targeting employer organisations and labour market institutions, including training programmes to strengthen employer representation in both regional and national contexts. In parallel, the ILO implements EU-funded regional programmes such as METI and youth NEET initiatives, aimed at promoting employment-centred trade and investment policies and improving youth employment outcomes.

IOM Libya's Labour Mobility and Social Inclusion (LMI)⁷ programme included vocational training and job placement services, particularly through the Youth Employment One Stop Shop (YESS) centres, thus supporting hundreds of Libyan and non-Libyan youths in enhancing their employment prospects and fostering social cohesion. A pivotal roundtable on Labour Migration Governance was organised in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour, bringing together 50 participants, including diplomatic representations from various countries and relevant Libyan line ministries.

3.3 Policies and developments

Overview

Libya's labour market faces structural challenges driven by ongoing political instability, a heavy reliance on the public sector and limited economic diversification. An earlier ETF analysis (2014) highlights the dominance of the public sector, with the government estimated to employ up to 70% of salaried Libyans, while the private sector accounted for only about 4% of employment and depending largely on foreign workers. This reliance remains significant, as foreign nationals represented around 12.2% of the total population in 2024 and continue to be concentrated in private and informal activities, where barriers to formal employment remain high. Informality is widespread, estimated at 40–60% of total employment. This context underscores the limited capacity of the economy to absorb jobseekers and integrated them into stable formal employment and explains the continued policy focus on regulating public employment, addressing inefficiencies such as job duplication, and gradually encouraging transitions towards private sector opportunities. This situation is further complicated by severe data limitations, with analysis relying on dated and fragmented information as well as qualitative assessments.

The GNU announced a series of measures in 2023 to address unemployment and enhance economic equity. Enacted under Laws No 18 and No 34, these reforms aim to address economic challenges reflected in household spending trends. Law No 18 standardises salaries within a range of LYD 1 000 to LYD 4 320, with sector-specific bonuses of up to 50% in key fields (Law Society of Libya, 2023b). Additionally, Law No 34 amended this framework to increase salaries for academic staff, with performance allowances reaching 200% for senior professors (ILO, 2023). These measures seek to strengthen economic security for public sector employees, particularly in high-impact areas such as education and healthcare, which form the foundation of public services in the country.

⁵ [UNDP Libya 2023 Annual Report | United Nations Development Programme.](#)

⁶ [Libya | United Nations Development Programme.](#)

⁷ [https://libya.un.org/en/275957-iom-libya-annual-report-2023.](https://libya.un.org/en/275957-iom-libya-annual-report-2023)

A common issue in Libya is the overlap of job positions between the MoLR and other ministries, particularly the Ministry of Civil Service, due to overlooked duplication. To address this, the GNU MoLR introduced Resolution No 38 of 2024, establishing a dedicated General Department within the Ministry of Civil Service to manage surplus employees. This department is responsible for creating a unified database of job data, coordinating redeployment efforts and implementing early retirement programmes. It also encourages the involvement of displaced public employees in small and medium enterprise (SME) initiatives, facilitating their transition into the private sector (Law Society of Libya, 2024d).

Job duplication has been a central focus of reform efforts, with a new strategy aimed at providing jobs for youth. In December 2023, the GNU MoLR Minister announced the implementation of a 'unified standard' to address dual employment within the public sector, which reached 45 124 cases in 2023. Ministry inspection campaigns resulted in 19 124 suspensions and 22 675 cases referred for settlement. To strengthen oversight, the Ministry also activated an electronic monitoring system to track public sector spending and ensure compliance with employment regulations on a monthly basis (Libya Observer, 2024f; Libya Observer, 2024h).

Circular No 3 of 2024 of the Prime Minister of the GNU provides more straightforward guidelines for stabilising employment conditions within the public sector (Law Society of Libya, 2024a). This circular emphasises clear eligibility criteria for promotions, particularly for employees covered by Cabinet Resolution No 888 of 2023 (focused on issuing provisions regarding the executive regulations of Law No 12 of 2010). It ensures that professional experience is properly recognised and standardises promotion timelines, streamlining processes for greater administrative efficiency (Law Society of Libya, 2023). The aim is to benefit public sector employees by guaranteeing fairness and transparency in their career advancement.

The GNU also made efforts to stabilise the labour market for vulnerable groups in the past period. Not to overlook other layers in the community, the GNU MoLR issued Resolution No 38 in 2022, which established the High Commission for the Care of People with Special Needs. This commission provides a range of services, including education, rehabilitation and social support. Through this initiative, individuals with disabilities gain access to essential resources, improving their integration into the labour market (Law Society of Libya, 2022). Nothing reported in the years after was relevant to this resolution.

The GNU's labour policy reforms also focused on the private sector, aiming to streamline company establishment for individuals. Resolution No 148 of 2024, issued by the MoLR, outlines detailed conditions for establishing labour services companies. This aims to support key labour market participants, including unemployed individuals from troubled or dissolved companies, housewives seeking to provide domestic services and jobseekers registered with the Ministry. Notably, this resolution prioritises Libyan ownership and management, with stringent requirements for contributors, such as Libyan nationality and relevant professional qualifications (Law Society of Libya, 2024e). The resolution aims to encourage young professionals to start up their own businesses, although funding support mechanisms are unclear.

To address the informal labour market, the GNU MoLR launched an electronic platform in 2023 to register foreign workers. This platform aims to regulate their presence and employment by creating a centralised system for registration and oversight (Fawasel Media, 2024). Additionally, the GNU MoLR launched a 'labour housing' initiative to further regulate foreign workers by creating a system to register foreigners with official entrance visas and medical examinations. One incentive is to provide housing to those who seek official routes to enter the country (Libya Observer, 2024g). However, the plan appears ambitious, as foreign workers fill critical gaps in the private labour market while often remaining unregulated. Many prefer to remain unregulated to facilitate immigration. As of the writing of this report, the informality of foreign labour, lack of capacity among national staff and weak labour protections in Libya all contribute to the current critical status quo.

3.4 Active labour market programmes (ALMPs)

Tackling unemployment has been a key target for the GNU MoLR in the past few years, with a focus on providing opportunities for young jobseekers and capacity building. In 2024, the GNU MoLR initiated a campaign called Kafeel to address duplication and provide jobs for 200 000 young jobseekers nationwide (Fawasel Media, 2024). Additionally, in October 2024, the Ministry launched the Open Employment Day Initiative with the University of Tripoli to integrate jobseekers into the private sector and provide practical training, addressing immediate labour market gaps (AI-Wasat News, 2024c). In June 2024, the GNU formalised an agreement with Tunisia to expedite a memorandum of understanding on workforce organisation and labour rights (AI-Wasat News, 2024b). Earlier in 2023, the GNU MoLR also launched specialised training courses for jobseekers in remote cities like Murzuq, supporting reconstruction and labour market organisation in the underdeveloped southern region. The Ministry reported training of 6 700 individuals, including 193 people with disabilities, across 9 public and 56 private training institutions in 2023. Inspection visits to these facilities ensure adherence to quality standards (Libya Observer, 2024e). Most of these initiatives aim to attract more young generations to enrol formally in both the public and private sectors in the country.

