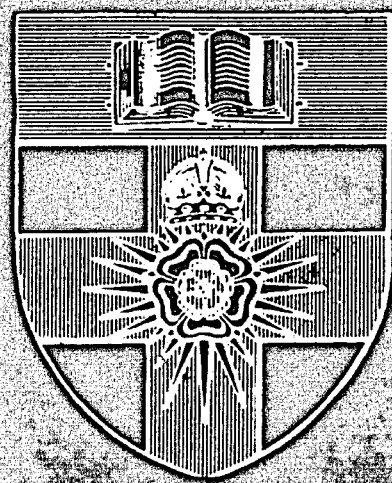


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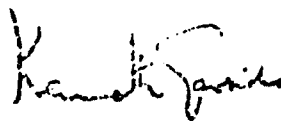
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"RE APPRAISAL OF EGYPTIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION  
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO CULTURAL CHANGE"

by

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Thesis submitted for the Degree of Master of Arts  
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1963



## ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

The purpose of this study is to investigate and assess the provision and the content of secondary education in Egypt from approximately the beginning of the eighteenth century to nearly 1960. This is carried out to establish the main function of the teaching provided and to re-appraise the nature of the response to the changing political, social and economic conditions.

The first chapter attempts to give an approach to concept of culture, and it also gives a full survey of the background of Egyptian education.

The second chapter is devoted to study the educational system established under the influence of Islam prior to the advent of westernised system of education introduced by Mohammad Ali. This secular type of education is discussed within the same chapter.

Chapter three examines the educational programmes during the reigns of Abbas and Said, and the steps taken during the reign of Ismail to revive the educational system following the disasters under Abbas and Said.

Chapter four discusses the educational conditions during Tewfik's rule and the period of the British occupation.

Chapters five and six are devoted to the study of

both branches of secondary education, academic and technical, during a period which embraces approximately the three decades 1922-1952.

In chapter seven attention is given to the changes resultant from the pursuit and application of the ideology of the Revolution of 1952 and the achievements that followed.

Chapter eight deals with the implications of cultural changes on the system of education. Chapter nine is devoted particularly to an examination of the impact of new trends on secondary education. Chapter ten investigates some problems and trends of secondary education.

Chapter eleven is devoted to a discussion and interpretation of the responses of a sample of secondary school teachers in the U.A.R., to the items of a questionnaire prepared and implemented by the investigator. Chapter twelve embraces the conclusions, suggestions and proposals of the study. It is necessary to state that the responses of the questionnaire are in themselves a contribution to the reappraisal of Egyptian secondary education.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To Professor L.J. Lewis, Professor of Education and Head of the Department of Education in Tropical Areas, University of London, Institute of Education, I am profoundly grateful. For his perpetual encouragement, his deliberate and constructive criticism, helpful suggestions, I am deeply indebted. Professor Lewis gave a considerable part of his time and effort to accomplish this thesis.

I wish to express my gratitude to the Heads of the four Committees responsible for correcting and marking the General Secondary Education Certificate papers, in Cairo who provided all facilities for the implementation of the questionnaire during my visit to the U.A.R. in the summer of 1962. My endless thanks are also due to the supervisors, senior teachers and teachers who participated in giving responses to the questionnaire.

I wish also to extend my gratitude to the officials in various departments of the Ministry of Education, Cairo, who gave me valuable data and information for this study.

Last, but not least, I am under great obligation to the Faculty of Education, Ein Shams University for nominating me for a scholarship and also to the Government of the United Arab Republic for granting it.

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CHAPTER ONECULTURAL CHANGES IN THE U.A.R. (EGYPT)FOREWORD

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the major aspects of Egyptian society. Each society has its own culture. The term 'culture' is here interpreted to mean "the way of life of a particular society". This interpretation is in accord with generally accepted definitions. For instance, Linton defines culture as "the social heredity of a society's members".<sup>1</sup> Read adopts the following definition: "patterns of behaviour, methods of earning a living, forms of law and government, kinship and family structure, methods of thought, and value-attitude system inherent in any people's way of living". Three basic provisos must be kept in view in using this term: (1) The culture of a people is not necessarily homogeneous. (2) The culture of a people is never static. (3) Cultures cannot be compared with each other, thus culture does not imply no value judgment.<sup>2</sup>

In considering education as a social system its relation to other institutions that contribute to the culture of a society must be given attention. Social forces do not operate in a vacuum, they are the output of the various stimuli inside and outside the society. The country's

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1. Ralph Linton, *The Cultural Background of Personality* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1958), pp.20-21.
  2. Margaret Read, *Education and Social Change in Tropical Areas* (London: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd., 1956), pp.96-97.

geographical, historical, political, social, economical, and ideological factors influence the various institutions operating within the society. "Schools are the agencies of a society in the sense that they are established and maintained by it."<sup>1</sup> It is sufficient in this respect to refer to the following assessment of the school in relation to society. "The school is a part of the web of social life. Some features of the school are determined by the influence of the forces operating within the institution itself; but always the social forces from without influence the philosophy, curriculum, and objectives of the school."<sup>2</sup>

The following pages will be devoted to a survey of the natural and social factors which contribute to the web of life in the U.A.R. in general and to education in particular.

\* \* \* \* \*

### THE BACKGROUND OF EGYPTIAN EDUCATION

#### 1. Geographical Features

The U.A.R. (Egypt) occupies the north eastern corner of the Continent of Africa. It forms that strategic centre where three continents meet: the Middle East.<sup>3</sup> The U.A.R. is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south by the Sudan; on the east by the Red Sea, Gulf of Aqaba and

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1. Abu Al-Futouh Ahmad Radwan, Old and New Forces in Egyptian Education (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p.8.
  2. George C. Atteberry, John L. Auble, Elgin F. Hunt, Introduction to Social Science: A Survey of Social Problems (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946), p.224.
  3. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.11.

Palestine; and on the west by Libya.<sup>1</sup>

The total area of the Republic is approximately 386,000 square miles, or 1,000,000 square kilometres. The greater part of this area is uninhabited, owing to climatic and natural factors which have resulted in desert conditions. The actual inhabited area is roughly 13,000 square miles, or approximately 33,669 square kilometres, which can be irrigated from the Nile. The river Nile is the backbone of the country's past history and future destiny. "In fact Egypt is the Nile."<sup>2</sup> The whole social structure of the country is shaken to the foundation if a low flood occurs. The flood diagnoses and predicts the economic situation for the succeeding year. "This great river may be rightly called the liquid history of Egypt."<sup>3</sup> The Nile runs from south to north along a narrow valley restricted by two parallel ranges of hills. North of Cairo is situated the Delta, a triangular area of plains, which is probably the most fertile cultivated area of land on the globe. It is irrigated by the Nile: the eastern branch of which is the Damietta Branch; and the western is the Rosetta Branch.

The topography of the U.A.R. is fairly simple. In addition to the above features of the valley and the delta, there is a mountain range, with peaks of over 7,000 feet high;

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1. R.I.I.A., *The Middle East: A Political and Economic Survey* (London: Oxford University Press, 1950), p.139.
  2. Russell Galt, *The Effects of Centralization on Education in Modern Egypt* (Cairo: The American University, 1936), p.6.
  3. Amir Boktor, *School and Society in the Valley of the Nile* (Cairo: Elias' Modern Press, 1936), p.21.

which run parallel to the Red Sea. This range of mountains is followed westward by a high plateau which is terminated on the west by a line of cliffs delimiting the Nile valley. The Western Desert comprises a flat area containing a series of scattered oases in a number of depressions. These fertile oases are irrigated by subterranean springs and wells.

Despite the existence of these extremely fertile areas the greater portion of the land is desert. However, numerous mineral deposits underlie these deserts, which are as yet unexploited or are in the initial stages of exploitation only. The major deposits are to be found in the Eastern Desert, in the Red Sea Highlands, and in the peninsula of Sinai.<sup>1</sup>

The climatic conditions of the country are homogeneous. The year can be divided into two main periods: a cool winter, from November to April; and a hot summer, from May to October.<sup>2</sup> Along the northern coast and the Delta of the U.A.R. is a rainless territory. The country possesses two climatic regions: the Mediterranean dry type in the Delta and the Northern coasts; and the Desert type in the Central and Upper parts of the country.<sup>3</sup>

## 2. Historical Episodes

Reference to the historical background of the nation is indispensable to providing a lucid picture of the national

- 
1. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.140.
  2. Charles Issawi, *Egypt: An Economic and Social Analysis* (London: Oxford University Press, 1947), p.1.
  3. U.A.R., *The Yearbook, 1960* (Cairo: Information Department, 1960), p.6.



growth. It is generally accepted that the national character and cultural background of a particular people are conditioned by and reflect the history of the nation. Naturally not all historical episodes contribute in an equal measure.

It is fully recognised that Egypt has made an outstanding contribution to world civilization. The ancient civilization of Egypt received its impetus on the fertile soil of the country. The following aspects of Egyptian history should be noted as being of major significance:

(1) The first phenomenon characteristic of Egyptian history is unity. Since Menes unified Upper and Lower Egypt and established the first dynasty of the Pharaohs up to the present time the land has always been ruled by a single government. The exceptions to this condition occurred briefly during the Old and Middle Empires. This unity is the result of a number of factors, such as the relatively small size of the country, which is limited by sea and deserts, the flatness of the surface, and the vital fact that irrigation has to be planned and carried out as a single exercise for the whole country, and cannot be safely left to individual decision.<sup>1</sup>

(2) Long periods of foreign domination have affected the country. The lavish fertility and wealth of the country, as well as the strategic position of Egypt at the cross roads of Europe, Asia, and Africa has made it a concrete prize for every state ambitious to exercise imperial power in the Mediterranean and the East.

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1. C. Issawi, op.cit., p.4.

After a glorious epoch of ancient history, Egypt suffered greatly from intervention and domination by a succession of foreign powers. Until the first years of the second half of the twentieth century, the country underwent long periods of foreign rule, injustice, persecution and exploitation. Nevertheless, the events of the twentieth century have manifested the Egyptian genuine potentialities which were previously overshadowed by these misrules of alien domination.

The country suffered under the despotic supremacy of the foreign rulers for approximately over twenty-five centuries. The waves of invasion over Egypt may be summed up as follows: the Persian conquest in 525 B.C.,<sup>1</sup> succeeded by the Roman invasion in 30 B.C.<sup>2</sup> The Arabs came in 640 A.D.<sup>3</sup> The Mamelukes ruled from 1250 to 1517 as independent Sultans. The Turks under Selim I invaded Egypt in 1517.<sup>4</sup> The French conquered the country in 1798 and withdrew in 1801.<sup>5</sup> The British occupation of Egypt started in 1882<sup>6</sup> and ended in 1956.<sup>7</sup>

(3) The third major phenomenon to be noted is the prevalence of bureaucracy and centralisation of control.

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1. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.150.
  2. H.G.Wells, A Short History of the World (Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1960), p.104.
  3. Bernard Lewis, The Arabs in History (London: Grey Arrow Books, 1958), p.45.
  4. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.227.
  5. M.Rifaat, The Awakening of Modern Egypt (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1947), pp.2 and 15.
  6. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.154; see also H.G.Wells, op.cit., p.296.
  7. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959 (Cairo: Information Department, 1959), p.70. (In Arabic).

These two related elements have also been permanent features of the Egyptian history. Under the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies, the Romans and the Arabs governors, and the Turkish rulers all administration was concentrated in the hands of the rulers and the state officials. In consequence of this over centralisation of authority, individual independence and the sense of municipal responsibility suffered, causing the people to assume that all initiative and sponsorship of enterprises was dependent upon the central government.

(4) Suffering from intensive economic exploitation, is the fourth feature of the Egyptian history. Regarding Egypt as a rich farm all foreign rulers exploited and despoiled the country. In addition conscription and forced labour were systematically applied to such projects as the erection of the pyramids, temples and numerous monuments of Ancient Egyptians, and in modern times to the cutting of the Suez Canal.<sup>1</sup>

(5) Egypt's frontier movements have been characterised by two main traits: 1. She has formed a part of empire since the time of Persian conquest, either as head or as a dependent territory. 2. All expansion and invasion has taken place in the north east of the country, with the two exceptions: the Fatimite conquest<sup>2</sup> in the Middle Ages and the German invasion in 1942,<sup>3</sup> which entered Egypt from the west.

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1. Tom Little, *Egypt* (London: Ernest Benn Limited, 1958), p.284. See also M. Rifaat, *op.cit.*, pp.95-96.

2. B. Lewis, *op.cit.*, pp.112-113.

3. H.G.Wells, *op.cit.*, p.367.

(6) Leaving historic episodes aside, it is obvious that her expansion towards the north-east was consequential upon her rulers' desire to secure control over the Indo-European trade routes. These routes could be traced through one of four major trunk-lines: (i) The overland route across Persia to the Black Sea; (ii) To the Upper Euphrates and hence overland to a Mediterranean port on the Levant; (iii) To Aden by sea, then by caravan along the Red Sea coast to a caravan city, and finally to the Mediterranean; (iv) To Kosseir or other Egyptian ports on the Red Sea, then through the Nile to Alexandria on the Mediterranean. These trade routes have always been of paramount importance. The levying of tolls on the transit trade has always been a considerable source of national income.<sup>1</sup>

### 3. Political Situation

"The U.A.R. is a democratic, sovereign republic, and its people are part of the Arab Nation."<sup>2</sup> The climax of the people's aspirations manifested itself through the Egyptian Revolution of 23 July, 1952 when a group of army officers drove ex-King Farouk into abdication and exile on 26 July, 1952. Completion of the revolutionary task was demonstrated with the proclamation of Egypt as a Republic on 18 June, 1953.<sup>3</sup>

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1. C. Issawi, op.cit., pp.3-9.

2. See The U.A.R. Yearbook 1960, p.11, for the text of the Provisional Constitution.

3. George E. Kirk, A Short History of the Middle East: From the Rise of Islam to Modern Times (London: Methuen and Co., Ltd., 1961), p.276.



The national struggle against foreign intervention had for a long time been a characteristic feature of the Egyptian political life. Orabi in 1881-2 represented the first demonstration of this phenomenon in the nineteenth century. After the British military occupation many attempts have been made to secure the complete independence of the country. In succession, Moustafa Kamel, Mohamed Farid, Sa'd Zaghloul and many other compatriots launched the national movement for independence which mobilised the active support of the citizens.

The Egyptian Revolution of 1919 represented the second climax of the battle for freedom from foreign intervention and exploitation. The first attempt to attain this target occurred under the leadership of Orabi. A brief survey of the political episodes is a prerequisite of any examination of events and their impact upon the society. From the British occupation of Egypt in 1882, up to the promulgation of the famous Declaration of 1922, the British dominated Egyptian politics. Between the two dates mentioned above, an event took place and affected the country's development, namely, the proclamation of the British Protectorate on 16 December, 1914.<sup>1</sup> As a result of the Revolution of 1919 the British Government sought a resolution of the crisis through the Declaration of 28 February, 1922. In accordance with its provisions the Egyptians secured their internal independence. Egypt was no longer under British protection. The British

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., pp.13 and 97.

government reserved four matters for future negotiation.

These were:

- (1) security for the British Empire communications through Egypt,
- (2) defence of Egypt against all foreign aggression,
- (3) protection of foreign interests and minorities in Egypt,
- (4) the Sudan.<sup>1</sup>

Following the proclamation of Egypt as an independent and sovereign state, the government was established as a monarchy of a representative character. The legislation was exercised by the king with the assistance of the parliament in accordance with the provisions of the constitution. The executive authority lay with king through the ministers in accordance with the provisions of the constitution.<sup>2</sup>

The previous status of Egypt as a constitutional monarchy was initiated by the promulgation of the constitution on 19 April, 1923.<sup>3</sup> According to the provisions of the constitution legislative authority was to be exercised by a Parliament consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Cabinet was responsible to the country through Parliament. In a case of dispute between the Cabinet and the Parliament, one of the following measures came into operation: the

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1. P.G. Elgood, *The Transit of Egypt* (London: E. Arnold and Co., 1928), Appendix III; Lord Lloyd, *Egypt since Cromer* (London: Macmillan and Co., 1933), vol.II, p.48; R.I.I.A., op.cit., pp.158-159.