3.5 Labour market disruption and pathways to recovery

Years of conflict and political uncertainty have weakened Libya's economy and labour market, resulting in high unemployment and inactivity. In 2022, the unemployment rate reached 15.3%, with young people among the most affected. Rapid population growth, combined with shortcomings in education and training systems, has limited the supply of skills aligned with labour market needs, reinforcing structural unemployment.

Political instability and state dominance have constrained private sector development. Weak rule of law, regulatory uncertainty, poor infrastructure and limited foreign investment have reduced competitiveness and innovation, leaving the private sector unable to generate sufficient quality jobs. At the same time, excessive public sector employment has lowered productivity and raised wage expectations, while declining public hiring is forcing workers to seek opportunities in a private sector that remains fragile and unable to absorb them.

As a result, informal employment accounts for an estimated 40-60% of total employment, involving around 1.6 million people, mainly in agriculture, construction and retail. Addressing these challenges requires closer alignment between education, training and labour market needs, stronger cooperation with private employers and greater emphasis on upskilling and reskilling. Alongside improvements in governance, infrastructure and the business environment, these measures are essential to support diversification, job creation and long-term economic resilience.

4. KEY INDICATORS: EDUCATION, SKILLS, EMPLOYMENT

4.1 Headline indicators

Education and VET

Monitoring a complex education and training system typically starts with three straightforward questions: who takes part, what do they achieve and what supports the process?

The first question explores the extent to which learners engage in education or training. It is addressed by indicators grouped under Participation and access in Table 4.1: net enrolment rates at lower and upper secondary levels, the share of students in upper-secondary VET and the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education and adult participation rates in lifelong learning. The second question – what learners achieve – examines key education outcomes, such as learner progression and the skills or qualifications they obtain. These are reflected in the indicators under Attainment, completion and outcomes: the share of adults with tertiary qualifications, the rate of early leavers from education and training and the percentage of 15-year-olds underachieving in mathematics. The third question considers the financial, physical and informational resources that sustain the education process, reflected by the indicators under Resources and data: public expenditure on education as a share of GDP, the adequacy of infrastructure and the availability of internationally comparable data.

Table 4.1 Headline indicators: education and VET (Libya, EU average) (2022-2024)

Participation and access	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Total net enrolment rate (lower secondary)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	98.1	UIS UNESCO
Total net enrolment rate (upper secondary)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	93.6	UIS UNESCO
Students in VET as a % of total upper secondary students	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	48.8	UIS UNESCO
Gross enrolment ratio (tertiary)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	79.7	UIS UNESCO
Participation in training/lifelong learning in the previous 4 weeks (% aged 25-64)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	13.3	LFS
Attainment, completion and outcomes	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Educational attainment of total population: % with ISCED 5-8	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	30.2	LFS
Early leavers from education and training (% aged 18-24)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	9.3	LFS
Underachievers in maths (% aged 15)	M.D.	N.A.	N.A.	31.1	PISA OECD
Resources and data	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	4.7	UIS UNESCO
Inadequate or poor-quality physical infrastructure (2)	M.D.	N.A.	N.A.	27.9	PISA OECD
Availability of internationally comparable data on education	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	N.A.	TRP (3)

Notes: 1. EU average, latest available year. PISA data: OECD average. 2. Percentage of students in schools whose headteacher reported that the school's capacity to provide instruction is hindered at least to some extent by inadequate or poor-quality physical infrastructure. 3. ETF Torino Process (TRP)., M.D. refers to missing data
Source: ETF KIESE database.

Monitoring within the ETF framework is primarily grounded in a standardised set of indicators, as presented in Table 4.1, which serves as the core reference point for assessing developments in education and training systems across partner countries. In the case of Libya, however, Table 4.1 reveals that the headline education indicators on which ETF monitoring typically relies are entirely absent. This lack of nationally reported data significantly constrains the application of the standard monitoring approach, as in other partner countries. Nevertheless, alternative sources offer partial

insights. Data and assessments from organisations such as UNESCO, World Bank and various humanitarian monitoring reports provide fragmented but valuable evidence. While not fully aligned with the ETF indicator framework, these third-party sources allow for an approximate understanding of key dimensions such as participation, quality and resource allocation in Libya's education system, thereby helping to mitigate, though not fully overcome, the existing data gaps.

With gross secondary enrolment at 93% in 2006 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics [UIS], 2006), enrolment in basic and secondary education was near universal before the onset of conflict and instability post-2011. Drop-out rates at that time were minimal as well. In 2009 for example, only 2.3% of students left upper secondary education (UK Department for International Development [DFID] & UNICEF, 2018). Since 2011, however, participation has declined sharply. Humanitarian assessments from 2015 reported that enrolment had fallen by about 20% nationwide, and that rates have dropped to around 50% in areas directly affected by conflict such as Benghazi (DFID & UNICEF, 2018).

Vocational education, once a strong component of upper secondary education in Libya, has also suffered. Before the conflict, about 22% of upper secondary students were enrolled in VET programmes, one of the highest rates in the Arab region (UIS, 2012). More recent accounts suggest that vocational schools have faced declining numbers and significant war damage (Al-Fanar Media, 2016). In higher education, participation had expanded rapidly prior to 2011: gross tertiary enrolment stood at about 56% in 2003, one of the highest rates in the region (UNESCO, 2006; World Bank, 2009). Current levels of participation are unclear, but the prolonged disruption of academic life and the destruction of facilities indicate a decline compared to the pre-war period.

In 2014, there were 381 intermediate vocational centres (upper secondary education from which graduates can continue to technical institutes and colleges with grades of 85% and over), 91 higher technical institutes and 16 technical colleges (from which graduates are not allowed to continue to higher education). There were approximately 400 000 students studying in Libyan universities, while there were only around 150 000 students in the TVET system (ETF, 2014).

Evidence on learning outcomes is even more limited. Libya has not participated in international assessments such as PISA or TIMSS, and no nationally representative achievement data are available. Nevertheless, there is evidence that raises serious concerns regarding quality. The Global Competitiveness Report of 2010 ranked Libya 138th out of 139 countries for the quality of secondary education. In that same year, just 68% of students passed the upper-secondary leaving exam (World Economic Forum, 2010; DFID & UNICEF, 2018). These figures imply that the share of underachievers in key academic subjects such as mathematics would be high by international standards. At the same time, adult participation in lifelong learning is virtually absent: regional reports show participation rates of 5% or less in most Arab countries, and Libya is unlikely to be an exception (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2019).

Resources for education are an area of concern as well. There is no recent data on education spending (the latest figure available dates back to 1999). The physical infrastructure of education was severely affected, since between 2011 and 2013 nearly 2 000 schools were destroyed or damaged. In 2017, at least 489 schools were still unusable, and this affected nearly a quarter of a million children (DFID & UNICEF, 2018). Beyond material losses, the lack of internationally comparable data is itself a structural weakness. Libya has not reported education indicators to UNESCO since 2013, and international agencies repeatedly highlight critical gaps in basic statistics such as enrolment, completion and attainment (DFID & UNICEF, 2018).