2. R. Galt, op.cit., pp.7-8.

3. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.167.

Cabinet should resign<sup>1</sup> or the king, who was empowered to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, in accordance with the Constitution, was to take this measure. A new election followed such action.<sup>2</sup>

The Egyptian Constitution since its promulgation witnessed a prolonged history of endless battles between a small fraction of the autocrats, including the king, supported indirectly by the foreign power through its military forces, and a huge majority of nationalists absolutely unarmed, supported by the public opinion.<sup>3</sup>

The parliamentary ups and downs that occurred from 1923 to 1952 were fundamentally due to the absence of political organisation of the masses, the majority of whom lacked any formal education. This lack of political maturity inevitably resulted in precarious functioning of institutions that had proved fragile in countries of more ancient political traditions. The result of the lack of formal education is shown by the fact that in 1917, 11 per cent of the male and 1.8 per cent of the female population were educated. In 1927 19.7 per cent and 4 per cent respectively were the corresponding figures of educated population.<sup>4</sup>

Egypt's political life was also disturbed by the system of 'Capitulation' as applied through the Ottoman Empire which took a particularly hateful form in Egypt. Under the

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1. A.F. Radwan, op.cit., p.13.  
2. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.168.  
3. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.102.  
4. Ibid., p.104.

Capitulations system foreigners were allowed to enjoy certain privileges in the Ottoman Empire, and its dependencies, in respect of legal and personal matters which placed them outside local law and virtually gave them something of the status of diplomatic immunity. New conventions and non-codified capitular customs involving an aggravation of the capitular system further injured the national sovereignty in many ways.

The situation prior to 1937 (when this anachronism was abolished) foreigners attained personnel, juridical, legislative and financial immunities. Preserving their original nationality from father to son. Irrespective of the length of their residence in Egypt, they enjoyed inviolability of domicile, the right of free establishment and a form of protection which handicapped the Egyptian authorities exercising their rights in the interests of the community without the agreement of the consular authority which defended the interests of individuals who could claim capitular status. "Sabri observes that 'the capitulatory system tended to make Egypt a court of appeal for all dubious characters thrown out of Europe'."<sup>1</sup>

It is interesting to pursue the path of this system, prior to 1877 the cases were absolutely in the hands of the Consular courts. In the same year the Mixed courts were established to look into certain cases.<sup>2</sup> The situation carried

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1. Quoted by Jean and Simone Lacouture, *Egypt in Transition* (London: Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1958), p.66.  
2. A. Boktor, *op.cit.*, p.82.



on up to 1937. On 8 May, 1937, the capitulations and the Consular courts were abolished by a convention signed with Egypt at Montreux by all fifteen Europeans and American capitulatory Powers. The Mixed courts were to be increasingly Egyptianised, moreover a period of sixteen years was stipulated as a transition lapse before the transferring of all cases to the Egyptian courts completely. The Mixed courts by their turn were abolished in 1949.<sup>1</sup> As a matter of fact, the Capitulation system had "a vast influence on the economic, educational, and social development of the country."<sup>2</sup>

Apart from the distinction in status between foreign and native members of the population which it emphasised to the latter's disadvantage, it prevented the growth of local commerce and industry. It emphasised the need for political independence and contributed slowly but inevitably to a reaction against foreign elements. It also influenced the attitude of the élite towards educational aspirations.

#### 4. Social Background

During the last decade tremendous changes have taken place in the social structure and character of the country, and the process of change is still a vigorous one affecting all walks of life. Prior to the Revolution of 1952 the whole country was suffering from a great contrast in social circumstances. The social background was well described as

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1. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.161.  
2. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.79.

follows: "Egypt presents a startling social paradox. On the one hand are the great metropolitan cities like Cairo and Alexandria where every sign of civilization, wealth, and culture abounds. On the other, there is the huge illiterate peasant population living under the lowest standards ...."<sup>1</sup>

There was no actual middle class. The various demographic and economic factors show to a certain extent the characteristics of the structure of Egyptian society. It was characterised particularly by its contrasts, its antagonisms and its archaic structure. It was essentially constituted of two social classes, differing greatly and very unequal in number; a mass which drew its resources from farming by archaic methods and which had a very low standard of living, and a ruling class, small in number, which drew its resources and authority from the ownership of the land, and at least preserved its relations with the soil though its activities were diversified.<sup>2</sup>

The big landowner was only interested in his land as a source of income, He knew the number of his labourers only through the wages he paid through his manager. As to the peasants, it may be said that their way of life had undergone no transformation of any significance from ancient times through their contact with the modern world.<sup>3</sup>

Thus it is clear that "Egyptian society is characterised

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1. R. Galt, op.cit., p.54.

2. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.54 et passim; and C. Issawi, op.cit., p.154 et sequence.

3. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.51; and C. Issawi, op.cit., pp.149-150.

by unusual combination of very marked economic inequality with social fluidity and cultural homogeneity."<sup>1</sup> Within this gap the middle class was constituted. Its nucleus was formulated upon various educated groups such as: doctors, engineers, lawyers, officers, teachers, and the like. This class, according to its limited number, cannot fill the wide vacuum, nevertheless it represents a changing factor in the Egyptian society of great significance.<sup>2</sup> It has overflowed the archaic frame in which it has been confined and has integrated itself within the framework of a social structure of transition where the groups which were not united by patronage and which were still representative of minorities, anxious for economic and social reforms, were unwilling to wait until they represented majorities. This middle-class, unable to see the possibility of obtaining the reforms they wished by ordinary methods looked to more forceful ways of getting their ends. In addition to the professionals of the middle class, wage earners consisting of technicians, administrators, and clerks employed by the government and by private industry and commerce, there is now also an independent middle class of property owners of growing numbers. In 1947, the urban middle class added up to some 499,169 persons classified in the manner shown in Table I.

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1. C. Issawi, *op.cit.*, p.147.

2. Morroe Berger, *The Arab World Today* (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1962), p.271.

TABLE I<sup>1</sup>URBAN MIDDLE CLASS IN EGYPT, 1947.

Occupation	Number	Per cent of all Middle Class	Per cent of the population gainfully occupied.
Merchants	254,388	51	3.00
Chief Clerks	127,876	26	1.51
Professionals	49,339	19	1.11
Businessmen	22,561	4	.27
Total	499,169	100	5.89

By comparison considering that a holder of 5-30 feddars be defined as being agricultural middle class a further 134,562 persons could be added to the general category in 1947. These constituted 5 per cent of the 2,662,800 owners of all sizes.<sup>2</sup>

On the eve of the Agrarian Reform Law in 1952, there were 139,200 such holders, again composing 5 per cent of all 2,802,000 land owners.<sup>3</sup> The estimated total earning population at that time was 8,479,503. The professions mentioned, include engineers, doctors, chemists and pharmacists, professors, lawyers, school administrators, teachers, authors, editors, etc.<sup>4</sup>

1. M. Berger, op.cit., p.274.

2. Egypte, Annuaire Statique 1949-1950 et 1950-1951 (Le Caire: Imprimerie Nationale, 1953) Chapter X, Table II, pp.352-353.

3. Egypt, Statistical Pocket Yearbook, 1953 (Cairo: Government Press, 1953), p.33.

4. Egypt, Statistical Pocket Yearbook, 1952 (Cairo: Government Press, 1952), pp.24-29.

In 1957 the position was approximately the same as in 1947. According to a survey carried out by the Government the urban middle class occupations in that year consisted of a total figure of 249,000. The distribution is given in Table II.

TABLE II<sup>1</sup>  
URBAN MIDDLE CLASS OCCUPATIONS IN EGYPT,  
1957.

Occupation	Number of Individuals	Per cent of Labour force
Professional and Technical	171,000	2.4
Managerial	65,000	0.9
Clerical	193,000	2.8
Total	429,000	6.1

An important factor contributing to the smallness of this middle class element of the population was due to the fact that prior to the Revolution of 1952 the educational system was designed merely to satisfy the interests of the small upper end of the society. The educational interests of all other classes of society were virtually completely

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1. National Bank of Egypt, Economic Bulletin, "Statistics of Labour Forces in the Southern Region", (1960), 13:89 Table III.

neglected. In these circumstances the importance of the middle class "as a vehicle of modernization and the introduction of Western elements into the Arab World"<sup>1</sup> could hardly be over-estimated. Their knowledge, experience and their interests forced them to exercise the influence both covert and overt out of all proportion to their numbers.

#### 5. Religious Aspect

The overwhelming majority of the population of the U.A.R. (Egypt) is Moslem. By the constitutions of 1923 and 1956, Islam is proclaimed the official religion of the State. The trend of the religious pattern of the population from 1897 to 1917 is clearly shown in Table III.

TABLE III<sup>2</sup>

RELIGIOUS SECTORS AND THEIR PERCENTAGE TO THE  
TOTAL POPULATION FROM 1897 to 1917

Sector	1897	%	1907	%	1917	%
Moslem	8,992,203	92.20	11,189,978	91.80	11,623,745	91.0
Christ- ian	717,002	7.54	881,692	7.86	1,181,910	8.33
Jewish	25,200	0.26	38,635	0.34	59,581	0.47
Others	-	-	206	0.00	8,814	0.08
Total	9,734,405	100.0	11,189,978	100.0	12,718,255	100.0

1. M. Berger, op.cit., p.277.

2. Wendell Cleland, 'The Population Problem in Egypt (Lancaster, Pennsylvania: Science Printing Company, 1936), p.116.

The corresponding figures of the census of 1927, 1937 and 1947 are given in full details in Table IV. It will be clear from a simple comparison that the population in all sectors have steadily increased. Despite the growth in population, the proportion of Moslem to non-Moslem elements of the population has remained constant over a period of thirty years (1897-1927), whilst the total population has increased by approximately 46 per cent.

TABLE IV<sup>1</sup>  
RELIGIOUS SECTORS AND THEIR PERCENTAGE TO THE  
TOTAL POPULATION

Sector	1927	%	1937	%	1947	%
Moslem	12,929,160	91.20	14,553,000	91.0	17,398,000	91.0
Christ- ian	1,181,910	8.05	1,304,000	8.0	1,502,000	8.0
Jewish	63,550	0.45	63,000	0.0	66,000	0.0
Others	3,144	0.02	1,000	0.0	1,000	0.0 <sup>2</sup>
Total	14,177,864	100.0	15,921,000	100.0	18,967,000	100.0

Of the minority sects, the Christian population increased by little over 0.8 per cent and the Jewish population by a little

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1. W.Cleland, op.cit., p.116, for the 1927 figures.
  2. U.A.R., Statistical Pocket Yearbook, 1959, "The Egyptian Region" (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1961), p.12, for the figures of 1937 and 1947 censuses. (In Arabic).

less than 0.2 per cent. The population of other sects has remained negligible. This means that the general picture is of a return overwhelmingly committed to Islam with all that is implied in terms of social standards and mores. The latest demographic data in respect of religion is given in Table V.

TABLE V<sup>1</sup>

MAIN MINORITY GROUPS IN 1960

Total Population	Moslems	%	Religious Minorities	Per cent Minorities
26,080,000	23,926,000	91.7	Christians: Copts 2,000,000 Europeans 100,000 Arabs 40,000 Jews 14,000	8.3
Total			2,154,000	

The total population increased by almost 85 per cent. The Moslems population increased by 0.5 per cent and the non-Moslem population fell in proportion of the latter, the Christian Copts grew to 2,000,000 and European Christians reached a total of 100,000. The Jewish element of the population on the other hand, decreased both numerically and percentage-wise.<sup>2</sup> Whilst the Coptic minority represents a dissenting body in respect of the national religion of

1. M. Berger, op.cit., p.254.

2. Ibid. p.256.



approximately one twentieth of the population, in terms of national aspirations they share with the Moslems a unity of purpose. In this respect there is a reflection of the general tolerance shown towards ethnical and religious minorities exercised since the early Caliphs and the Mamelukes when Copts were promoted to the highest and most responsible occupations in the State. This tradition was fostered by Mohammad Ali,<sup>1</sup> and has continued to be a feature of official policy since the Revolution of 1952.

It is to note that this means there is no social differentiation between Moslems and Copts and that "... the racial differences between him [the Copt] and the Moslems Egyptian are still so slight as almost to escape notice, and their mode of living and habits of thought are essentially the same."<sup>2</sup> Moreover, the words 'Copt' and 'Coptic' were exclusively unknown to the Egyptian Christian until he learned the word from the passing European.

To conclude this section brief reference should be made to the general religious, racial and linguistic characteristics of the population. The people of ancient Egypt were drawn from Semitic Mediterranean sources, a subdivision of the Caucasian race and the family to which the name Cushite is given. Throughout history there has been a

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1. Abdel Rahman Al-Rafi'i, *Tarikh al-Harakah al-Kaumiyah "History of the National Movement"* (Cairo: Misr Press, 1929), vol.I, p.59. (In Arabic).

2. Murray Harris, *Egypt Under the Egyptians* (London: Chapman and Hall, 1925), p.160.

consistent process of assimilation which has resulted in the absorption into the indigenous element of the population of the foreign intrusive elements consequent upon the successive invasions the country has undergone.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, no foreign intrusion has determined the racial picture more than any other, in consequence no perceptible racial differences are to be found between the population of the Delta and that of Upper Egypt, or between Moslems and Copts.<sup>2</sup>

Christianity was the prevailing religion in Egypt from 42 A.D. to 640 A.D. From the latter date up to the present time Islam is the faith embraced by the majority of the population. The official language of the country is the Arabic. It began to replace the Coptic language after the Arab invasion. At the present time Arabic is the spoken language of all the people. The consequence of these various features of the population is one great homogeneity in attitudes, language and values.

## 6. Economic Construction

Discussion of the key issues of the economical situation in order to provide an over-all view of the capacity of the country and to establish an appreciation of the educational needs in terms of economic development. The Egyptian people are one of the most rapidly increasing populations of the

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1. E.W. Polson Newman, Great Britain in Egypt (London: Cassel and Co., 1928), p.4.
  2. James Henry Breasted, A History of Egypt, from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926), p.26.

world. The first reliable census probably that achieved in 1882. This was the first official census: prior to that mentioned census, there were only estimates of population based on taxes lists the enumeration of houses and the like.<sup>1</sup>

Table VI displays clearly the pattern of the population growth since 1800 is set out.

TABLE VI<sup>2</sup>

POPULATION ESTIMATES AND COUNTS FOR MODERN EGYPT

(A) POPULATION ESTIMATES OF THE 19th CENTURY

1800, calculated during the French expedition	2,460,200
1821, calculated from tax lists	2,536,400
1846, calculated from census of houses	4,476,440
1882, May 3, census of population	6,831,131

(B) MODERN CENSUSES

Year	Number of Population	Percentage Increase (Between each two censuses)
1897, June 1.	9,734,405	28.6
1907, April 29.	11,287,359	16.2
1917, March 7.	12,750,918	13.0
1927, February 19.	14,217,864	11.5
1937,	15,932,694	12.1 <sup>3</sup>
1947,	19,021,840	19.4

1. W. Cleland, op.cit., p.6.

2. Ibid., p.7.

3. Karam Habib Barsam, Dirasat Al-Mughtam'a "A Study of the Society" (Cairo: Muasat Al-Matbuat Al-Hadithah, 1960), p.35. (In Arabic).