Employment and demand for skills

The set of labour-market indicators is organised into two complementary groups. The first group, Employment and labour-market outcomes (Table 4.2), addresses how effectively the labour market absorbs people. It consists of the overall employment rate (aged 15+), youth employment rate (aged 15–24), employment rate of recent graduates (aged 20–34, ISCED 3–8), unemployment rate of the overall population (aged 15+), youth unemployment rate (aged 15–24) and the NEET rate (aged 15–29). The second group, Demand for skills (Table 4.2), looks at the types of jobs and skills that the

economy generates. It consists of employment by broad economic sector (agriculture, industry, services), the incidence of vulnerable employment and educational mismatch.

Table 4.2 Headline indicators: employment (Libya, EU average) (2022-2024)

Employment and labour market outcomes	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Employment rate (% aged 15+ or similar age group)	45.2	M.D.	M.D.	54.7	LFS
Employment rate (% aged 15-24 or similar age group)	6.4	M.D.	M.D.	35.0	LFS
Employment rate of recent graduates aged 20–34 (ISCED 3–8)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	82.4	LFS
Unemployment rate (% aged 15+ or similar age group)	15.3	M.D.	M.D.	5.9	LFS
Unemployment rate (% aged 15-24 or similar age group)	23.1	M.D.	M.D.	14.9	LFS
NEET rate (% aged 15-29 or similar age group)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	11.0	LFS
Demand for Skills	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): agriculture	0.1	M.D.	M.D.	3.3	LFS
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): industry	6.0	M.D.	M.D.	24.1	LFS
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): service	98.0	M.D.	M.D.	72.1	LFS
Incidence of vulnerable employment (%)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	10.0	LFS
Employment by 'educational mismatch': % matched	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	ILOSTAT

Notes: 1. Data refer to 2019, M.D. refers to missing data.

Source: ETF KIESE database

The data shown in Table 4.2 suggest that in Libya in 2022, the rate of employment was low compared to international standards (45.2%), and that the rate of unemployment was high (15.3%). The employment outcomes of youth are especially weak: employment among those aged 15–24 was only 6.4% in 2022. While the youth unemployment rate was high at 23.1%, it is important to note the very limited participation of young people in the labour force. Fewer than one in ten were economically active, which means that more than 90% of youth were neither working nor looking for work.

The structure of employment by sector appears out of balance as well. In 2022, almost all recorded employment was in services (close to 98%), while industry accounted for only 6% and agriculture for a negligible 0.1%. The near absence of employment in productive sectors such as agriculture and manufacturing reflects the capital-intensive nature of hydrocarbons which, as already noted in Chapter 1, dominate the economy of Libya but create very few jobs. As a result, the capacity of the labour market to absorb new entrants remains limited.

Table 4.2 also shows that there are significant gaps in the availability of information on employment. There is no headline data on recent graduates, NEETs, the prevalence of vulnerable employment or educational mismatch, and time series are broken for 2023 and 2024.

4.2 System performance indicators

As noted in the introduction to this paper, 'performance' in the context of ETF monitoring describes the extent to which VET systems deliver on their commitments to learners and stakeholders in support of lifelong learning. These commitments typically cover three key areas: ensuring broad and equitable access to opportunities for education and training; delivering high-quality and relevant education; and maintaining effective and efficient organisation and management of the education system, including adequate resourcing.

To measure performance systematically, the ETF uses System Performance Indices (SPIs), which summarise the extent to which education and training systems fulfil each of their commitments. Each SPI is presented on a scale from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating stronger performance.

Both the headline indicators in Section 4.1 and the SPIs presented in this section are guided by the same core questions: Who takes part? What do they achieve? How do education and training systems support them? The main difference between these two sets of data lies in how these questions are answered. Headline indicators answer the questions with single, stand-alone measures drawn directly from international data sources. The SPIs, on the other hand, are evaluative, composite measures. They are designed explicitly to assess how well VET systems fulfil broader policy commitments that cannot be adequately captured through individual statistics.

Access and participation

This section presents system performance in VET and adult learning against two specific policy outcomes: support for equitable access and participation for young people and adults, and support for young people in initial VET (IVET) to successfully complete their programmes.

The scope of SPIs tracking access differs according to the target group of learners. For youth, the SPI assesses access specifically to IVET, while for adults it captures access to continuing VET (CVET) and other adult learning opportunities, such as those provided through active labour market policies (ALMPs). A separate SPI measures how effectively young learners in IVET are supported in progressing through their programmes and achieving graduation.

In both cases, performance depends on the policies and measures the country is implementing. They provide the opportunities, incentives and guidance needed to encourage participation and successful completion. The SPI results therefore reflect how effectively these policies deliver on their intended objectives.

Access by age and gender

The IVET system in Libya is fragmented, which hampers access despite the presence of a supportive legal framework. As in most of the SEMED region, policy and system performance in support of access to IVET programmes is relatively low for both genders (SPI of 25, Figure 4.1), but there is also a set of more specific challenges that make the situation in Libya particularly difficult.

According to the Torino Process monitoring survey, the adoption of Law No. 21 of 2023 has created unified, harmonised entry points from basic training to higher technical studies, public provision free of charge for Libyan citizens and provisions for financial incentives in public VET institutions. The law also authorised private providers, which can operate on a fee basis under MoTVE supervision and enjoy exemptions from taxes and customs duties on supplies.

Institutional capacity for VET provision in Libya is therefore extensive. However, the survey notes that it is also unevenly distributed and divided between two parallel, rival governments. Estimates of the size of the provider network range from 382 to 400 vocational institutes and from 18 to 45 technical colleges. However, this network is concentrated in the north. The Government of National Unity (GNU) has invested in cities such as Misrata, while the Government of National Stability (GNS) has reached out to southern municipalities such as Traghan and Ubari, but coverage in remote areas remains limited and programme quality is weaker. As a result, access for youth is geographically unequal. Learners in the south face far fewer opportunities than those in coastal cities in the north of the country.

Figure 4.1 Access to vocational learning opportunities by country, age and gender of learners – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average (2025)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100⁸.
 Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases

Parallel initiatives by rival authorities complicate the situation even further. The GNU Ministry of Labour opened free courses in 2025 at centres in Tripoli, Tarhuna and Az-Zawiya in fields such as tailoring, computer skills, electrical wiring and CCTV installation. The GNS, through its Creating a Libyan Cadre initiative, has pledged to train 25 000 jobseekers domestically and 1 000 abroad. These courses expand entry points but are usually short-term and aimed at immediate employability, rather than structured progression.

According to the monitoring survey, access to IVET programmes is also limited by the low attractiveness of IVET. Longer-term initiatives are underway that, if implemented, could strengthen the quality and recognition of VET and thereby improve access by increasing its perceived value. One example is Resolution No. 367 of 2025, which introduced mandatory accreditation, supported by an April 2025 agreement with Egypt and discussions with Italy on establishing a high-standard VET centre in Zuwara.