It can be seen despite the limits that have to be put upon interpreting the early estimates the population of Egypt was quadrupled in approximately a century, 1800 to 1897. Meanwhile along the span of half a century it has approximately tripled. The picture of continuing growth is brought out by comparison of the estimate and censuses figures since 1952. According to 1952's estimate the number of the population was 20,852,000.<sup>1</sup> International complications prevented a census being taken in 1957, but the census of 1960 gave the total population of 26,059,000.<sup>2</sup>

Omitting further reference to the estimates prior to 1897, and accepting the increasing validity of census figures from that date onwards examination of population figures give us the following picture.

According to the 1897 census the number of population was 9,734,405 with an increase of 28.6 per cent above the preceding census. The 1907 census gives 11,287,359 with an increase of 16.2 per cent. According to the 1917 census the population reached a number of 12,750,918 with an increase of 13 per cent. The 1927 census accounted the population with 14,217,864 with an increase of 11.5 per cent. In the census of 1937 the number of the population reached 15,932,694, gives an increase of 12.1 per cent. The 1947 census gives an increase of 19.4 per cent, gives a population count of 19,021,840. The latest census of 1960 computed the number of the population as 26,059,000.

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1. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959 (Cairo: Information Department, 1959), p.9.
  2. U.A.R., The Pocket Yearbook, 1962 (Cairo: Information Department, 1962), p.5.

This is a picture of steady and permanent growth. A number of factors have contributed to this process. As in other countries periods of misrule and disturbance are accompanied by low growth and periods of political justice, social stability, and security are followed by a rapid rise in population as well as economic prosperity.

It is interesting to pursue historically the ups and downs of the population's growth, in order to throw some light on this issue. Petrie commenting upon the history of the population of Egypt through ancient and modern times says:

"... it is probable that the country filled up very quickly in all periods of security and good control, such as the old Kingdom, when we may believe the maximum population was attained; In the Rameside times, the military third of the land providing 650,000 men of fit age implies a population of 10 to 12 millions. In the time of Diodorus, after the collapse of the Ptolemaic management it was seven millions. In the 8th century the Arab poll-tax implies six millions besides<sup>1</sup> children and the aged, probably ten millions in all."

The Egyptian birth-rate of 40 per thousand is one of the highest in the world. On the other hand the death-rate of 26 per thousand, the second highest world rate after that of Maritius, severely affects the permanent population increase. Many factors encourage a high birth-rate. (1) The poverty of the peasants makes procreation one of the few pleasures left to him. (2) Cotton cultivation requires much manual labour, thus it provides employment for a large number of children who at an early age become a financial asset.

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1. W.M.F. Petrie, *Social Life in Ancient Egypt* (London: Constable and Co., 1924), p.30.

(3) Early marriage among peasants is the normal tradition.

A groundless assumption attributes the high birth-rate to polygamy and to divorce as practised by some Moslems. Polygamy is an institution in Islam, yet it is practised by only a negligible fraction of the population, some of the very poor and some of the very rich.<sup>1</sup> Much more important is the absence of sufficient education to make it possible for the increasing population to develop the necessary skills to maintain economic expansion in relation to population growth. Dependence upon primitive methods of cultivation and upon peasant industry puts a premium upon having large families.

#### THE LAND

One of the most important consequences of the population expansion without the growth of general knowledge and skills has been that increases in cultivated land have not kept pace with the population growth. Table VII gives the growth of population and cultivated land between 1882 and 1957.

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1. C. Issawi, op.cit., pp.44-45. See also Ramses W. Assad, "Social Survey of Egypt" in 'Civilisations, Quarterly Periodical issued by International Institute of Differing Civilization, 1957, vol.VII, No.1., p.54.

TABLE VII<sup>1</sup>POPULATION AND CULTIVATED AREA; NUMBER OF FEDDANSPER CAPITA, FROM 1882 to 1957, IN EGYPT

Year	Population of Egypt in round numbers	Area of cultivable land in Feddans in round numbers	Number of Feddans per capita
1882	6,888,000	4,758,000	0.69
1913	12,144,000	5,503,000	0.45
1917	12,751,000	5,587,000	0.43
1927	14,168,000	5,600,000	0.39
1957	18,000,000	7,100,000	0.39*

From the above figures it is clear that the trend between 1882 and 1927 was an increase in population throughout the whole period, whereas after 1913 the proportion of cultivable available land was virtually static and the per capita quantity of land available actually fell. According to the U.N. estimates, the cultivable land early in the fifties amounted to 3,495,000 hectares. The actual cultivated land amounted to 2,445,000 hectares. This gives a figure of 0.1 hectare per capita or approximately a quarter acre.<sup>2</sup> Another contribution to discussing this issue was given by a prominent

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.36.

\* 1957 figures are estimate numbers.

FEDDAN = 1.038 ACRES = 4,201 SQ. METRES.

HECTARE = 2.47 ACRES.

2. U.N., Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Economic Development in the Middle East, 1945-1954 (New York, 1955), pp.93-94.

Egyptian economist as follows. It is obvious that a steady decrease took place in the individual's share of the cultivated land. In other words the proportion of land per capita per annum to one-third during the last fifty years.<sup>1</sup>

The ratio of cultivated land increase is thus falling behind the ratio of birth increase. If this trend is not reversed the economic situation will worsen. "The Malthusian theory partly holds true; for while the population seems to be increasing in geometrical progression, the economic resources are not increasing even in arithmetical progression. Almost none of the Malthusian cures of such a situation, namely, war, famine, or moral restraint is seen in Egypt."<sup>2</sup> Whilst industrialisation, redistribution of land, and expansion of irrigation can be expected to contribute to improvement of the situation, it may well be that birth control will have a remarkable contribution to make to the solution of the general population problem.<sup>3</sup> All these developments have educational implications.

Land redistribution and industrialisation require persons having the skills to use the resources, and the effectiveness of the birth control campaigns such as is now being undertaken call for knowledge and understanding, both to overcome past traditions and practices and to carry out control systematically.

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1. Abdel-Razik Mohammad Hassan, Azmatuna Al-Iqtisadiyah "Our Economic Crisis" (Cairo: Al-Nahdah Al-Misriyah, 1953), pp.86-87 and 99. (In Arabic).
  2. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.41.
  3. C. Issawi, op.cit., p.50.



Although the mortality rate at the beginning of this contemporary century was high, yet "... in forty-one years from 1886 to 1927, population increased almost seven times as fast as the land on which it lived, and over two and one half times as fast as the crops raised."<sup>1</sup> The problem is likely to become more difficult in consequence of introducing improved methods of public sanitation and the increased provision of hygiene welfare, which have resulted in the reduction of infant mortality.<sup>2</sup> This in turn, increased the rate of growth of the population, thereby aggravating the already existing over-population problem.

#### OVER-POPULATION PROBLEM

The full measure of the pressure of the population upon agricultural resources in the U.A.R. may be seen in the relation between the growth of each. During the first half of the twentieth century the population doubled, while the cultivated area increased by only a sixth and the cropped area by a third. As a result the number of persons supported on an acre of agricultural land rose from two to four. A considerable rise in yield, especially in the chief export crop, cotton, coupled with some industrialisation, kept the level of living from falling as much as would seem inevitable from such population pressure. Yet the imbalance showed up clearly in

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1. W. Cleland, op.cit., pp.34-35.  
2. M. Berger, op.cit., p.196.

the decline between World Wars I and II, of the consumption of food per capita.<sup>1</sup> The cause of rural poverty seems to be over-population rather than an inefficient agriculture.<sup>2</sup>

According to this study which shows that in a span of a decade 1937-1947, that greatest increase in rural population occurred where inhabitants were sparsest namely in the northern Delta. Conversely, places of high density showed smaller gains, so that there was a definite inverse relationship between growth of population and density. The relationship is illuminated by another factor, the higher the density, the lower the income per person. Thus high density, low income, and a capacity for only limited population growth go together in rural areas of the U.A.R. Up till the present time, in these areas the population has remained on the land rather than been absorbed in urban industry. The government is therefore engaged in two major efforts: (1) To raise the capacity of industry to absorb increases in the labour force, and (2) To increase the area of cultivated land by erection of the High Dam in order to irrigate a great proportion of land. Both the above procedures require some time before they make any serious impact upon the problem and will require development and expansion of the provision of education.<sup>3</sup>

There is no reliable record of the distribution of land

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1. Republic of Egypt, The National Population Commission, The Population Problem in Egypt (Cairo: 1955), pp.11-15.
  2. National Bank of Egypt, The Economic Bulletin (1955) "Observations on the Urbanization and Distribution of Agricultural Population in Egypt", 8: pp.171-181.
  3. M. Berger, op.cit., pp.197-198.

in Egypt before the end of the nineteenth century. The first statistics dated only as far as the year 1896. At that time the number of land owners was estimated to be 767,000. Ten years later this number rose to 1,230,000, and in 1914 it amounted to 1,564,000.<sup>1</sup> In 1920 the distribution of land was recorded as follows:

1,277,000 owned less than 5 feddans with an average of  
over 1 feddan.

76,000 owned 5 to 10 feddans with an average of over  
7 feddans.

11,000 owned less than 20 to 30 feddans.

8,000 owned less than 30 to 50 feddans.

12,000 owned less than 50 feddans.<sup>2</sup>

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1. Gaston Lecarpentier, *L'Egypte Moderne* (Paris: P. Roger, 1920), p. 38.  
2. G. Lecarpentier, *op.cit.*, p. 29.

TABLE VIII  
OWNERSHIP OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN 1930<sup>1</sup>

Size of holding	Owners		Feddans owned		Average No. of Feddans owned in each class
	Number	%	Number	%	
Less than 1 Feddan	1,505,908	68.1	577,036	10.0	0.38
1 to 5 Feddans	547,262	24.9	1,151,132	20.0	2.10
5 to 10 Feddans	83,220	7.0	565,903	70.0	6.80
10 to 20 Feddans	39,690		538,216		13.56
20 to 30 Feddans	12,035		290,052		24.10
30 to 50 Feddans	9,411		360,772		38.34
Over 50 Feddans	12,815		2,306,439		180.02
Total	2,210,341	100.0	5,790,050	100.0	2.62*

\* The average for 1927 was 2.70 feddans, the other ratio being practically unchanged. Between 1918 and 1930 the proportion of the population owning land advanced from 13.1 to 15.1 per cent. Foreigners constitute 3 per cent of the owners, with an average ownership of 77.8 feddans per person. Native Egyptian owners averaged 2.41 feddans per person.

These figures demonstrate that 68.1 per cent of the land-owners, have less than one feddan each, in fact they possess less than 10 per cent of the land, and average only 0.38 of a feddan each; and that 93 per cent, own less than 5 feddans each, holding only 30 per cent of the land, with an

1. W. Cleland, op.cit., p.93.

average of 0.84 of feddans. Those owning more than 5 feddans therefore consist 7 per cent of the total owners and they hold 70 per cent of the land. Now assuming that each holder means one family on the average, then 93 per cent of the land owning families live on 0.84 of a feddan.<sup>1</sup>

LAND OWNERSHIP AND LAND DISTRIBUTION

Table IX will display the outstanding changes in land ownership during a fifty years' duration.

TABLE IX<sup>2</sup>

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND HOLDINGS, FROM 1896 to 1939

(In thousands of feddans and of holdings)

Year	All Holdings		Holdings of less than 5 feddans		Holdings of 5-50 feddans		Holdings of over 50 feddans	
	Number	Area	Number	Area	Number	Area	Number	Area
1896	767	5,002	611	994	144	1,816	12	2,192
1913	1,557	5,296	1,411	1,419	133	1,633	13	2,241
1929	2,176	5,794	2,019	1,708	144	1,759	13	2,327
1939	2,481	5,837	2,323	1,915	146	1,674	13	2,180

It is indispensable to refer to the actual distribution of holdings less than 1 feddan increased in number as follows:

1913     942,530 persons     405,595 feddans  
 1929     1,475,777 persons     569,464 feddans  
 1939     1,751,587 persons     701,857 feddans.

It will be seen that the area belonging to large landowners

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1. W. Cleland, op.cit., pp.93-94.  
 2. C. Issawi, op.cit., pp.72-73.

remained unchanged, that medium proprietors suffered a slight loss, and that all the increase in land cultivation went to the small owners. Actually the process was somewhat different, as newly-reclaimed land is usually taken up by large or medium landowners whose properties are on the other hand constantly being broken up among their heirs.

LAND OWNERSHIP ON THE EVE OF THE REVOLUTION OF 1952

To follow up the trend of this issue, reference must be made to the status of land ownership prior to the Egyptian Revolution of 1952. TABLE X contributes to the elucidation of the situation at that time.

TABLE X<sup>1</sup>

LAND OWNERSHIP IMMEDIATELY BEFORE THE REVOLUTION  
of 1952

Size of holding	Number of owners	Average of ownership size	Total area
Feddans:			
Less than 1	1,981,343	0,39	78,046
1 to 5	618,860	2,14	1,324,030
5 to 10	80,019	6,46	531,024
10 to 20	46,123	13,59	625,700
20 to 30	13,073	23,95	313,078
30 to 50	9,356	37,58	351,577
50 to 100	6,575	67,60	445,111
100 to 200	3,194	136,69	436,403
200 to 400	1,350	268,31	362,217
400 to 600	344	478,04	164,445
600 to 800	141	698,08	98,430
800 to 1,000	92	898,62	82,673
1,000 to 1,500	99	1234,51	122,216
1,500 to 2,000	28	1694,79	47,454
Over 2,000	61	4545,21	277,258

1. Abd El-Aziz Izzat, Thawrat Al-Tahrir W'Al-Islah al-Igtima'i "Revolution of Liberation and Social Reform" (Cairo: Al-Nahdah Al-Misriyah, 1955), p.23. (In Arabic).

The above Table reveals the ill-distribution of land, and indicates a persecution of the majority by the minority. Thus the land ownership was largely limited to a particular class, namely the large landowners consisting of 2,115 individuals. This trifling proportion of the population owned 1,219,900 feddans, one-fifth of the total cultivated land of Egypt. Consequently the promulgation of the Agrarian Reform Law of 1952 was a major act of rehabilitation for the peasants.

The major contribution of the Agrarian Reform Law of 1952 was regarded as fundamental to the improvement of the whole situation of the country, and also as a means of justice towards the masses, by providing the means for raising the standards of living of the peasantry. The 'Law' limited the ownership of land to 200 feddans, permitting an additional 100 feddans in respect of the first two children at the rate of 50 feddans each. Land owned by individuals surplus to the area permitted by the 'Law' were divided and sold to peasants not possessing land, in lots of at least 2 and not more than 5 feddans. Purchase was made possible by a bond system which allowed a period of twenty years for repayment of bond loans.

The application of this law was intended to achieve several objectives: (1) limitation of the size of holdings; (2) distribution and sale to the peasants; (3) an obligation on the owner to farm the land; (4) collectivisation of

farming; (5) the setting up of co-operatives; (6) fixed rents; (7) control of agricultural wages; (8) trade-union rights for agricultural labourers; (9) the bringing of fresh land under cultivation.<sup>1</sup> These achievements imply modification and development of education facilities both at the school and the adult levels, if the agrarian reforms are to be of lasting social and economic benefit.

The second accomplishment concerning the land reform was the promulgation July 1961 by a Presidential Decree which superseded the text of article 1 of Law No. 178 of 1952.

"No person shall be allowed to own more than 100 feddans of agricultural land. This shall also apply to fallow and desert land. Any contracts transferring ownership and constituting a violation of this law shall be annulled and shall not be registered."<sup>2</sup>

The distribution of agricultural land prior to the first law of 1952, and prior to the second law of 1961, and finally an estimate of the situation after the implementation of this last law is provided in Table XI.

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1. U.A.R. The Yearbook, 1960 (Cairo: Information Department, 1960), pp.428-443.
  2. U.A.R., Socialist Laws of 1961 (Cairo: Documentation and Research Centre, 1961), p.33.



TABLE XI<sup>1</sup>

DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN 1952, 1961 AND  
AFTER THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SECOND LAW

Properties	1952		1961		After the Implementation of the Second Land Reform Law	
	No. of owners	Area	No. of owners	Area	No. of owners	Area
<u>Feddans</u> less than 5	2,642	2,122	2,870	2,660	2,920	3,040
5 to 10	79	526	79	530	79	530
10 to 50	69	1,291	69	1,300	69	1,300
50 to 100	6	429	11	630	11	630
100 to 200	3	437	3	450	5	500
Over 200	2	1,117	2	430	-	-
Total	2,801	5,682	3,034	6,000	3,084	6,000

Thus as a result of the implementation of the 1961's land reform law, a tremendous modification in the land tenure is intended. Approximately 13 per cent of the bulk of cultivated land will be re-distributed among 250,000 rural families, consequently approximately a million individuals will obtain the opportunity of social rehabilitation.

AGRICULTURAL EGYPTIAN CROPS

The U.A.R. (Egypt) produces 6 per cent of the total world bulk of cotton, and half of the total long staple production of the world. Thus the greatest proportion of the

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1. National Bank of Egypt, "Economic Bulletin", Vol.14, No.3., 1961.

production comes under the long-staple cotton category. Largely due to optimum climatic conditions and the fertility of the soil as a result of the annual flooding of the Nile, "Egypt provides one-half of the world's supply of the long staple cottons, that is essential to modern mills. Within the memory of man, Egypt, once the corn-producer for Europe, has become its cotton producer."<sup>1</sup>

Agriculture is the backbone of the Egyptian economy. Since the introduction of cotton during the nineteenth century, it became the major cash crop. National prosperity is based on the cultivation of the cotton. Cotton has provided more and quicker returns than any other crop in Egypt. It is also equally true that serious crises have several times shaken the foundations of the national economy due to dependence upon one major cash crop. Cotton crises ensue from a number of factors including local or world over-production bringing about a collapse in prices, conditions of booms or slumps resulting from wars, lack of currency in consumer countries, or stronger foreign competition.<sup>2</sup>

In addition to cotton there are a number of other crops, vegetables, fruit, sugar, wheat, maize, rice, beans, barley. Of these, sugarcane is the second economic crop. Table XII shows the cultivated area per each crop.

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1. George Young, *Egypt* (New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1927), p.209.
  2. C. Issawi, *op.cit.*, pp.64-68; see also J. and S. Lacouture, *op.cit.*, pp.362-363.

TABLE XII  
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN EGYPT  
MAIN CROPS' AREA PER FEDDAN (1894-1947)

Year	Cotton	Wheat	Maize	Rice
1894-95	987,753	1,250,907	1,415,092	170,590
1924-25	1,924,382	1,329,119	1,666,000	97,943
1939-40	1,625,000	1,466,000	1,549,000	547,000
1943-44	713,000	1,917,000	1,994,000	624,000
1947-48	1,254,000	1,630,000	1,608,000	776,000
Year	Beans	Barley	Sugarcane	
1894-95	685,283	487,892	76,814	
1924-25	445,097	353,022	51,356 <sup>1</sup>	
1939-40	385,000	263,000	97,000	
1943-44	427,000	422,000	96,000	
1947-48	382,000	237,000	- 2	

It is obvious from the above Table that there is a correlation between the cultivated area of cotton and that allocated for cereals such as wheat, maize, rice, etc. This relationship is brought out by a comparison of the area devoted to cotton in 1939, i.e., prior to World War II, and corresponding area in 1943, i.e., during the war; and finally, the 1947's figures, which represent the post war period.

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.25.  
2. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.181.

During the period of war the difficulties of the world cotton market resulted in a diminution in the area of under cotton and great increase cereal production for internal consumption. After the war the overall trend is reversed, but cereal production continues to display growth over the 1939 figures.

TABLE XIII<sup>1</sup>  
NATIONAL INCOME ACCORDING TO CURRENT PRICE<sup>2</sup>  
IN EGYPT

Year	Agriculture		Industry		Services		Total income in £ million	Income per capita
	Mil-lion Pound	%	Mil-lion Pound	%	Mil-lion Pound	%		
1937-39	80	48	13	8	73	44	166	10.2
1940-45	144	41	40	11	167	48	351	19.8
1950-53	310	40	97	12	376	48	783	37.0

Table XIII shows that the national income over the period mentioned increased between four and five-fold. At the same time the per capita increase was of the order of something less than four-fold. The contribution of industry

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1. Republic of Egypt, Al-Maglis Al-Da'im L'Tanmiyat Al-Intag Al-Qawmi "The Permanent Council for the Development of National Production, 1955" (Cairo: Misr Press, 1955), p.9. (in Arabic).
  2. Figures of the first two periods are based on Dr. Mahmoud Anis's studies issued in the 'Egypte Contemporaine', No.260 and 261 in 1950, in succession. Whilst the 1950-1953 period figures are computed from the Statistics Department data, excluding the estimate ensued from the governmental sector as a result of the unproductive activities as internal security, on condition that these services were essential for production in other sectors.

to the national income increased a little over seven-fold, but the percentage increased from 8 to 12 per cent still represented a modest proportion of the total income. Whilst the agricultural income increased some fourfold, and still represented a major part of the income despite the fall off of 8 per cent of the total.

### INDUSTRY PAST AND PRESENT

When Mohammad Ali came to power he decided to adopt the European achievements in the technological industrial and military fields. To attain this end, he introduced what were then modern factory techniques and the concept of mass production. Therefore, the medieval guilds and small home industries were neglected. His initial steps in this direction were geared to the production of equipment for the army.<sup>1</sup>

Modern factories were installed for spinning and weaving to provide the army with clothes. These new factories produced cotton, linen and woollen goods. Sugar refineries were also founded. Foundries for producing and mending machinery, tools, spinning equipment and weaving looms were established, and factories for the production and maintenance of steam engines were erected at Bulaq near Cairo.<sup>2</sup> Numerous factories to produce paper, glass, oil, etc., were constructed as well.<sup>3</sup> A factory for small arms, and a well-equipped

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1. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.153.

2. A.E. Croushley, The Economic Development of Modern Egypt (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1938), p.70.

3. C. Issawi, op.cit., p.16.

arsenal was set up in Alexandria, not only to maintain, prepare the fleet, but also to launch new warships.<sup>1</sup>

As a result of the London Treaty and other agreements between 1840-1841, the size of the army was reduced and the related industrial activities suffered. Added to this the Anglo-Turkish Commercial Convention of 1838 gave British traders purchase and sale rights in the Ottoman Empire thereby destroying local industrial prospects.<sup>2</sup>

Ismail's policy extended beyond the provisions of modern industrial, embracing resources directed to all walks of social life as well.<sup>3</sup> During the British occupation industry received no encouragement. In consequence the country suffered a setback in economic and industrial activities.<sup>4</sup> Moreover, the financial activities were monopolised by alien elements. "The economic life of Egypt has been thrown entirely into the hands of foreigners, upon whom the Capitulation confer a privileged position such as no foreign residents enjoy in any European country."<sup>5</sup>

As a result of the World War I Egyptian industry started to revive. Local industry in the form of spinning mills, tobacco, and sugar refineries were established.<sup>6</sup> Economic as well as political independence became clear

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1. A.F. Radwan, op.cit., p.17.

2. C. Issawi, op.cit., p.16.

3. M. Rifaat, op.cit., pp.100-105; A.F.Radwan, op.cit.,p.17.

4. C. Issawi, op.cit., pp.28-29.

5. Valentine Chirol, *The Egyptian Problem* (London: Macmillan and Co., 1920), p.174.

6. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.83.

objectives. The foundation for the fight for economic independence was provided by the Bank Misr, founded in 1920 by Talat Harb and others. The purpose of the founding of the Bank was to provide resources for financing industrial development from Egyptian sources under Egyptian control.<sup>1</sup>

The largest industries which were in operation, after World War I, were: ginning, spinning, and weaving; oil and mining, production of building materials, the processing of tobacco, salt and soda, and boat building.<sup>2</sup> The move towards industrial development came to be identified with urge towards political independence.<sup>3</sup> Issawi reports that the following basic industries were established by the end of the World War II: mines and quarries, cotton industries, cotton-seed oil and soap; milling, sugar, cigarettes, spinning and weaving, glass, metallurgy, engineering, tanning chemical industries, finally paper. In addition fisheries, electricity, building industries were developed.<sup>4</sup>

The shortage of imported materials during World War I gave considerable impetus to industrialisation. Similarly shortages during World War II provided considerable stimulus to further industrial development. As a result the number of people finding employment in industry increased by approximately 40 per cent by the end of World War II.<sup>5</sup>

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1. Amine Youseef, *Independent Egypt* (London: John Murray, 1940), p.XV; A. Boktor, *op.cit.*, pp.31 and 34; C. Issawi, *op.cit.*, p.121.
  2. W. Cleland, *op.cit.*, p.99.
  3. C. Issawi, *op.cit.*, pp.82-83.
  4. *Ibid.*, pp.84-88.
  5. J. and S. Lacouture, *op.cit.*, pp.99-100.

This represented a great social change by the way of growth in the numbers of wage earners and was accompanied by increased demand for education.

The need for more intensive industrialisation was all the more serious because the rapid increase in the population in relation to the very limited area of land available for cultivation made the prospects of a satisfactory livelihood very poor. According to the last census of 1960's figures approximately 26,000,000 of the people were relying for their livelihood on the products of 13,000 square miles of cultivable land.<sup>1</sup>

Whilst the hydraulic engineering projects and land reclamation for agricultural purposes through irrigation schemes can give ease to the situation, these activities are unlikely to prove anything like adequate in themselves. At the same time industrialization must move apace. These developments in their turn will require more skilled men and women, this in its turn will require further development of the educational facilities and their relating to the changing needs of the society.

Among the measures suggested to overcome the problem of an expanding population was that of emigration, but this measure appears to offer little towards a solution of the problem because, "Egyptians, like French, are helpless as far as emigration is concerned. They would rather live miserably

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1. R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.170.



in the city nearest to their homes, than settle in a farther province in Egypt itself. To emigrate to another country is the last resort."<sup>1</sup>

The encouragement of birth control may make some contribution to reducing the rate of population growth, but the main measure is industrialisation and the general development of the rate of national production through agricultural expansion: vertically and horizontally, the promotion of fisheries, animal breeding and husbandry.<sup>2</sup>

Although the birth rate was 1.1 per cent during the first quarter of the twentieth century, it amounted to 2.5 per cent during the last few years. There is no evidence to suggest any decrease in this rate is likely in the foreseeable future. Thus the country is expected to accommodate approximately half a million more individuals per annum.<sup>3</sup>

Therefore, it is essential that the economic basis of the country shall be industrialised. It has already been pointed out that as long as Egypt depends exclusively on cotton, its economic condition is liable to suffer setbacks. Consequently the present government has vigorously adopted, supported, and fostered the planning for industrialization, in order to stabilise the national income level and to promote the standard of living.

The importance of this emphasised by the inequality

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.37.

2. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., pp.359-361 and 440.

3. Egypt, The Permanent Council, op.cit., 1955, p.4. (In Arabic).

between the rate of increase of the arable land and the rate of population between the two World Wars. The total increase in agricultural yields was solely 18 per cent, against a 33 per cent increase in the population.<sup>1</sup>

Industrialisation is not only necessary to meet the problems of over-population and occupational maladjustment, it is also necessary to raise the standard of living. Furthermore the stability of the economic structure is necessary to ensure freedom from foreign pressure in international affairs. Warriner commenting on the necessity for industrialisation says: "Without a continued further expansion of Egyptian industry, ... it is impossible to look for any improvement in their [the peasants'] conditions".<sup>2</sup> Industrialisation is also a prerequisite to attaining an equilibrium between various labour sectors. Worthington says: "But the main outlet for the surplus cultivators in Egypt ... must be progress towards the industrial stage."<sup>3</sup>

The employment figures in respect of the major industries have a bearing upon the educational programme in so far as the provision of skilled persons and trainers is related to the products of the school system. The following Table shows distribution of labour force, by economic sectors between 1927-1947, including males between 15-60 years of age

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1. Doreen Warriner, *Land and Poverty in the Middle East* (Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire: R.I.I.A., 1948), p.32.
  2. D. Warren, *op.cit.*, p.40.
  3. W.B.Worthington, *The Middle East Science* (London: H.M.S.O. 1946), p.2.

TABLE XIV<sup>1</sup>  
DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR FORCE, BY ECONOMIC SECTOR  
FROM 1927 to 1947

	1927-1937		1937-1947	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Agriculture	414,000	82	188,000	21
Industry	68,000	13	182,000	20
Trade, Transport and Profession	21,000	4	406,000	45
Others	3,000	1	118,000	14
Total	506,000	100	894,000	100

Thus it is apparent from the preceding Table that during the decade (1927-1937) the total male labour force increased by 50,000 individuals per annum in addition to an increase of 40,000 individuals per annum engaged in agriculture compared with 7,000 individuals absorbed by industry annually.

The increase in the labour force during the decade 1937-1947 amounted to 90,000 males per annum. Of these, approximately 18,000 persons were absorbed into industry per annum. The agricultural sector accommodated 19,000 persons every year. Whilst the trade, transport, public services absorbed the remainder of the increase. As World War II receded many factories were closed down resulting in approximately 300,000 workers being dismissed from work.<sup>2</sup>

1. Egypt, The Permanent Council ..., p.4.

2. Ibid., p.5.

## CHAPTER TWO

### SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

The purpose of this chapter is to review the provisions and the content of secondary schooling in Egypt prior to the advent of Mohammad Ali to power, in order to establish the main objectives of the teaching provided and to assess to what extent they represent a satisfactory response to changing political, social and economic conditions.

To understand the pattern of secondary education throughout this period it is, however, necessary to take cognisance of the earlier development of education in the country.

This can briefly be described as being made up of the educational system established under the influence of Islam, the attempts made at westernisation by Mohammad Ali, and the successive influences of French and British authorities. The longest established influence is that of the educational system associated with Islam, and which is referred to as the Kuttab system.

### THE EGYPTIAN SOCIETY

Egyptian society during the eighteenth century was similar in character to other contemporary societies in the Middle East. The people were stratified in distinct social categories or castes, with a hierarchical pattern of authority essentially feudal in character. The economics was based upon a peasant agriculture and parallel crafts and forms of

commerce. The dominant religion practised was Islam. A minority, but a significant portion of the community, practised the Coptic form of the Christian religion.

In social terms, the population consisted of two main groups: The ruling class, the Mamluk Amirs, alien in origin, who formed the aristocracy; and the indigenous Egyptians, consisting of the peasants, tradesmen and craftsmen, and the indigenous elite, the shaikhs or ulama. The forms of education provided reflected in certain respects the pattern of the society, dominated by the influence of Islam. Education provided falls into three categories; (1) religious education, (2) apprentice education, and (3) ruling class education.

### I. Religious Education

Religious education was common to the whole community and similar in content and method to that found in all other parts of the Moslem world. There were three stages of religious education, (i) Kuttab, (ii) Madrasah, and (iii) Al-Azhar. These three stages approximated, roughly to primary, secondary, and university education in modern terminology.