Until such actions gain proper traction, access to IVET in Libya remains heavily dependent on international partners. The monitoring survey highlights initiatives such as the Youth Employment One Stop Shop centres run by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), which trained 642 young people in 2023, including in remote locations such as Al Kufra and Sabha. AMIDEAST’s Skills for Tomorrow programme provides training to 13–15-year-olds in English, leadership and IT, while UNDP’s Maharah programme targets youth aged 18–30 with coding and technical skills. The EU4Skills project has promoted digital and green economy skills and the EU-funded Libya Startup programme has offered incubation and seed funding for youth entrepreneurs. According to the monitoring survey, these initiatives, alongside UNSMIL’s Youth Participate strategy and GIZ’s career counselling and internship programmes, show the extent to which access for young people to IVET is in large part sustained by international organisations rather than by the domestic VET system.

The provision of opportunities for adult learning follows a similar pattern of fragmentation. Responsibility for continuing VET is divided across ministries, and most available programmes are

⁸ The Torino Process makes a distinction between theoretical (full) index range and index range used for reporting purposes. For reporting purposes, rare instances of extreme values on the low end (SPI < 10) and on the high end (SPI > 90) of the index scale are truncated at the upper (10) and lower (90) decile end. This means that the reporting does not discriminate SPI values below 10 and above 90. The international average, on the other hand, is calculated using the full range of the index.

short-cycle and practical. Adults therefore have access to CVET, but in the absence of coordinated pathways, they struggle to progress beyond the isolated acquisition of skills.

Beyond CVET, adults also access learning through active labour market policies (ALMPs). These programmes represent an important entry point but share the same challenges of fragmentation and uneven coverage. According to the monitoring survey, the GNU has launched a financial leasing initiative to support micro and small enterprises and issued Resolution No. 148 of 2024 to ease the establishment of labour service companies by the unemployed, explicitly including housewives seeking to set up domestic service enterprises. The GNS has pursued similar measures, announcing a partnership with the Rural Bank in January 2024 to strengthen entrepreneurship in the south. Other initiatives function as training and job-matching platforms. The GNU's Ministry of Labour organised the Libya Education and Training Expo 2024 and implemented the Mahnataka Mustaqbalak programme in 2022 and 2024, explicitly targeting remote areas. New institutions such as the Libyan-Korean Training Centre, supported by the Ministry of Labour and the Huawei Academy, have launched ICT courses with international input.

While these initiatives broaden access, the monitoring survey points to important limitations. Geographical coverage is uneven, with remote and southern regions particularly difficult to reach. Outreach is primarily conducted through government social media announcements, which signals intent but does not guarantee equitable participation. Comprehensive data on uptake are not available, and long-term outcomes are unknown. Effectiveness depends heavily on the availability of funding, the capacity of ministries to deliver and monitor training and the ability to align programmes with labour market demand. In practice, ALMPs add short-term entry points, especially in entrepreneurship and job matching, but do not provide sustained pathways for adult learners.

International and non-governmental organisations are central to widening access. IOM provides direct job placement through its YESS centres, including in cities such as Al Kufra, Sabha and Benghazi. GIZ is a formal partner of MoTVE, with a mandate to improve employment for vulnerable groups including youth, women and IDPs. The EU-funded Baladiyahati programme, implemented with AICS, rehabilitates local training centres to strengthen provision. Local NGOs also contribute. For example, the Tamkeen initiative in Ajdabiya offered women training in business basics, tailoring and photography. Despite these efforts, ALMPs continue to function as fragmented and uneven measures, offering additional entry points but little in the way of sustained, equitable participation for adults.

The system performance results in support of adult participation in learning are correspondingly limited, more so for women (SPI of 10) than for men (SPI of 25) (Figure 4.1). Indeed, access to adult learning is also shaped by gender. Law No. 21/2023 obliges the system to provide training for women, and the MoTVE established an Office of Women's Support and Empowerment in 2021. The GNS maintains a similar office, which in May 2025 held consultations in Al-Jufra on the training needs of women. However, there are deep-rooted barriers to participation. According to the monitoring survey, women account for 56% of registered jobseekers but only 32.8% of the labour force and just 13% of industrial jobs. The training most readily available to women is concentrated in socially accepted fields such as sewing, computer literacy and healthcare, with public positions in Tarhuna and Az-Zawiya in 2025 explicitly targeting women in these domains.

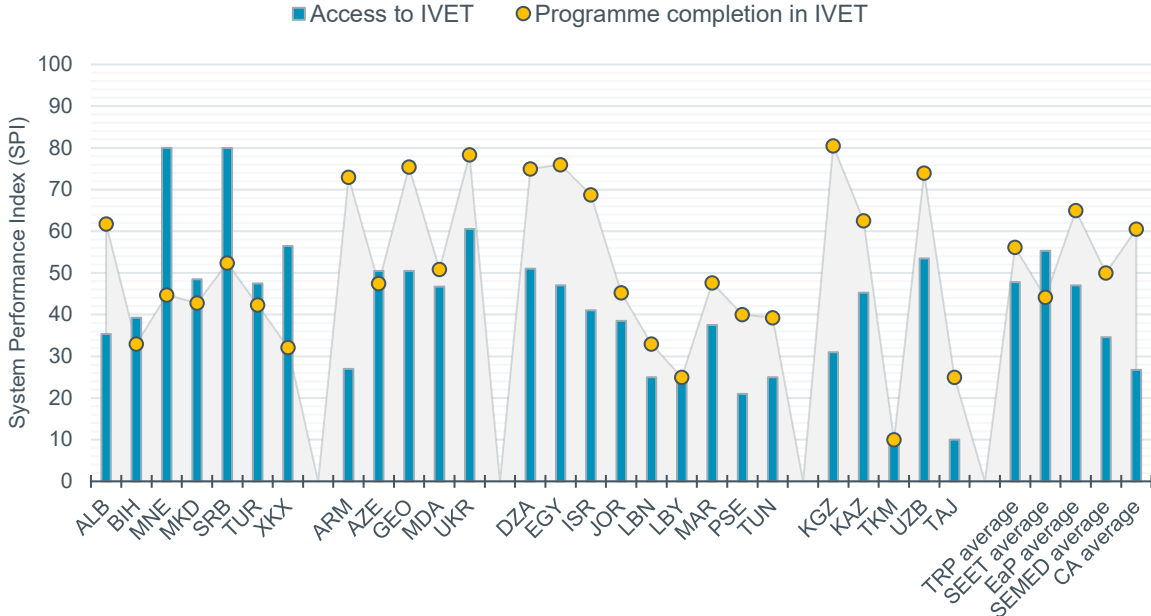
In contrast, international projects have expanded access more visibly. Since 2017, GIZ has created 12 Women's Development and Training Centres which offer textiles, cosmetics, cooking and languages, supported by services such as kindergartens to reduce barriers to participation. The EU-funded Tamkeen project in Ajdabiya has provided training in business basics, photography and tailoring, while the Women's Raidat programme by the UN has focused on digital media. These initiatives show that demand is high, but access remains narrow and skewed towards traditionally female occupations.

Retention and programme completion

The monitoring results shown in Figure 4.2 suggest that, when it comes to retention and programme completion, IVET learners in Libya receive less effective support than their peers in general education and other countries in the ETF monitoring sample, on average. The SPI of Libya in this domain is 25, lower than the sample average (SPI of 56) and the SEMED regional average (SPI of 50). These

results place Libya near the bottom of the performance scale and point to conditions in IVET that are not conducive for learners to persist through to graduation.

Figure 4.2 Access and programme completion in IVET – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100
 Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases

In OECD and EU countries, VET students are less likely to complete their programmes, or to do so on time, than students in general upper secondary programmes (OECD, 2023). In 2025, the OECD average completion rate was about 65% in VET, compared to 72% in general education (OECD, 2025). Against this backdrop, the monitoring survey notes that outcomes in Libya are almost certainly lower given the far more challenging circumstances. These include the lack of modern infrastructure and functional workshops, which prevents VET schools from providing practical training that feels relevant to future employment; indirect costs for transport, materials and tools that are prohibitively high for disadvantaged youth; and a widespread conviction among students that finding employment is difficult. The survey notes that, as a result, many VET learners in Libya are discouraged from persisting in their programmes and lack the motivation to complete them.

Some targeted projects show that completion is possible under more supportive conditions. UN and GIZ initiatives report tangible results such as 400 participants in inclusive entrepreneurship training with nearly 70% women, or over 950 youths trained through IOM's YESS platform. However, these remain small-scale, donor-driven interventions and cannot substitute system-wide solutions to help learners graduate.

At the time of monitoring, however, domestic attempts at systemic reform to address barriers to progression and graduation had not yet produced tangible results. One key obstacle is the lack of data. According to the monitoring survey, official information on completion rates is not collected, either nationally or internationally. Another is the fragmentation of responsibilities for IVET between MoTVE and MoL. Finally, gender plays an outsized role, as entrenched societal norms, security concerns and the unequal burden of care responsibilities continue to reduce the chances of women of progressing through and completing their VET training.

Quality and relevance of learning outcomes

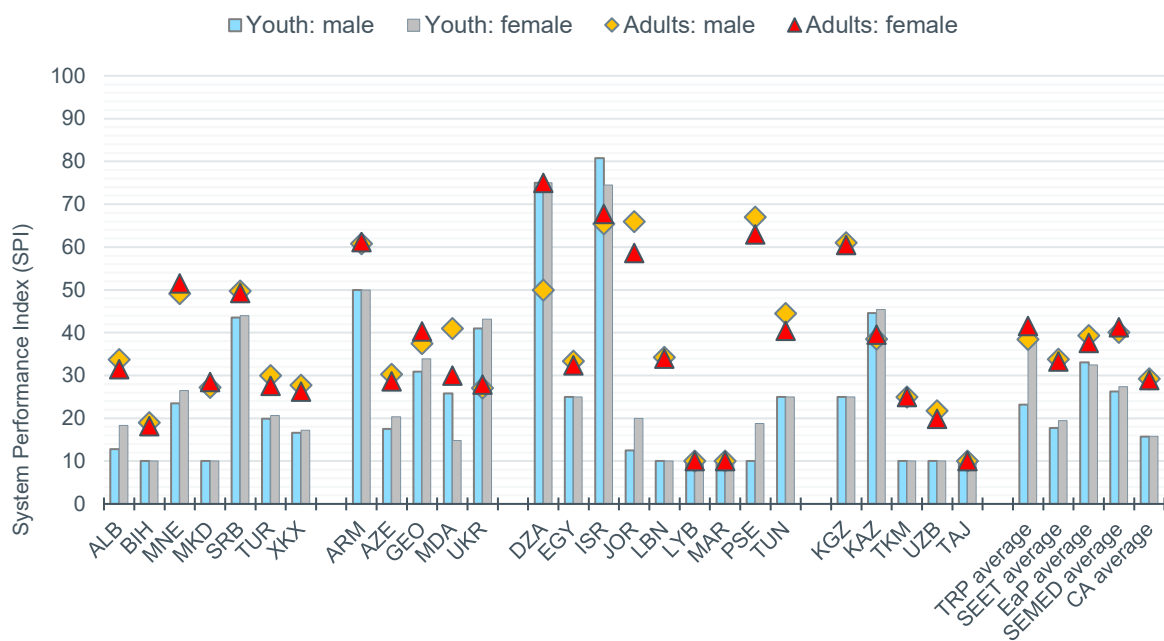
In this section, the SPIs capture the quality of the provision of basic skills and key competences to learners in IVET, as well as the degree to which adults possess foundational skills. These results are complemented by selected KIESE indicators, which track the relevance of learning outcomes by examining employment rates of individuals aged 15 and older, disaggregated by educational attainment in ETF partner countries.

ETF monitoring keeps quality and relevance separate because although they often reinforce each other, they do not always coincide. Learners with strong foundational skills may still struggle to find suitable employment, while individuals might secure jobs without acquiring a comprehensive skillset. By tracking these aspects separately, the reporting hopes to identify both the intrinsic benefits of education and how effectively it aligns with the needs of the labour market.

Quality of learning by age and gender

The monitoring data suggests that the quality of skills and competences delivered by IVET programmes in Libya is low. System performance in this domain is among the lowest in the ETF monitoring sample (Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.3 Quality of skills and competences by country, age and gender of learners – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average (2025)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100

Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases

Although youth literacy is almost universal, at 99.9% for females and 100% for males (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, n.d.), the monitoring survey indicates that the education and training system does not succeed in translating this into competences that are relevant to the labour market. VET curricula are often outdated and overly theoretical, and practical training or direct engagement with employers is minimal. As a result, many young graduates from VET lack competences that are in high demand, such as English, IT, coding, business and interpersonal skills. Girls in particular, who generally have a stronger academic foundation than boys, face particularly high unemployment due to broader institutional, cultural and economic constraints which limit their prospects of finding employment.

These shortcomings are well-documented in the area of digital competences. An internet penetration rate of close to 89% (2024), with 6.13 million users and 12.40 million mobile connections (DataReportal, 2024; Freedom House, 2024), suggests that there is growing demand for digital skills by learners and employers alike. However, VET does not yet systematically include digital skills in its programmes, which disadvantages VET graduates in terms of employability.

The monitoring survey describes selected international initiatives which fill the gap of missing skills to some extent. The IOM's YESS programme, for example, has engaged more than 6 000 young people since 2021 and facilitated over 3 400 youth–employer interactions (IOM, 2024c, 2025b). GIZ has established or rehabilitated 12 women's development and training centres since 2017, offering courses in tailoring, cosmetics, cooking and languages (GIZ, 2022). These programmes are tailored, well monitored and better aligned with demand, but their scale remains modest compared to national needs.

A digital divide is also emerging between generations. The survey notes that young people make more use of computers while older workers remain largely excluded from digital competences. This generational gap is part of a wider pattern for adults, where literacy has improved over the past decade, to around 91% (World Bank, n.d.), while gaps in foundational skills and competences persist. The monitoring survey refers to the Libyan Bureau of Statistics and Census, which has reported that most of the labour force is semi-skilled, having attained secondary or some post-secondary education, while only 15–30% are considered relatively skilled and readily employable (World Bank, 2015). The majority requires further training or retraining, which is also mirrored in the subpar system performance score of Libya in this domain of monitoring (Figure 4.3).