#### The Kuttab System.

As a result of the Arab conquest of Egypt in A.D.640, Islam was embraced by the Egyptians. In consequence people were required to learn Al-Qur'an, and to attain this end they had to learn Arabic language. Thus Islamisation and Arabisation

went hand in hand.<sup>1</sup>

Concerning the kuttab curricula, Professor Hitti says: "The curriculum of the elementary school Kuttab, centered upon the Qur'an as a reading text book. With reading went writing. Together with reading and penmanship the students were taught Arabic grammar, stories of the Prophets, particularly the Hadiths relating to Muhammad."<sup>2</sup>

In so far as the Kuttab education gave the pupils competency in reading Al-Qur'an and provided an elementary skill in reading and writing, it may be said to have satisfied the objectives of the community.<sup>3</sup> This objective was the moral and religious preparation of the individual as a good citizen in accordance with the tenets of Moslem ethics and the introduction of the individual into a new order which aimed at controlling almost every end in life.<sup>4</sup>

As the mosque was the central institution of life in the Islamic communities, as a general rule, the provision of facilities for the Kuttab education was carried out in the mosques. Through the discipline of the Kuttab education the Egyptian people were made part of the universal Moslem community.<sup>5</sup>

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1. Hamed M. Ammar, "An Enquiry into Inequalities of Educational Opportunities in Egypt". University of London. M.A.Thesis, 1949 (unpublished), p.98.
  2. Philip Hitti, The History of the Arabs (London: The Macmillan Co., 1949), p.408.
  3. J. Heyworth-Dunne, An Introduction to the History of Education in Modern Egypt (London: Luzac and Co., 1938), p.8.
  4. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.6.
  5. H.M. Ammar, op.cit., p.99.

At the termination of his Qur'anic studies, the pupil could learn elementary notions of arithmetic, from the Kabbani or public weigher in the market place. Thus the 'fiki' of kuttab-teacher was in charge of teaching Qur'an; reading and writing only.<sup>1</sup>

The kuttab studies normally lasted two or three years.<sup>2</sup> The pupil usually began the kuttab education about the age of twelve or thirteen years. This age is computed on the base of the admission to the post-kuttab studies which was generally around fifteen or sixteen.<sup>3</sup>

The kuttab education was financed by the revenue derived from charitable endowments called 'wakfs'.<sup>4</sup> In addition, parents were required to pay a particular sum of money to the fiki every month.<sup>5</sup> All other religious institutions were financed by Wakfs revenue.<sup>6</sup>

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1. E.W.Lane, *The Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians* (London: John Murray, 1923), p.62. See also, Ahmad Izzat Abdel-Karim, *Tarikh Al-Talim fi Asr Mohammad Ali "History of Education in the Reign of Mohammad Ali"* (Cairo: Al-Nahda Al-Misriyah, 1938), p.13. (In Arabic).
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.2.
  3. A.F.Radwan, *op.cit.*, p.62.
  4. The Wakf or Endowment system consisted in essentials of two kinds: the 'Wakf Khairi-charitable endowment' consecrated for religious purposes, was originally placed in the trust of a relative, but controlled by the Ministry of Wakfs or Charitable Endowment. The second form, Wakf Ahli-family endowments, was endowed by individuals who feared the division of the estates or properties earmarked to maintain the memory of the family name. This latter form of endowment provided that the consecrated estates and properties should be handed on from generation of the family in succession. In September 1952, under a new law these family endowments had to be distributed among the legal heirs as specified by the Islamic law of inheritance. This endowment law was passed because of the abuses that had crept into the control of the estates and properties.
  5. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.5.
  6. *Ibid.*, p.3.

There is no means of assessing the number of kuttabs in Egypt during the eighteenth century for the towns and villages outside Cairo.<sup>1</sup> Yet according to such information available the number was appropriate to the needs of the community. In each district of every town there appeared to be an adequate provision of kuttabs, and the same was probably true in the villages.<sup>2</sup>

#### POST-KUTTAB EDUCATION

Two stages fall under this category of education;

- (1) Al-Madrasah, and (2) Al-Azhar.

As soon as the pupil completed his studies in the kuttab, namely, satisfactory recitation by heart of Al-Qur'an, or a part of it, and could read and write to an acceptable standard, he could then pursue studies in Al-Azhar, or in any other of the higher institutions called Al-Madrasah which were attached to mosques in the capitals of provinces.<sup>3</sup>

Al-Azhar<sup>4</sup> provided a form of higher education which

1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.3-4.

2. H.M.Ammar, op.cit., p.100.

3. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.15. See also A.F.Radwan, op.cit., pp.62-63.

4. "The mosque was built by Djawhar al-Katib al-Sikilli (Alias al-Saklabi), general of Abu Tamim Ma'aad a year after the occupation of Egypt by the Fatimids immediately after the foundation of the new capital (al-Kahira, Djumada I 359-Ramadan 361). It was consecrated and opened for service in Ramadan 361 = June -July 972 . . . . Several other Fatimid grants and foundations; al-Aziz Nizar (365-386=976-997) for example made it an academy and erected an almshouse in it for 35 men."  
Quoted from: 'The Encyclopedia of Islam (London: Luzac and Co., 1913), Vol.I, p.532.



was necessary for those who intended to acquire the studies in order to obtain the status of the shaikh or ulama class.

In addition to the college - mosque of Al-Azhar or Madrasat-Al-Azhar, there were other institutions in Cairo and provinces, each with a resident shaikh providing post-kuttab instruction. The number of those attending each was determined by the extent of the Wakf endowment at its disposal.<sup>1</sup>

Students were attracted to Al-Azhar by the sound reputation of some of the teachers. These in their turn went to Madrasat-Al-Azhar because of the wealth of the foundation which resulted in its being able to provide attractive facilities for the teachers. Other provincial madrasahs were in an even more flourishing state, at an earlier date but not all of them were well attended.<sup>2</sup>

Some writers disagree with this picture of higher education, which assumed the existence of several institutions. "the opinion seems to have been founded on slight evidence. The mere existence of a Shaikh voluntarily giving lessons in a mosque cannot be taken as evidence of the existence of a school as such. The cities Cairo, Tanta, Dosuk, Rashid, Dimyat and Mehallah are those which were explicitly mentioned by Al-Jabarti, ..., to have had regular schools in that period.

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1. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.15-18.

2. Ibid., p.15. See also, Amin Sami, 'Al Talim fi Misr' Education in Egypt (Cairo: Dar Al-Kutub, 1917), Section E of the appendix, where he gives the names of 125 madrasahs with brief history of each. (In Arabic).

The authority of Al-Jabarti in this matter is generally well-attested."<sup>1</sup>

#### THE CURRICULA IN THE MADRASAHs

The major subjects offered in the lower stages of education at Al-Azhar and other madrasahs in the provincial towns fall into three groups: (1) Religious studies; (2) Linguistic studies; and (3) Rational studies. The syllabuses were not designed with reference to specific texts or chronological periods, as is the practice in the modern schools of today, but consisted of separate prescribed courses, organised by individual teachers. Hence the fundamental aspect of learning during that century was focused around the teacher who determined what texts he would use.<sup>2</sup>

The education thus provided in the madrasahs, in provincial towns, and at the lower stage of Al-Azhar represented an intermediate programme between the Kuttab (primary education) and Al-Azhar (higher education). The intermediate level of studies may be likened to the grammar school education of the West. In support of this viewpoint we have the evidence of such students as "They [the students] could only be admitted there [Al-Azhar], however, after having memorised certain mutun (compendiums) in grammar, theology, or law at one of the provincial mosque-colleges".<sup>3</sup>

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1. Radwan, op.cit., p.63. See also, Al-Jabarti. 'Agj'ib Al-Athar. Vol.I & II, passim.
  2. Khatab Atiyah Ali, Al-Talim fi Misr fi Al-Asr Al-Fatimi "Education in Egypt during the Fatimid Time" (Cairo: Dar Al-Fikr Al-Arabi, 1947), pp.121-123. (In Arabic).
  3. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.63.

THE CURRICULA OF AL-AZHAR

The courses offered in Al-Azhar and other provincial institutions of higher education were comprised fundamentally linguistic and theological studies. The teaching provided and the syllabuses followed were similar in character in all the institutions offering opportunities for advanced studies.

The studies offered in Al-Azhar were grouped according to their content into: 'Ulum 'Aqliyyah, or rational sciences; and 'Ulum Naqliyyah, or transmitted sciences. In respect of the purposes they were intended to serve they were described as 'Ulum Al-Wasa'il, or instrumental sciences; and 'Ulum Al-Maqasid, or final sciences. In this terminology, the rational sciences are the instrumental sciences, while the transmitted sciences are the final sciences; the former being linguistic and the latter religious.

The rational or instrumental sciences were composed of the following subjects: Nahw (syntax), Sarf (morphology or grammatical inflexion), Balaghah (rhetoric), 'Arud (versification), Mantiq (logic), Hisab (arithmetic) and Miqat (calculation of Islamic lunar calendar). The transmitted or final sciences were: Tawhid (theology), Tafsir (interpretation of Al-Qur'an), Hadith (traditions of the Prophet), Fiqh (jurisprudence), Tajwid (the art of reciting Al-Qur'an); and Qira'at (the science of the accepted reading of Al-Qur'an).<sup>1</sup>

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.41-42.

There was no fixed period of study.<sup>1</sup> Once the student was admitted, he could stay for as long as he wished. All depended upon his desire, need or ability to get an occupation. At the end of his studies in Al-Azhar he obtained the 'Ijazah' or Al-Azhar final degree, which entitled him to teach, and to perform certain legal functions such as judging, drafting marriage contracts, and to preach in the mosques.<sup>2</sup>

## II. APPRENTICE EDUCATION

The pupil who had completed his kuttab studies satisfactorily, was qualified to be admitted to studies at Al-Azhar, or to a similar institution. But the number of places available to students was of course limited. Students who completed their advanced studies received the title of shaikh. A person intending to join a trade, or intending to enter commerce would become an apprentice as a member of the particular corporation which had control of his calling.

According to the traditional customs of the society, the system was governed by traditional usage; in most cases the son followed his father's trade or profession, and often went through the period of apprenticeship under his father's tuition.<sup>3</sup>

Thus, apprentice education provided a great proportion

1. Ahmad Izzat Abdel-Karim, *Tarikh Al-Ta'lim fi Asr Mohammad Ali* "History of Education during the reign of Mohammad Ali" (Cairo: Al-Nahdah Al-Misriyah, 1938), p.54. (In Arabic).
2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, pp.67-75.
3. *Ibid.*, pp.6-7.

of the adolescents with their instruction. In other words, it was the prevailing pattern of education offered to the masses. It was a kind of education, which corresponded to 'learning by doing', in other words it was a vocationally oriented education.

Professor Radwan an eminent Egyptian educationist gives a full and illuminating account of that kind of education, its aims, philosophies and methods, and reaches the following conclusion: "In the grim battle for survival the peasant and the tradesman had neither time nor need for the ornate frills of abstract theology or military science. What they needed most was knowledge about making a living - about providing for such elemental needs as food, shelter, and clothing."<sup>1</sup>

### III. MILITARY EDUCATION

Although the country was under the nominal suzerainty of Turkey, Shaikh Al-Balad, the chief of the Mamluk-Amirs, was the real ruler. Other members of this caste assisted him in exercising his authority.<sup>2</sup>

One of the aims of the Mamluk Amirs was to ensure that these would be a future generations of adherents to serve the

1. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.72.

2. The Mamluk Amirs were Caucasian, Circassian, Georgian or Turkish slaves who came to power after the reign of Salah Al-Din (Saladin) in 1250 A.D. They ruled the country independently up to the Ottoman occupation in 1517. They were the sole rulers till the French occupation in 1798. When Mohammad Ali came to power he got rid of the Mamluks in 1811.

régime. To this end the Mamluk Amirs developed their own system of education, to produce a body of administrators and to ensure the future of the régime. As a result, during the eighteenth century a separate form of education was based on the legacy of traditions and values of this class of the society.

This programme of education was provided for the sons of the Mamluk Amirs and of their subordinates and was concerned specifically with training in the military and administrative skills. In addition the students were also required to learn religious studies in order to provide a strong socio-religious tie between the masters, their subordinates and their subjects. Thus instruction in the basic tenets of Islam was an essential feature of the education provided.<sup>1</sup>

The military school of the Mamluks occupied part of the barracks of the Citadel of Cairo. The studies were divided into two stages, elementary and secondary. In the elementary stage the pupils were taught reading, writing, religious beliefs and morals. During this stage they were indoctrinated with the ideas of loyalty, sincerity and obedience to their masters.

In the second stage of the military school curriculum which the pupils entered upon when they reached adolescence, the studies consisted, to a great extent, of training in the use of weapons, and the medieval arts of fighting. When they

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karīm, op.cit., pp.18-19.

reached a certain degree of maturity, they were given the title of Amir (prince), and were then released from obligation to their respective masters. They were then free to purchase slaves or take under their control other persons to be trained and to serve, in their turn as soldiers or subordinate officials.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE FRENCH OCCUPATION

The French invasion and occupation of Egypt, which took place in 1798, had a distinctly adverse effect on traditional learning in Egypt. Madrasah life was disorganised and, during the three years of the occupation, many of the Ulama and Shaikhs refused to accept French instructions. Many of them were taken prisoners by the French and executed, Al-Jabarti makes reference to these events, the effects of which upon the work of the Madrasah was unfortunate.<sup>2</sup>

Learning in Cairo, which had flourished previously, deteriorated rapidly after the entrance of the French army. This was rather the consequence of the bewildering situation which ensued from the occupation. Yet the French invasion was a turning point in the history of modern Egypt. This historical event brought the Egyptians, suddenly, into direct contact with a disciplined Western military organisation and its modern equipment. The occupation of Egypt by the French was

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1. For a full description of internal discipline, Taqiy Al-Din Ahmed, see Al-Maqrizi, Al-Mawa'iz wa Al-I'tibar bi Dhikr Al-Khitat wa Al-Athar. "Topography of Egypt" (Cairo: Bulaq Press, A.H.1270 = A.D.1854. 2 vols), vol.II, p.213. (In Arabic).
  2. Abdel-Rahman Al-Jabarti, 'Aja'ib Al-'Athar fi Al-Irajim wa Al-Akbar "Wonders in Biographies and Events" (Cairo: Bulaq Press, A.H.1297 = A.D.1879), vol.III and IV. (In Arabic).

not a purely military one, for selected scholars and experts accompanied the army.<sup>1</sup>

The Egyptians watched the French scholars and experts visiting their villages and towns, examining the soil, the water, the fauna and the flora, etc. The common people were indifferent to these activities, but the élite, or the Ulama were amazed by the tremendous task that those scholars had undertaken. The education they had received in Al-Azhar proved obsolete and inadequate when they attempted to interpret the significance of this survey.

The reaction of the élite was threefold. Some showed indifference to the subject, others thought of it as the 'work of the devil', while a small minority realised how deficient their own education had been.

The French campaign acted, therefore, as a stimulus to the progressive Egyptians. A new attitude was evoked which gave an added dimension to the Egyptian thought and culture. It caused a few to examine the content of their education objectively, and inspired them with the wish to emulate the researches and learning of the French.<sup>2</sup>

The research work of the French scholars in Egypt was, however, motivated purely by self-interest and not out of any concern for the Egyptian people. During the three years of their occupation, for instance, the French did not establish

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.96; see also A.F.Radwan, *op.cit.*, p.82.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *op.cit.*, pp.22-23.



a single modern school for the Egyptians, although they founded two schools for the children of French patronage. There was a plan for setting up a school of drawing, but, apparently, nothing was done about the matter. It is true that a civil hospital was founded which, later, was to become the school of medicine, where Egyptians were trained. A further project to establish a primary school was formulated, but again nothing came of it due to the doubt of the French about the success of such an enterprise.<sup>1</sup>

### CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions to be drawn from the foregoing summary analysis is that up to the last decades of the eighteenth century, Egypt was adequately provided with various educational institutions relative to the spirit of the times and the existing order of the society. Mohammad Alī had succeeded in introducing a measure of modernisation, which had been further stimulated by French influence. Moreover, the Kuttab, Madrasah, and Al-Azhar, provided an educational ladder, relatively speaking, fitted to the society.