This skills deficit is reflected in labour market statistics: in 2024, the Ministry of Labour reported 241 852 registered jobseekers (Al-Naas, 2025; Al-Araby Al-Jadeed, 2025). Many registrants were deemed ineligible for jobs due to missing documentation or insufficient qualifications. The lack of reliable skills assessment data reinforces these problems by making it difficult to take informed decisions on how to align training provision with labour-market needs.

Women continue to face additional barriers, including socio-cultural restrictions, discrimination in hiring and a concentration of employment in the public sector. As of 2015, more than 90% of employed women worked in public administration (World Bank, 2015; IMF, 2025), which has limited opportunities to develop competences demanded in the private sector. The monitoring survey notes that some targeted provision exists, such as short-term courses at the Libyan-Korean Centre, which launched training in car fault detection, computer technology and tailoring in 2025 (Libyan News Agency, 2025), or international programmes like the Ra'idat initiative, which provides young women with digital skills in media design and advocacy (UNSMIL et al., 2023). In Sebha, IOM trained 40 women in vinyl cutting in 2024 and equipped them with machines to start small businesses (IOM, 2024b). These efforts contribute to an improvement of competences, but the monitoring survey suggests they remain fragmented and insufficient in scope.

Relevance and labour market outcomes

This section uses employment data to gauge how effectively education in Libya meets labour market needs.

Across ETF partner countries, employment outcomes differ significantly depending on individuals' educational attainment levels. Higher education, for instance, consistently translates into higher employment rates. On average, the employment rate is 24.6% for individuals with low educational attainment, rising to 48.0% for those with medium education and reaching 65.2% for highly educated individuals. Despite these substantial differences – approximately 41 percentage points separating the lowest and highest education groups – employment rates at all levels remain consistently below the average for the EU-27, by about 14 percentage points (ETF, 2024).

Employment outcomes by educational attainment are difficult to establish for Libya, as the country has not conducted a recent labour force survey and international repositories do not provide disaggregated employment-to-population ratios by level of education for the past five years. The last reliable figures stem from the pre-crisis period, when the overall employment rate of the population aged 15 and older

stood at around 49% (ILO, 2013). More recent modelled estimates suggest that employment has declined, with the employment-to-population ratio closer to 37% in the early 2020s (World Bank, 2023). In this sense, Libya's situation diverges markedly from international patterns, where recovery in employment rates has been recorded after the pandemic.

Although evidence remains scarce, the available data suggest that in Libya, employment prospects depend strongly on the level of education attained. However, system and labour market dynamics undermine the expected returns to education, particularly at the high end of attainment. As a consequence, low-educated workers face exclusion through lack of skills, while higher-educated graduates confront unemployment and inactivity due to structural mismatch. The result is that in Libya, secondary-level qualifications continue to form the most stable, albeit modest, basis for employability.

The monitoring survey notes that adults with low or no education face the highest unemployment rates due to limited opportunities in a shrinking agricultural sector and the predominance of informal labour. In contrast, secondary graduates constitute the bulk of the workforce, with the Bureau of Statistics and Census estimating that most Libyan workers fall into the semi-skilled category, while only 15–30% of the labour force is considered relatively skilled and readily employable.

For tertiary graduates, the employment outcomes are counterintuitive. Libya has a high rate of tertiary attainment, but graduate unemployment is widespread. The monitoring survey notes that this is due to a structural problem of large numbers of university graduates entering a labour market that lacks absorptive capacity outside the public sector, where hiring has slowed significantly over the past decade.

System management and organisation

In the final section on policy and system performance, the focus shifts to the organisation and management of the education and training system, with particular attention to VET.

The analysis presents data on system performance in the form of SPIs in three areas: effective allocation and use of financial resources in VET; allocation, use and professional capacity of human resources, including leadership skills and professional competence of school management and staff; and system steering and management, which includes data, quality assurance, school leadership and the internationalisation of VET.

Financial resources in VET and lifelong learning

This section examines the availability of funding for VET in Libya and discusses how effectively this funding translates into tangible resources, such as well-equipped teaching facilities, workshops and appropriate instructional materials.

VET in Libya receives only limited public resources, and consequently, system performance results in this area are low (Figure 4.5). According to the Central Bank of Libya, total government expenditure between January and May 2025 amounted to LYD 43.5 billion (Central Bank of Libya, 2024). Out of this, the combined expenditure of ministries with responsibility for VET reached approximately LYD 2.18 billion, or about 5% of the total. Spending included LYD 133.1 million for the Ministry of Education and its affiliates, LYD 1.33 billion for the Ministry of Higher Education, LYD 19.3 million for the Ministry of Labour and LYD 696.1 million for the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education and Training. This relatively modest allocation points to the low fiscal priority assigned to the sector in comparison to overall government spending (Central Bank of Libya, 2025).

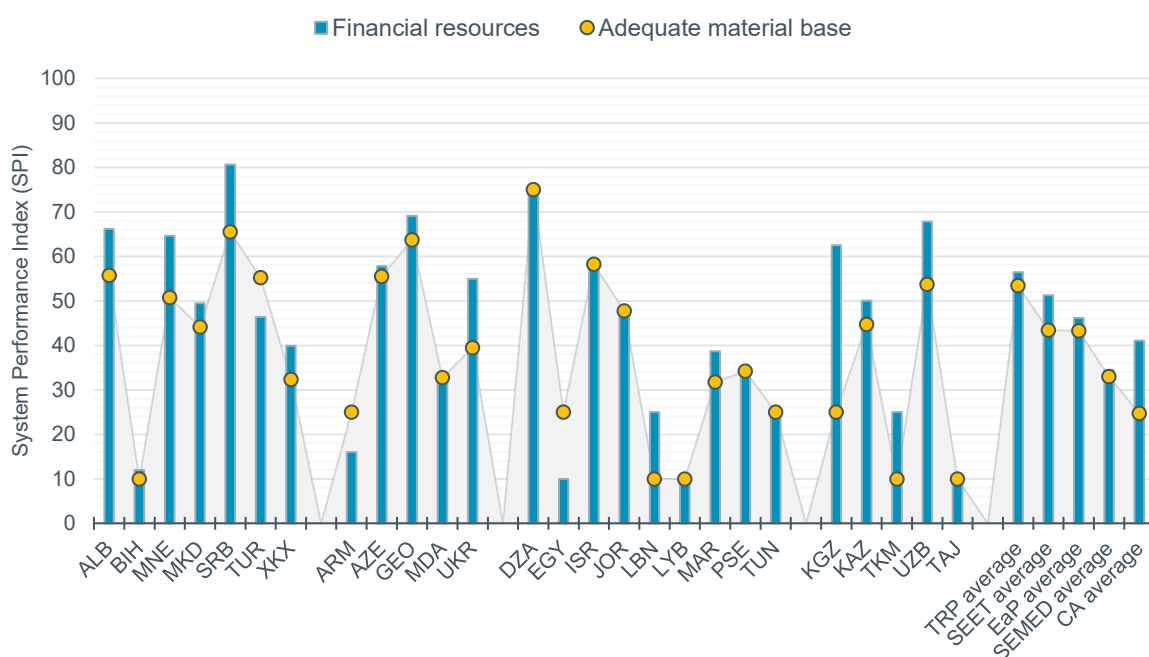
The composition of expenditure is not only limited but also unbalanced. According to the monitoring survey, more than 70% of VET-related spending is absorbed by staff salaries, while only 26% is used for goods and services and less than 4% for development. This structure leaves little space for capital investment or maintenance of infrastructure, equipment and other essentials of quality provision, which in turn also pulls down the system performance score in terms of the adequacy of the material base for teaching and learning (Figure 4.5). Schools and training institutes therefore remain poorly equipped and technologically outdated. Even where curricula are revised, the absence of adequate

machinery, laboratories and training materials prevents new content from being translated into meaningful opportunities for learning.

The predominantly supply-driven character of the system further undermines efficiency. Training provision is often not aligned with actual labour market needs, meaning that resources are spent on preparing graduates with skills that may not be in demand, leading to poor employment outcomes and wasted investment. This situation reflects both inadequate funding and weaknesses in how the available resources are prioritised.

The financing of VET remains overwhelmingly public. While Law No. 12 of 2010 requires employers to train a proportion of their foreign workforce or bear the cost of their training in specialised institutions, and Law No. 21 of 2023 provides incentives for equipping private providers, there is no clear evidence of substantial employer involvement or structured mechanisms for broader private sector investment.

Figure 4.5 Allocation and use of financial resources in education and training – index of system performance, ETF partner countries and international average (2024)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases

Some recent government initiatives described in the monitoring survey aim to address these weaknesses. The Return to Life plan has supported the reopening and renovation of damaged centres, while in 2024 the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education and Training reported maintenance and development work on 35 of its institutions. The reopening of the Misrata Labour and Rehabilitation Office and the Aziziyah office with modern equipment are further signs of positive developments.

Human resources: allocation, use, professional capacity

The legal framework for human resources in Libya’s VET system is extensive and ambitious. A series of sector-specific and general laws, from Civil Service Law No. 55 of 1976 to Law No. 21 of 2023, set out high formal standards for recruitment, promotion and qualifications. Provisions establish merit-based pathways into leadership positions, minimum academic credentials for staff and safeguards for equal opportunities and fair compensation. On paper, the system recognises VET as a professional career and defines clear hierarchies and requirements that could provide a solid basis for staff development.

In practice, however, the VET system is marked by what has been described as a ‘qualification paradox’. While laws mandate advanced degrees and formal credentials, many staff members lack the practical and pedagogical competences necessary for effective teaching. According to the monitoring survey, even senior officials have openly acknowledged that a significant share of Libya’s approximately 700 000 teachers are insufficiently qualified, relying on outdated methods and lacking the technical expertise needed to prepare learners for the labour market. Opportunities and mechanisms for staff development remain limited, despite being formally mandated by policy documents.

Severe structural imbalances further weaken human resource capacity in VET. A UNESCO report estimated that more than 200 000 teachers remain on the Ministry of Education’s payroll while being inactive, representing a substantial surplus that drains resources (Government of Libya, Ministry of Education, 2022). At the same time, there are acute shortages of qualified trainers in key scientific and technical fields, as well as in remote and rural regions where deployment is more difficult. Professional associations, such as the Tripoli Teachers’ Union, have pointed to persistent deficits in language and technical subjects as a central obstacle to quality provision.

The coexistence of surplus and shortage illustrates a deeper pattern of management gaps in the allocation of human resources in education and VET. Financial resources tied up in salaries for inactive personnel could be redeployed to attract scarce specialists, incentivise service in underserved areas and fund professional development. However, in the absence of such measures, the system continues to operate with an oversized, underqualified workforce on one side, and critical gaps in key teaching and training capacity on the other.

System steering and management

This section summarises the system performance results in the domains of data availability and capacity for informed decision-making, quality assurance, school leadership and internationalisation in VET in Libya.

The availability and use of reliable data for monitoring and policymaking in VET in Libya is limited and the system performance score in this area is low (Figure 4.6). The monitoring survey describes the situation as a nationwide ‘information and data management crisis’. Core statistics are outdated or absent: the last official national poverty data dates back to 2003, while the last comprehensive Labour Force Survey was carried out in 2012. International reports provide partial estimates, but these rely heavily on modelling from outdated sources. Even where data points exist, they tend to be fragmented, inconsistent and siloed across different ministries or duplicated between the rival authorities in Tripoli (GNU) and Benghazi (GNS).

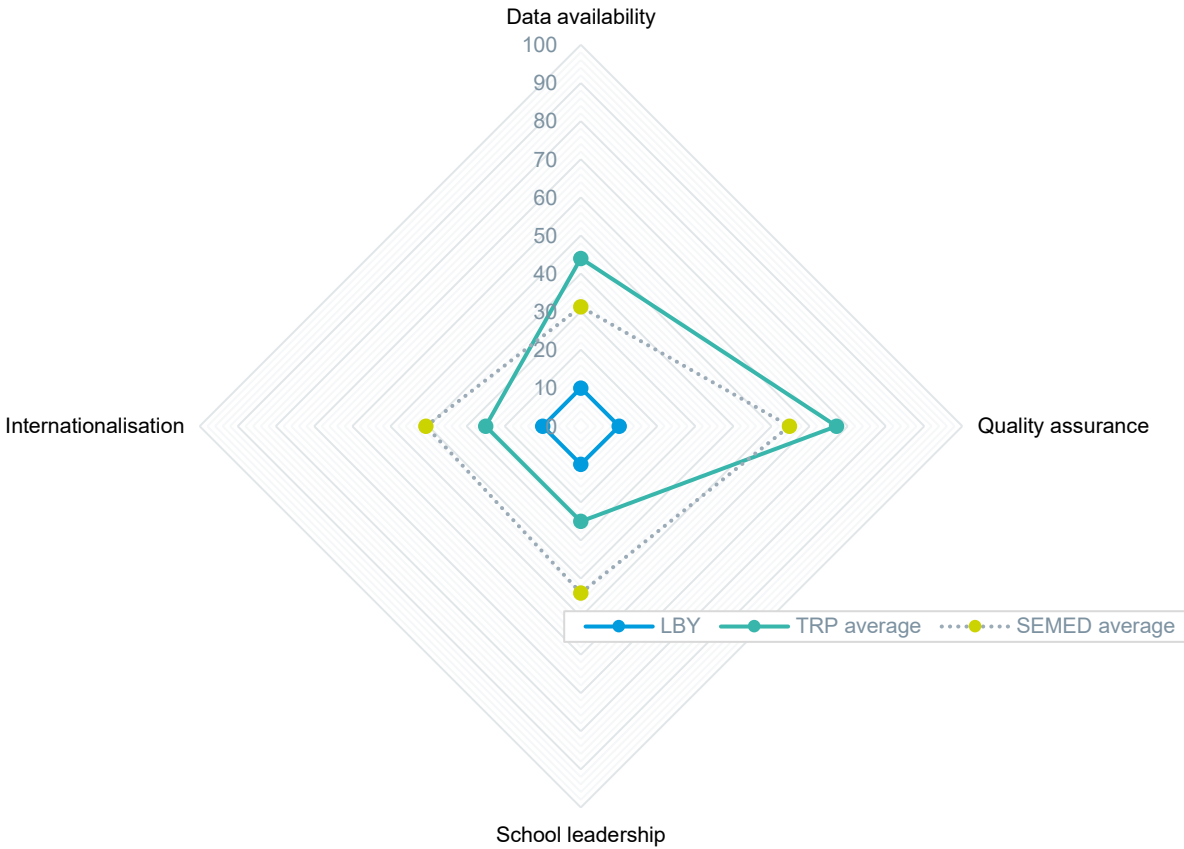
According to the monitoring survey, institutional frameworks formally mandate data collection and management. For instance, GNU Decision No. 697 of 2021 assigns the Ministry of Labour responsibilities such as developing a workforce database, managing unemployment statistics and establishing a labour market information system through periodic surveys. In parallel, the GNS continues to operate under the earlier Decision No. 292 of 2021 with similar responsibilities. However, the survey notes that these structures remain largely ineffective in practice. Occasional outputs, such as the 2024 annual report from the Quality Assurance and Professional Calibration Centre (QACC) with statistics on 72 accredited institutions, 30 programmes and 28 trainers, demonstrate some capacity but remain isolated (Quality Assurance and Professional Calibration Centre, 2025).