Many Egyptian educationists have criticised particular features of this system, and the dominant characteristic of all these criticisms was that its educational content was inadequate. However, viewing the educational scene in Egypt in the correct perspective, one cannot but say that the form of education prevalent during the eighteenth century was, in

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.97-98.

the main, appropriate to the needs of the time and existing social and cultural circumstances.

It is admittedly difficult to make comparisons between the past pattern of education and modern institutions since the character of the society has undergone great changes in the course of time, therefore when attempting to describe these institutions, the primary or basic concern must always be to consider the nature of the education system in relation to the dominant factors influencing the society in a particular time, i.e. political, economical, sociological and the like.

SECONDARY EDUCATION  
DURING THE REIGN OF MOHAMMAD ALI (1806-1848)

Mohammad Ali was an officer in the Albanians' corps, which came with the Turkish army to reimpose the Ottoman sovereignty over Egypt. After the evacuation of the French in 1801, and the withdrawal of the Turks, he became one of the two senior officers left behind with the Albanians. He enjoyed a certain prestige owing to his military rank, which helped him to come to the fore, and he could not avoid being drawn into the local politics. He was a subtle man who knew how to look after his own interests. In April 1806 he succeeded in obtaining the position of Governor of Egypt.<sup>1</sup>

With the advent to power, he started his reforms by

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.102.

eradicating the Mamluks from the political scene, and finally by the execution of the massacre of the Mamluks in 1811.<sup>1</sup> Thus the Mamluks were eradicated as a ruling class. He began to consolidate his position by taking certain economical measures including confiscation of all properties including the Wakf endowments, and by monopolising the major economic resources, he became not only the sole ruler of the country, but also the controlling authority of agriculture and commerce.<sup>2</sup>

To maintain his authority, he reorganised the army and the navy along European lines. As a corollary to the reorganisation of the army he established arsenals, dockyards, factories, hospitals, military schools, and set up agriculture departments, all of which were essential to maintaining the army which rose to between 250,000 and 300,000 men.<sup>3</sup>

Mohammad Ali's reforms were innovations. He set himself the task to transform the country from a feudal agricultural state to an increasingly industrial one. In the academic field he changed the orientation of the studies from a concern for medieval theology to attention to the laws of modern science. Despite many difficulties, he succeeded in introducing a wide range of European skills. The greatest difficulty was the obtaining men with the qualifications, skills and will to co-operate in the erection of this tremendous accomplishment.

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1. M. Rifaat, op.cit., pp.31-33.

2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.104.

3. Ibid., p.223.

There were three possible sources of manpower available to him: (1) The products of Al-Azhar and the provincial institutions with their students who were learning theological and linguistic subjects; (2) Expatriates who could be relied upon for only a short time and were not likely to contribute in any great measure to the establishment or the continuity of an independent national system; (3) The establishment of a modern system of education to provide a new group of locally trained persons, who would be capable of responding to Mohammad Ali's innovations and to becoming his loyal adherents.

The educational significance of Mohammad Ali's determination to modernise Egypt and to make her a strong independent nation was emphasised by sending men to Europe to be trained in Western technical fields, theoretical and practical. Those missions encompassed the military sciences, ship-building, printing and engineering. The first mission was sent to Italy in 1809,<sup>1</sup> and was followed by educational missions to England and France.<sup>2</sup> In 1826, 44 students were sent abroad, and the number rose to 114 in 1833.<sup>3</sup>

The first modern schools established were special schools for higher education, to train men in modern skills in the technical and administrative domains, who in turn

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *op.cit.*, pp.89-90.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, pp.105-106.
  3. H. Rifaat, *op.cit.*, p.41; A.F.Radwan, *op.cit.*, p.87; see for a full account for the students' names, and fields of specialisation, J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, pp.157-180.

would undertake duties in the army and various governmental departments. Mohammad Ali's educational system was therefore fundamentally utilitarian in purpose.

Bearing in mind the great importance attached to military objectives, it is obvious that the whole thinking of Mohammad Ali in the realm of education was confined to the needs and requirements of the army. After sending educational missions abroad, "In 1833, the Polytechnic school was founded all the teachers except two being Egyptians. Soon preparatory schools to feed the Polytechnic were organized in Cairo and Alexandria."<sup>1</sup> In addition, these steps were followed by the provision of a system of primary schools.

The pattern of educational development during Mohammad Ali's reign was that of an inverted pyramid with the maximum of effort given to the provision of special schools and the minimum of effort to the provision of primary schools. Kabbani comments on the situation that Mohammad Ali "was obliged to recruit his higher institutions, for which he felt the greatest immediate need, and for a time these recruited their students from old institutions. Then he established modern secondary schools, and, later, modern primary schools, to give children an education that would prepare them more adequately for higher courses."<sup>2</sup>

In order to ensure complete coordination with the aims

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1. Sydney Nettleton Fisher, *The Middle East: A History* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1959), p.285.
  2. Ismail Al-Kabbani, *A Hundred Years of Education in Egypt* (Cairo: Government Press, 1947), p.6.

of education in general, the schools administration in that era was controlled by a 'Diwan Al-Jihadiyah' or War Department. Schools continued to be attached to the former 'Diwan', until a new 'Diwan' was established which was constituted solely to organise the education system. 'Diwan Al-Madaris' or Schools' Department was founded in 1837.<sup>1</sup>

There now existed, for the first time in the history of the nation, a system which was comparable with those of the West. In other words, a balanced educational ladder on French lines was introduced in the third decade of the nineteenth century. In the Egyptian society, at the nineteenth century, this secular pattern of education was completely exogenous.

The newly introduced secular pattern of education which was completely alien, ran parallel to the religious pattern of education which was traditional and indigenous in character. Both systems of education are in operation at the present time, each one has its own channel. Thus the present quality of education may be attributed to the era of Mohammad Alī. Many writers regard this duality of educational ladder as the most stubborn problems handicapping the integration of the educational structure.<sup>2</sup>

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.103-106. See also A.Sami, op.cit., p.9.
  2. J.Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.181; A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.93.

### PREPARATORY STAGE

The secondary stage during Mohammad Ali's reign was called 'preparatory' (in Arabic Al-Tajhiziyah), a word which has been adopted or used in all English references and books dealing with education in that particular period.

The preparatory stage constituted the second or intermediate stage of educational ladder. Although Diwan Al-Madaris stipulated the establishment of that stage, it had been in operation prior to the existence of the Diwan itself. According to the provision of these regulations, "the preparatory schools were intended for the continuance of the instruction of those who had passed out of the primary schools, with the object of preparing them for special schools." There were to be two, one in Cairo and the other in Alexandria, both of which were to run on similar lines. The former was to accommodate 1,500 pupils and the latter 500. "The course was to be of four years duration with the possibility of a fifth year at the discretion of the teaching committee of the school."<sup>1</sup>

### THE CAIRO PREPARATORY SCHOOL

The first preparatory school in Egypt was established in the year 1825. It was accommodated or occupied the site of 'Kasr Al-Aini' in Cairo. It held 500 pupils,<sup>2</sup> the majority of

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.196.

2. Yacob Artin, L'Instruction Publique en Egypte (Paris: Ernest Leroux, 1890), p.71.

whom were sons of Turks and other aliens by origin, who occupied civil and military posts in the Egyptian government. The number of pupils was increased to 800. In 1833 the number reached 1,200. The main elements attending that school were 200 Egyptians, 150 Turks, and 250 sons of Mamluks. The remainder represented other nationalities or alien sects, but the dominant element was non-Egyptian. Some writers assert that according to the intention of some pupils' parents were in many cases enrolled "by means of intercession."<sup>1</sup> This stage of education was free, the pupils were fed, clothed, lodged, and received a monthly salary.<sup>2</sup>

When the Government reorganised the school, in accordance with the Regulations of Diwan Al-Madaris issued between 1836-1837, there were 580 pupils attending the school. Although the Government was quite generous with its financial allowances, the standard of achievement was comparatively low. This unsatisfactory situation was due to the deficiencies of the pupils, inadequate syllabuses, and unqualified teachers.

To remedy the situation, 400 pupils out of the total school enrolment figure 850, were transferred to constitute the first primary school in Cairo. Hence after the implementation of the decision of the Diwan, approximately 50 per cent of the pupils were transferred. Notwithstanding the above measure, the state of the school became complicated.

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1. Ali Mubarak, Al-Khitat Al-Tawfikiyah "Topography of Egypt" (Cairo: Bulaq Press, 1888), vol.III, section 9, p.40. (In Arabic).  
 2. A.I.Abdel-Karim, op.cit., p.223.



This complication was due to the huge numbers of the primary schools leavers. In 1836, for instance, the number of pupils rose to 1,589. Though that number was reduced as a result of the elimination of the pupils who had not attained the required standard for admission to the preparatory stage.

In 1839 the attendance reached 900 pupils. They were distributed among the fourth, third, and second grades, as the first grade (final grade) had not yet been formed. In order to raise the standard of those graduating from this school, some special schools refused to admit pupils until they successfully completed their preparatory stage. Nevertheless the primary schools graduated large numbers of pupils every year. In 1839, the primary schooling leavers or graduates, numbered 431 and they were accepted in the preparatory school. The Diwan faced with the problem of accommodating 1,500 pupils in a single building, and of providing instruction, food, clothing, and salaries to all, prohibited any further enrolment until the pupils who were admitted, at that time, had completed the preparatory course.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE CAIRO PREPARATORY SCHOOL SYLLABUSES

According to the Regulations "there were to be four classes in which the following subjects were to be taught: (a) Arabic, (b) Turkish, (c) Persian, (d) arithmetic, (e) elementary algebra, (f) elementary geometry, (g) general

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.224-228.

notions of history, (h) general notions of geography, (i) calligraphy, (j) drawing (linear, figure and landscape). The division of the subjects among teachers was to be prescribed by the teaching committee of the school for the final approval of the Majlis."<sup>1</sup>

It is not necessary to examine the syllabuses in detail. These syllabuses provided the following course of study:

I. FIRST YEAR (FOURTH GRADE), Arabic language, Turkish language, and calligraphy.

II. SECOND YEAR (THIRD GRADE), Arabic language, Turkish language, Persian language, geometry, arithmetic and calligraphy.

III. THIRD YEAR (SECOND GRADE), Arabic language, Turkish language, Persian language, geometry, arithmetic, calligraphy, history, geography and drawing.

IV. FOURTH YEAR (FIRST GRADE), Arabic language, Turkish language, Persian language, algebra (in addition to a complete revision to the previous syllabuses of geometry and arithmetic), calligraphy, history, and drawing.<sup>2</sup>

The syllabuses were designed in order to offer to the beginners, a course relevant to their level of maturity. For reason some subjects were omitted to avoid pressing the pupils too hard. Moreover the teaching committee of the school

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.196.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.228-230.

considered this grade as a continuation of the antecedent stage, i.e. primary. In other words, the fourth grade represented a completion of primary education. The Turkish language was the one new subject to be taught. The most outstanding aspect of the fourth grade syllabuses was the neglect of arithmetic. Review of this omission resulted in a reaction and overloading of certain academic aspects of the curriculum. The basic courses did not make any provision for drill and games, while the aesthetic subjects, such as drawing, were allocated to the second and first grades only. Thus the syllabuses were inadequate in quantity and quality.

A new attitude had been adopted concerning teaching of languages. Many books were published in Arabic, which were to be used in the second and fourth grades in particular. The pupils benefitted very little by the explanation of Arabic syntax given by Turkish teachers but also according to Turkish rules. In order to remedy this, new methods were applied and the Turks were replaced by Egyptian teachers who explained the subject according to the Arabic rules. Implementation of this task ensued a specialisation of Turkish teachers for teaching the Turkish language and history.

The consequence of such confused arrangements was a low standard of pupils' achievements in almost all subjects and particularly in writing. Composition and dictation were done as home-work which included besides, a written summary of the daily lessons. The Turkish language was eliminated from the syllabuses of the fourth and third grades and the Persian

language had been abolished in 1839, from the preparatory school syllabuses.

For the first time in the history of the preparatory education a European language was stipulated. This had occurred when the French language was allocated for the fourth grade. In accordance with the provision of the 1841's Regulations, it was confined to the School of Languages only. Though it was the first European language included this stage of schooling, yet there is no evidence to indicate that the French language was studied by other than a few pupils. At the end of Mohammad Ali's reign, the School of Languages asked for ten selected pupils only among the fourth grade to study French instead of the Turkish language.

Regarding mathematics, algebra was introduced to the second grade programme, having already been taught in the first grade. Arithmetic and geography were prescribed in the fourth grade syllabuses. These modifications were introduced to raise the level of achievement of the preparatory pupils. Nevertheless, the results of these reforms were restricted as some special schools accepted preparatory pupils before they had completed the preparatory school course.

For many years the Polytechnic School, had recruited its students from among the advanced pupils of the second preparatory grade. The School of Languages admitted pupils of the third preparatory grade, i.e., after a couple of years post-primary education only. Owing to these varying practices

many of the special schools complained of the lower educational standard of their graduates.<sup>1</sup>

In 1836,<sup>2</sup> the Cairo Preparatory School was transferred to Abu Za'bal, to evacuate its building for the School of Medicine. This situation lasted for five years. In 1841, a Decree was issued which stipulated the abolition of the preparatory school, as well as a huge number of primary schools. This Decree was promulgated due to a new policy of reducing the number of the schools in order to reduce government expenditure. A Commission on Education was appointed in 1841 to examine the provision of education in the light of the actual need of the special schools. Among the proposals of this commission was the foundation of preparatory classes to be annexed to the School of Languages. A provisional enrolment of 300 pupils was recommended.

#### THE ALEXANDRIA PREPARATORY SCHOOL

Although there was provision in the Diwan Regulations for a preparatory school at Alexandria, there is no evidence to indicate the organisation of such a school up to the year 1844.

There was however, a Naval School at Alexandria. It provided for 1,000 pupils to be trained in the naval skills. The Diwan reorganised these pupils, placing them in three categories, 500 pupils in the preparatory stage, according to

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1. A.I.Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.232-233.

2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.218.

the provisions of the Regulations, 200 pupils in the primary stage, and in order to continue the Special Naval School tradition, the remaining 300 pupils were to be increased to 400, by adding 100 pupils from the Artillery School at Turah, near Cairo.

In 1844 the Diwan Al-Bahariyah (Naval Department) recognised that it was necessary to apply the Regulations more efficiently as more qualified men were required. The Diwan drew up detailed regulations for the school's administration.

However, as a result of financial difficulties at the end of the long period of war which was concluded by the Treaty of London in 1840, economies were made in educational expenditure and number of pupils admitted between the ages of 7 to 9 years was limited to 225.

The period of study of six years was divided into two stages, each of which lasted three years, for the primary and preparatory courses. This means that the preparatory schooling was less by one year than that of the Cairo school.

Until 1845 there were only five grades divided as follows: three for the primary, and two for the preparatory. In 1847, there were three primary grades, in addition to a single preparatory one.

The Alexandria preparatory classes were relatively weak in comparison with the Cairo preparatory school. This was due to the lack of instruction in such fundamental subjects as mathematics, languages, geography and history.

During the reign of Abbas, the Alexandria Preparatory School was closed before the actual completion of the first three years' grades under the revised regulations.<sup>1</sup>

At the termination of the scholastic year, examinations were held for every class to decide on class promotion. While the final examination results were to decide which of the pupils should be admitted to the special schools. The examinations were carried out by a team of examiners sent by the Diwan, and by members of teaching committee of the school. The results of the examination were sent to the Diwan. Pupils who failed to pass the examination were usually employed in small posts in the government.

This examination procedure followed lines stipulated by the Regulations promulgated in 1836-1837.<sup>2</sup>

#### THE HIGH SCHOOL

The date of the foundation of the High School at Al-Khankah, differs according to available resources; thus for example Sami gives the date of June 1836.<sup>3</sup> Heyworth-Dunne, on the other hand, states that "it was attended by Artin Ef who went to Europe in 1826 as a member of the education mission."<sup>4</sup>

The school was called Al-Maktab Al-'Ali, which means in French 'École Supérieure' or 'École des Princes'. It was

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.235-241.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.197.
  3. A. Sami, op.cit., app.III, p.55.
  4. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.139.

organised on European lines as a military school for the training of the ruling family and sons of high officials.<sup>1</sup> In addition, there was room for other boys who found favour with Mohammad Alī, and were granted admittance to the High School.<sup>2</sup>

The Diwan Al-Khedive supervised Al-Maktab Al-'Ali. Meanwhile the educational or technical supervision was bestowed on the Diwan Al-Madaris. This involved the imposition of policies with regard to teaching methods, supplying supervisors, who in turn reported upon the educational conditions, and a commission to the High School at the end of the scholastic year to examine the pupils. This was composed of the Director of Diwan Al-Madaris and a team of the high officials.<sup>3</sup>

In 1842, Diwan Al-Madaris issued a regulation to the effect that this school was to accommodate 200 pupils who were to be distributed among five grades. The institution combined both a primary and a preparatory school. According to the Diwan's regulations it was the purpose of that school to prepare the pupils for admission to the special schools.

Although the number of the pupils was fixed in the 1842 regulation at 200, it was increased to 393. As a result of the excellent reputation the school had acquired, the number was increased to 563 in three years. The majority of

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1. Y. Artin, *op.cit.*, p.180.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *op.cit.*, p.241.

3. *Ibid.*, pp.242-243.



the pupils were the sons of palace officials, notables, high officials, and some aliens. In 1847 the number of the pupils increased again to 640. Under the circumstances the government began to reorganise the school to accommodate 1,000 pupils.<sup>1</sup>

In 1844, the Diwan promulgated two more regulations. Moreover a special decree concerning the High School was issued. In accordance with the 1844 regulations, it was divided into three sections; primary, preparatory, and special. As has been pointed out, the new project was designed for an enrolment of 1,000 pupils who were to be distributed as follows: 340 for the primary, 400 for the preparatory and the remainder for the special stage. Four new classes were organised for the primary stage, and similar measures were undertaken for the preparatory stage. An independent section of the building was designated for the special stage. Nevertheless the classes devoted for the latter stage remained unfinished till the end of Mohammad 'Ali's reign.<sup>2</sup>

The duration of studies at that school lasted for five years. Two years were allocated for primary education, and three years were devoted to the preparatory course. The basic subjects in the primary level were similar to those given in other primary schools. They were composed of the learning of Al-Qur'an, reading and writing. The above was required from the first year pupils. Concerning the memorising

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.243-244.

2. Ibid., p.245.

of Al-Qur'an a quarter was required. Second year pupils were to complete the memorising of Al-Qur'an. In addition, reading and writing and calligraphy were required. Thus the pupils finished their primary education without acquiring any knowledge of arithmetic, geography, history, and other essential subjects.

After completing his primary education, the pupil was promoted to the first year (third grade) of preparatory education, where he was taught Persian, Turkish, and Arabic. In addition to syntax, morphology<sup>1</sup> and calligraphy, arithmetic was taught to the pupils in this grade.

When the pupil was promoted to the second year (second grade), he continued with these subjects by studying them more thoroughly. In Arabic he was taught composition and dictation. New subjects were added when the pupil reached the third year (first grade). These were drawing and geometry. Some preparatory pupils were taught French, history and literature. In addition, they were taught arithmetic and geometry in French. These pupils consisted of the princes and their relatives.

Thus the pupils finished their preparatory studies at the High School, in preparation for joining the special section or any of its stages, or any other special school. In spite of the importance of algebra, history and geography to the pupils attending special school, they were omitted

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1. The books studied by the pupils in the High School were the same as those used in other preparatory schools.

from the syllabuses. So an additional year was prescribed for those who had finished their preparatory studies, in order to learn the subjects which had been neglected before, such as: geometry, algebra, drawing, history. Besides, they were required to study the French language. The successful pupils who finished that year could be admitted to the special section. According to the Regulation, this section was divided into two branches: (i) military, and (ii) civil; which differed from each other in the subjects taught. It appears that this section did not come into existence until the end of Mohammad 'Ali's reign.

The conclusion to be drawn from the foregoing analysis is that most of the schools were essentially military establishments; those that were primarily military, were either recruiting grounds for the services, or else they were devoted to provide for the technical requirements of the army.<sup>1</sup>

According to the Regulations of 1836-1837, the function of the preparatory stage was to prepare recruits for special schools.<sup>2</sup> It thus provided an intermediate stage within the modern educational ladder parallel with the French one. It was a transitional stage between primary and special education.

It is to be noticed that there was no co-ordination between the designation and implementation of the educational

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.203.  
2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *op.cit.*, p.225.

policy. It was the inevitable result of Mohammad Ali's educational innovations. Some writers commented on the educational conditions during that period: "The schools were created according to the needs; they formed an agglomeration of schools and not a system."<sup>1</sup>

There was no co-ordination between what was required by the Regulations, and what was practised, in other terms the relationship between the two aspects of any project, theoretical and practical, was ignored. For example, the establishment of the Cairo Preparatory School was laid down in the 1836-1837's Regulations, yet it had been established since 1825. The Alexandria Preparatory School, on the other hand, was not established until 1844, that is to say about eight years after the promulgation of the Regulations, for its establishment.

Many examples of inefficiency occurred in the arrangements at the preparatory stage. There was no strict adherence to the rules with regard to the number of pupils, duration of study, curriculum, or relationship between pre- and post-preparatory stages.

There was no strong link among various educational levels. Though all aimed at an ultimate end, namely, the preparing for posts in the army and the government. There was no integration between the number of the primary schools leavers and the two schools in Egypt. There was also no

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1. H.E. Ammar, *op.cit.*, pp.107-108.

relationship between the preparatory school in operation and the ten existing Special Schools. Thus, those schools were obliged to recruit from among the preparatory pupils. The consequent result was a steady decline in the standard of achievement of the pupils.<sup>1</sup>

Centralisation was the predominant trait of the educational activities during the era.<sup>2</sup> Regulations were designed by the Diwan, and handed to schools for the latter to follow. The Diwan was also responsible for appointing staff and pupils and their transfer, for founding schools, and for closing them. It is true that the Diwan was made responsible for carrying out those tasks, and that Mohammad Ali had adopted the Napoleonic concept of centralisation of administration.<sup>3</sup> But it seems that centralisation which entitled the central authority to put down everything in detail, what every teacher shall teach and what every pupil shall study, did not in fact apply in practice. Special schools had complete freedom regarding the curricula, alternation, and selection,<sup>4</sup> and the preparatory schools also secured these privileges, and the teaching committee of the school, had the right to fix the duration of the period of schooling at four or five years.<sup>5</sup>

The most concrete defect in the preparatory stage was in fact, the length of schooling. The preparatory stage

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.606-610.

2. Ibid., p.216.

3. R. Galt, op.cit., p.38. See also A.I. Abd Al-Karim, op.cit., p.71.

4. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.181.

5. A.F. Radwan, op.cit., p.90.

provided the primary school leavers, who spent only three years, with a programme of studies that was spread over four years, prior to the admission to the special education. This naturally resulted in a deterioration of the standards expected of the graduates from the preparatory stage. Weakness of the recruits admitted to the special school resulted in many of them being unable to pursue this stage satisfactorily.<sup>1</sup>

An unsatisfactory policy had been pursued also by some special schools which recruited preparatory pupils before the completion of their preparatory courses. One result was that it became necessary to prolong the stipulated length of time of attendance in order to obtain satisfactory standards of attainment.

Another criticism is made in respect of the deficiencies of the syllabuses at this stage of education. As referred above the criticism is confined to the Cairo Preparatory School only.

The major defect of the prescribed syllabuses for the preparatory stage was the overloading of the linguistic studies. The Arabic language, for instance, was taught superficially. It was taught as a series of separate lessons of syntax and morphology. Though it was the language of the Egyptians little attention was given to Arabic. The Turkish and Persian languages of the ruling class were pursued at

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.218.

the expense of the national tongue.<sup>1</sup>

Though Radwan reports that "French and Italian were taught"<sup>2</sup> in the Cairo Preparatory School, no serious attention was given to the providing of modern European languages.<sup>3</sup> Other fundamental subjects such as: biology, physics, chemistry, and the like were absolutely disregarded, although they are vital for preparing pupils who desired to enrol in such special schools as medicine, pharmacy and veterinary science. Regarding other fields of subjects, inadequate time was allocated for social subjects and mathematics. Both were limited to the second and first grades.

No importance was attached to art, and drawing was confined to the last two grades of the preparatory course. There was no time given to hygiene, music, horticulture, in spite of the importance of these subjects at the adolescent stage of the pupils span of life. Tremendous emphasis was laid upon academic or theoretical studies, but the empirical or practical facets of human knowledge were almost entirely ignored.

Owing to the excessive allocation of the syllabuses to linguistic and religious studies the examinations became merely tests of memory. The pupils who were to be examined revised their text books. In consequence of the defects of the system, the level of attainment of the pupils pursuing

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.627-628.

2. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.88.

3. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp. 232-233.

the preparatory school was very unsatisfactory.

Great emphasis was placed upon discipline in the school, not only in preparatory school, but also in all other schools of Mohammad Ali. Obedience was regarded as the keypoint of discipline. Educational institutions were generally run on military lines. Education was a rigid and strict process, with disobedience looked upon as a capital crime.<sup>1</sup>

#### RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

Due to the inadequate provision or knowledge he received in the school, the role of the preparatory pupil within society was restricted. Education and military conscription complemented each other, as both applied compulsory recruiting.<sup>2</sup> As has been mentioned repeatedly, the pupils were educated, fed, clothed, lodged, and received pocket money, all at the expense of the government. They had only one opportunity to visit their families during the scholastic year, i.e. during the summer holidays. That privilege was confined to the obedient, industrious and successful pupils only.<sup>3</sup>

Apart from the deficiencies of the syllabuses, the inappropriateness of this policy tended to produce an incompetent attitude towards education. To prohibit social contact between the pupils and their families as a punishment

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1. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.85.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.644-645.

3. Ibid., p.635.



is always morally wrong. Moreover, the boarding system of the schools, during this particular era, had little effect on the people's way of life. Parents and relatives of the pupils were ignorant of the subjects taught to their pupils. Thus schools detached the pupils from the society rather than fitted them for service in society. Furthermore, the narrow utilitarian objectives of the education institutions prevented education from becoming a leaven in social thought and action.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE OUTCOME OF MOHAMMAD ALI'S INNOVATIONS

To terminate this chapter it is indispensable to refer to the general influence of Mohammad Ali's schools, and the effects or consequences of the innovations introduced by Mohammad Ali, in the realm of education as a whole. These effects can be summarised as follows:

Firstly, Governmental employment, either in the military or the civil sector, was held in great esteem. Since the traditional policy was to employ those who attended 'special schools' in higher posts in the government and even those who ended their education in the preparatory schools obtained minor posts in government service, a new class of society began to emerge. This élite class may be considered to be the nucleus of a middle class, of the graduates of these schools who came to enjoy great prestige and certain social and financial privileges.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., pp.647-648.

Secondly, the creation of a gap between the products of the schools and society at large gave rise to a problem of the Egyptian education that continued to affect Egyptian society for a long time. This particular problem resulted directly from the educational measures inaugurated by Mohammad Ali.

Thirdly, the duality of education that resulted from Mohammad Ali's measures created another problem that for long was to affect Egyptian society.

CHAPTER THREESECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE REIGNS OFMOHAMMAD ALI'S SUCCESSORSI. THE REIGN OF ABBAS I (1849-1854)

In 1849, Abbas came to the throne, he reigned for six years. He carried out several modifications in administration, and dismissed many of the foreign officials, who had worked in the service of his grandfather.<sup>1</sup> Dunne's comment on his reign is as follows: " 'Abbas reigned for six years, during which time the country was given the peace and quiet it needed so badly after the exhausting years of the reigns of Mohammad 'Ali and Ibrahim. He removed the commercial monopolies."<sup>2</sup>

During his reign railways and telegraph were introduced to Egypt, construction of the railway and telegraph systems were supervised by British engineers, Stephenson, the son of the famous inventor, was among those experts. By the construction of this railway "in 1854 between Alexandria and Cairo the first railway line was laid in the East."<sup>3</sup>

Unlike his grandfather, Abbas did not pursue the programme of reform that was such a feature of the preceding era. In education, Abbas stopped the promotion of teachers

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.288; and M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.94.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.289.
  3. M. Rifaat, op.cit., pp.94-95; J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.291.

and pupils, and prohibited the making of new appointments to the schools. These steps were taken under new regulations prepared by Diwan Al-Madaris.

Abbas, was in his own way as zealous for his policy which reversed the process of expansion as Mohammad Ali had been for his. The main features of the way in which this limiting of the educational effort was carried out is clearly indicated in the following summary of events.<sup>1</sup>

(1) The School of Veterinary was transferred to Menuf in November 1848 and was closed down after a couple of months.

(2) The military schools were taken away from the supervision of Diwan Al-Madaris, and were put under the supervision of the Department of War in 1849. Afterwards all these schools were closed down. The Madrasat Al-Mafruzah was established in their place.

(3) The Naval School was closed down in February 1849.

(4) All the primary schools at provincial capitals were closed down in March 1849.

(5) Dr. Clot (Director of the School of Medicine and in charge of educational affairs), was retired in April 1849.

(6) The High School was transferred to a special regiment or corps, and later its pupils were enrolled into the Madrasat Al-Mafruzah.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *Tarikh Al-Ta'lim fi Misr. "History of Education in Egypt"* (Cairo: Al-Nasr Press, 1945), vol.I., pp.16-18; J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.293; A.Sami, *op.cit.*, App.III, p.51; A. Mubarak, *Al-Khitat*, vol.IX., pp.295-296. (In Arabic).

Abbas thus not only rejected the policy of educational expansion, but he also began to demolish the whole system of education.