In the same vein, arrangements for quality assurance (QA) in Libya are formally well defined but in practice weak, fragmented and often non-operational, according to the monitoring survey. National institutions such as the Occupational Standards and Certification Centre (OSCC) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) were created to ensure the quality and relevance of VET, but at the time of monitoring, they have not yet been activated. There is also the challenge of overlapping mandates across different ministries and agencies. For instance, both the GNU and GNS ministries of labour have established departments for training quality follow-up and inspection. At the same time, MOTVE retains the overall mandate for QA, while the National Centre for Quality Assurance and

Accreditation of Educational and Training Institutions (NCQAAETI) is tasked with accrediting VET providers.

There are also examples of progress. The QACC under the GNU Ministry of Labour reported in 2024 that it had accredited multiple institutions, programmes and trainers, and that it had issued around 700 trainee certificates. Resolution No. 367 of 2025 further mandated that all public and private training institutions obtain QACC accreditation and comply with unified national standards, supported by inspection mechanisms and sanctions for non-compliance. Nevertheless, implementation remains inconsistent, with limited transparency on audit outcomes and no clear evidence of systematic public reporting of results. The absence of a functioning qualifications framework, coupled with outdated or unpublished curricula standards, undermines all quality assurance outcomes and the credibility of training programmes.

Figure 4.6 System steering and management – index of system performance, selected dimensions, ETF partner countries and Torino Process average (2024)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100
 Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases

Figure 4.6 also shows the monitoring results for Libya in the domain of professional capacity of leadership and administrative staff in VET. Performance is rather weak due to systemic problems which are shared with the sector of general education. According to the monitoring survey, these include lack of strategic planning and a lack of integrity, as well as political interference in decision-making, all of which limit the ability of school leaders to exercise their authority effectively. These weaknesses are compounded by a governance structure which is even more fragmented in this domain of monitoring than in others. Responsibilities are divided among the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education, the Ministry of Labour and the National Board for Technical and Vocational Education which reports to the Ministry of Higher Education.

The situation is further aggravated by the political division of Libya into rival governments, each operating their own Ministry of Labour. Official announcements suggest that ministers on both sides are active in launching initiatives and signing agreements, yet this duplication of effort has led to inefficiencies, blurred lines of accountability and a lack of progress towards a unified national strategy for VET. National-level institutions responsible for oversight, such as the Quality Assurance and VET Provider Accreditation Centre (QAVETPAC), have been described as non-operational, signalling a deficit of professional capacity at the highest levels.

These shortcomings are also visible at provider level. The monitoring survey notes that leadership recruitment and appointments have at times been influenced more by political loyalty than by professional merit. At the same time, problems of administrative mismanagement persist, as illustrated by the GNU Ministry of Labour's recent review of 45 124 cases of dual employment in the public sector. This refers to situations where a single public employee occupies more than one position or remains on multiple payrolls, either through formal appointment or because of weak oversight. Such practices drain resources, blur accountability and undermine the credibility and efficiency of VET leadership across the system.

Some steps have been taken to address these issues. The GNU has launched specific programmes to strengthen the capacity of administrators and leaders, including courses at the National Institute of Administration designed to qualify department heads and office directors, as well as a professional diploma for 200 public employees aimed at improving administrative efficiency. While these initiatives point to growing recognition of the problem, their scope remains limited compared to the scale of the systemic challenges.

The internationalisation of VET in Libya is at an early stage of development and is supported mainly by donor-driven initiatives rather than by systemic national strategies. Projects implemented by GIZ, Expertise France and others, often facilitated through the ETF, have sought to establish partnerships between Libyan authorities, private sector representatives and international counterparts. The Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education (MoTVE) highlights agreements with the EU and bilateral agencies as evidence of international engagement, while ETF has brought together diverse actors such as the National Board for Technical and Vocational Education, ministries and trade unions in workshops. However, the monitoring survey also notes that opportunities for staff and student international mobility and exchange are virtually non-existent as most mobility programmes focus on higher education and mainly benefit academics.

ABBREVIATIONS

AICS	Italian Agency for Development Cooperation
ALMP	Active labour market programme
CBL	Central Bank of Libya
CVET	Continuing vocational education and training
DFID	UK Department for International Development
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ETF	European Training Foundation
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross domestic product
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
GNU	Government of National Unity
GNS	Government of National Stability
GRALE	Global Report on Adult Learning and Education
HDI	Human Development Index
HoR	House of Representatives
ICT	Information and communication technology
IDP	Internally displaced person
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IVET	Initial vocational education and training
KIESE	Key Indicators on Education, Skills and Employment

LFS	Labour Force Survey
LKC	Libyan-Korean Centre
LNA	Libyan National Army
LYD	Libyan dinar
METI	Mainstreaming Employment into Trade and Investment
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoHESR	Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
MoLR	Ministry of Labour and Rehabilitation
MoTVE	Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education
NBTVE	National Board of Technical and Vocational Education
NCQAAETI	National Centre for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Educational and Training Institutions
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSCC	Occupational Standards and Certification Centre
PPP	Purchasing power parity
QACC	Quality Assurance and Professional Calibration Centre
QAVETPAC	Quality Assurance and Vocational Education and Training Providers Approval Centre
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SME	Small and medium-sized enterprise
SPI	System Performance Index
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNSMIL	United Nations Support Mission in Libya
WDTC	Women Development and Training Centres
YESS	Youth Employment One Stop Shop

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