The main task here is not the pursuing every aspect of Abbas's general policy, but the concentrating of attention on an analysis of his educational policy and the educational activities during his reign. Many historians consider Abbas's reign as one of the worst periods in modern Egyptian history. Some of them consider his reign as reactionary, when contrasted with process of development and reform during Mohammad 'Ali's reign.<sup>1</sup> Abbas contributed nothing to the country neither before his accession nor afterwards. He was suspicious, stubborn and proud. He had no capacity for exercising the authority of a ruler. The only justification for his status was that he was the grandson of a great ruler. As a result of his policies of neglect, education fell into a state of decay and many schools were abolished. He not only suspended the majority of educational establishments, primary, preparatory and special, but he also expelled a group of Egyptian scholars and educationalists to the Sudan.<sup>2</sup>

Some writers have expressed a contradictory opinion. In support of their opinions they argue that it was necessary to restrict the educational efforts because of the financial difficulties. Furthermore, they express the view that the schools that remained enjoyed greater freedom under the reign

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1. Abdel-Rahman Al-Rafi'i, *Asr Isma'il "Reign of Ismail"* (Cairo: Misr Press, 1932), vol.I, pp.9-10. (In Arabic).  
 2. A.R. Al-Rafi'i, *op.cit.*, vol.I, p.15.

of Abbas, and maintained their standards.<sup>1</sup>

The previous views were supported by Dunne, who claimed that: "Abbas must be credited with having a character of his own and better knowledge of his country's needs than many of the office-seekers around him .... As a boy, he appears to have refused to submit to a European education, but he did not neglect Islamic culture .... If he hated Europeans and secluded himself from their society, he did so in order to stem the tide of western penetration which had been encouraged during the last decade before his accession."<sup>2</sup>

Discussing the abolition of schools, Dunne comments: "... Some of the schools were closed during the later years of the reign of Muhammad 'Ali, but most native writers press the point much further than Europeans and measure the progress and intellectual standards of their country by the mere number of schools and students and the amount of money spent on them; quality and efficiency are ignored, or perhaps not understood." He concludes this discussion as follows: "... If the educational system had failed under Mohammad 'Ali, and it certainly had failed, then why should Abbas be made a scapegoat for this failure?"<sup>3</sup>

To take up such an attitude towards the failure, or rather, abolition of the educational system during Abbas's reign is more of an apology than a defence. The statement

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, p.9.  
 2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.289.  
 3. Ibid., p.291.

that Mohammad 'Ali's educational system had failed during the last days of his rule, is a conclusion drawn solely by Dunne. There is no other reference to support this opinion. Mohammad 'Ali's government saw in 1840 the benefit of adopting a restrictive policy towards education; it began to limit the number of pupils and to dismiss some teachers. This new attitude was inspired by a desire to economise, and it does not mean that the educational system was deteriorating.<sup>1</sup>

Some specialists who have written on this subject, have termed the Schools Regulations of 1840, as the instrument of the second educational reforms, considering the 1836-1837 Regulations as the first stage of educational reform. They are of the opinion that these two Regulations organised by Mohammad Ali spread the majority of preparatory and special schools, and provided accommodation for a designed number of pupils. To provide recruits for these schools, four primary were provided, in addition to another primary school in Cairo. This was done in order to give an equilibrium to the educational system.

This is not said in exaggerated praise of Mohammad Ali's educational system. It has not been claimed that it was perfect, but it was sound and viable; the existence of certain deficiencies does not justify its destruction during the

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, *Tarikh Al-Ta'limfi Asr Mohammad Ali*, pp.123-136.

reigns of both Abbas and Said; nor does it justify the subsequent disruption of the educational activities.<sup>1</sup>

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

At the end of Mohammad Ali's reign, the preparatory school had been transferred from Abu Za'bal to Azbakiyah in Cairo and then annexed to the School of languages. It accommodated 300 pupils, and according to the Commission syllabuses provided for the study of the French language in the first grade (final grade).

The annexed preparatory classes, which it will be presumed to call a school, experienced many modifications. The school continued to function normally, accommodating many primary schools' graduates. Notwithstanding these circumstances, an order was issued to evacuate the school building at Azbakiyah at the end of the year 1849. The school was to be transferred to Al-Nasiriyah, and then once again to Abu Za'bal. By this time it accommodated a mere 156 pupils. Bearing in mind that it was originally provisioned to enrol 325, a great reduction had occurred. The staff consisted of 35 teachers and officers.

The school suffered greatly from its new position. Despite the fact that it applied for permission to increase its pupils and staff in addition to the appointment of a physician to ensure the contribution of the schools hospital. The Diwan not only postponed the fulfilment of these requests,

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, 'Tarikh Al-Ta'lim fi Misr, vol.I, p.11.



but also began to reduce the number of pupils. A new policy was adopted: Ali Mubarak was requested to examine the pupils in order to dismiss the unsuitable ones. Consequently on the grounds of insufficient educational achievement standard or their age many pupils were dismissed. According to the implementation of this measure the school lost approximately 50 per cent of its pupils. As a result some members of the staff were also dismissed. The final stage was the total abolition of the establishment as an independent school. Finally it was transferred to the building of the School of Engineering at Bulaq in Cairo.<sup>1</sup>

The Naval preparatory school at Alexandria was closed down in February 1849. It had accommodated 225 pupils, of whom 20 joined the army, 124 were dismissed, while the remaining pupils were admitted to a new naval school which occupied one of the Egyptian fleet ships.<sup>2</sup>

Abbas initiated a new trend in education which involved the establishment of institutions of an integrated nature. Such as the establishment at Bulaq which contained a combination of primary and preparatory schools and a special school of engineering.

According to the Educational Regulations of June 1849, the number of pupils was in general very small. As many pupils were dismissed when the military schools were closed down, Abbas decided to build on the ruins of these schools a

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim. op.cit., vol.I, pp.54-56.

2. Ibid., p.69.

single establishment consisting of three stages: a primary, a secondary, and a Special Military School.<sup>1</sup>

The new establishment was opened in September, 1849; the best pupils and teachers were chosen to attend it. It was called Madrasat Al-Mafruzah,<sup>2</sup> which means in English 'Chosen School'. As its name implied, the new school was selective in that it chose students from such institutions as the School of Languages, the School of Medicine, and the like. It was situated firstly at Al-Khankah.<sup>3</sup> Later it was transferred, in November 1849, to a new suburb of Cairo called Al-Abbasiyah. In that year the enrolment figure of the school was composed of 1,696 students.<sup>4</sup>

It can thus be seen that Abbas's educational policy was based upon principles very different from that of his predecessor. His attitude was probably motivated by economic concerns. It was also an attempt to reduce the gaps which had existed between the three stages of the educational ladder during his predecessor's reign. The advantage of centralisation under one director, might have created a co-ordinated educational system. Moreover, as has been pointed out in the previous discussion of the educational standards of achievement of the school leavers was less than had been intended<sup>5</sup> during the reign of Mohammad Ali. The new

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, p.70.

2. A. Sami, op.cit., app.III, p.45.

3. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, p.72; see also A.Mubarak, Al-Khitat..., vol.XIX, p.126. (In Arabic).

4. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.294.

5. Ibid., p.295.

educational institution established by Abbas was put under the supervision of Ali Mubarak. He played a distinguished rôle in the establishment of single-establishment educational policy, for preparing recruits for service in the army and in administration, and as such it prospered during the first part of Abbas's rule.<sup>1</sup>

## II. THE REIGN OF SA'ID (1854-1863)

Said, one of Mohammad Ali's sons, succeeded his uncle Abbas after the latter's assassination in 1854. His attitudes and outlook differed from his predecessor's. Because of his European education he was favourably inclined towards Europeans, the policy he pursued however, produced disastrous effects on the country's affairs. His extravagance, mental instability, and his errors of judgment resulted in a financial crisis and slowed up the possibilities of national progress.<sup>2</sup>

One consequence of his friendship with Europeans was his approval of the De Lesseps project for connecting the Mediterranean and Red Seas by what came to be known as the Suez Canal. This decision involved Egypt in international affairs in a manner that has influenced politics in Egypt up to the present.<sup>3</sup>

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1. Ismail Sarhank, Haqa'iq Al-Akhbar 'an Duwal Al-Bihar "True Events about Maritime Nations" (Cairo: Bulaq Press, A.H. 1312-1314 = A.D. 1894-1896), vol.II, p.262 (In Arabic).
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.313-314.
  3. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.95; J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.315.

Although the period of Abbas's reign was limited to six years his policy left his successor with a difficult heritage of administration. In spite of Mohammad 'Ali's tremendous accomplishments which started approximately from the second decade of the nineteenth century, they were followed by a reactionary movement initiated by Abbas whose disastrous policies resulted in a complete collapse of the process of modernisation which his predecessor had been at such pains to introduce. Said introduced some social reforms,<sup>1</sup> but, nevertheless, he was not interested in educational reform. On the contrary, he began to complete the abolition of educational institutions begun by Abbas. He deemed an ignorant nation easier to rule. Some writers report that he once said that there ... no need to open the eyes of the people through education which would make them more difficult to rule.<sup>2</sup>

Said was greatly interested in the army which required well-qualified officers. Hence, he was obliged to open some schools for the purpose of providing efficient officers.<sup>3</sup> Consequently he dealt with educational activities, in these specific terms. To attain this end he began to lay foundations for a new educational system. Suspicious of Abbas's institutions and officials, he decided to start from the beginning. This attitude was inappropriate as the core of his

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, p.315.  
2. H. M. Ammar, *op.cit.*, p.111.  
3. M. Rifat, *op.cit.*, p.122.

father's modernisations had been sound; not merely filial piety, but national interest demanded that he should follow in his father's footsteps. However, lacking not only wisdom but also an effective personality, Said was unable to gain support for himself.<sup>1</sup>

During his era, educational targets were conspicuous by their absence. Most educational institutions which provided education for the few lucky ones were threatened in their existence. Said's reign witnessed the destruction rather than the construction of a new educational system. He dealt with the educational problems in the erratic way which was characteristic of the rest of his reign. Schools suffered under his changeable moods and attitudes.

The Madrasat Al-Harbiyah or War School which occupied part of the Cairo Citadel, was opened in 1856 and closed down in 1861. The Engineering School at Saidiyah Citadel, near Barrages was established in 1857 and abolished, or rather transferred in 1861 to a military school. The Military School at Alexandria was closed down in 1861. The foundation of the Naval School at Alexandria was postponed up to 1860. The School of Medicine was closed down at the end of 1854. Then it was re-opened in two years, namely in 1856. The school suffered a great deal from this instability of the ruler's policy, and as a result of these vicissitudes. Only twenty-five pupils were enrolled. Moreover, they were divided among

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., p.170.

three grades.<sup>1</sup>

Another consequence of the instability of the policy was that it resulted in great confusion of the records making it impossible to give an accurate picture of events during this period.

"His departure for Europe was probably the cause of his behaviour between 1860 and 1862, for the schools like his army, were his hobby."<sup>2</sup> Two additional reasons may be offered by way of explanation of the sudden changes of his policy towards education: (1) the fact that it was necessary to economise in order to enable the country to pay off the debts that had been accumulated, and (2) the dissolution of the Egyptian Army in 1861 which made it possible to dispense with the new generation of officers and consequently accelerated the closure of many schools. At the end of Said's reign there were only two government schools in Egypt. One was the Military School at Barrages, and the second was the School of Medicine in Cairo.<sup>3</sup>

Most of Said's educational establishments were run on military lines. In general, these were termed 'military schools' as a great number of these schools occupied the site of military camps. The majority of the pupils were non-Egyptians, being the sons of high officials of Turkish and other persons of alien origin. Very few of the pupils were

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, pp.184-185.

2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.320.

3. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, p.185.

Egyptians.

The most important fact brought to light in this discussion is that Said's educational activities had little or no effect upon the Egyptian society due to the following reasons: (1) he relied to excess upon the sons of the aliens in recruiting pupils for his schools, and consequently, almost completely ignored the compatriot Egyptian source of manpower; (2) only the graduates of these institutions were appointed to army and government posts, therefore, the indigenous Egyptians were almost entirely excluded from these avenues of service. This suggests that Said distrusted the Egyptians, and study of all aspects of contemporary Egyptian life, be it history, sociology or education bears this out. As a result, these institutions did not absorb the primary school leavers, as they had in Mohammad Ali's reign. Moreover, the fate and further careers of the graduates of these institutions remain untraceable, because Said's reign was short and the educational policy underwent a change after his death. These facts account for the total indifference with which the Egyptian society accepted Said's educational activities.

The rôle of the graduates in the community was rather slight, as Said's schools were isolated from the Egyptian society. Thus abrogation of a great number of schools made little or no impression upon the people as a whole.<sup>1</sup>

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.I, pp.186-187.

The new ruler closed down or abolished Diwan Al-Madaris five months after his succession. Subsequently, he probably managed the schools either directly, by himself, or by means of Diwan Al-Jihadiyah. Sarhank gives the date of this attainment by December, 1854.<sup>1</sup> Said closed down Madrasat Al-Mafruzah in September 1861,<sup>2</sup> though, Sarhank mentions 1854 as the date of this abrogation.<sup>3</sup> Sami gives the names of some directors of the mentioned school up to August 1861.<sup>4</sup>

In July 1856,<sup>5</sup> Said opened his first school called Madrasat Al-Harbiyah or 'War School'; it occupied some buildings of the Cairo Citadel. According to Sami, this school was composed of eight sections, comprising 300 pupils.<sup>6</sup> In spite of different names by which the school is mentioned, it was, in fact a mere Military Preparatory School. The required age of enrolment was fixed at 12-18 years. After the completion of the preparatory stage, the pupils continued their educational careers in another section in the same school where they were able to choose their own future occupation. Out of the total number of pupils, which constituted of 300, approximately 200 were enrolled in the preparatory section.

The subjects taught were : Arabic, Turkish, Persian, French, German and calligraphy; mathematics including

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1. I. Sarhank, op.cit., vol.II, p.270.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.317.
  3. I. Sarhank, op.cit., vol.II, p.270.
  4. A. Sami, op.cit., app.III, pp.45-46.
  5. Ibid., p.51.
  6. Ibid., p.46.



arithmetic, geometry, algebra, trigonometry, as well as linear drawing and in addition, strategy, military plans, geography and history were taught.

According to the Regulations, the period of schooling extended for five years. Pupils received instruction in addition to boarding, clothing, equipment, and a monthly salary. Thus the school was free. The internal discipline conformed to the 1836-1837 Regulations, applied during Mohammad Ali's reign.

The ruler's motives in closing this school are shrouded in mystery. There are, however, reasons for assuming that among other things it was his desire to found another school of the same type to perpetuate his name at a Citadel near Barrages.<sup>1</sup> It was opened in September 1862.

Although the Egyptian Navy was in a state of stagnation as a result of the invention of steam-power for sea-going ships, Said re-opened the Naval School in January 1860, which had been formerly abolished during his predecessor's reign in January 1849.<sup>2</sup>

Said treated the modern or secular primary and preparatory schools with complete neglect but there are no indications that either type of school was absolutely abandoned. His attitudes towards the missionary schools were paradoxical. He spent a great amount of money to maintain them to the extent that two missionary schools received subsidies equal to the rest of the educational budget spent

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1. A. Sami, *op.cit.*, app.III, p.54.

2. *Ibid.*, p.53.

during his reign. This policy indicates an absolute lack of discrimination and foresight on the part of Said who is fundamentally responsible and blamed for the deterioration of the educational structure of the nation.

To what extent he favoured the upper classes emerges from the fact that the few preparatory schools there were, were reserved for the youth of the aristocracy. As he assumed that it was unnecessary to encourage the education of masses by admitting them to this type of schooling, he closed down the few existent institutions,<sup>1</sup> that might have provided general opportunities of education at this level.

The foregoing analysis condemns Said's educational achievements and accuses him of indifference, lack of discrimination and extravagance. All the Egyptian writers dealing with this ruler have been convinced of the truth of these facts. Said contributed nothing towards the education of the country; it can be said that he found destruction easier than construction. A comparison, however, of Said with Abbas have something in favour of the latter.<sup>2</sup>

### III. THE REIGN OF ISMA'IL (1863-1879)

Isma'il succeeded Said in 1863, the new ruler was one of Mohammad Ali's grandsons.<sup>3</sup> He pursued an active policy in both internal and external affairs, and re-established and

1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.340.

2. A.R. Al-Rafi'i, op.cit., vol.I, pp.44-45.

3. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.342. See also a genealogical table of the dynasty of Mohammad Ali in R.I.I.A., op.cit., p.150.

maintained, strong contacts with the West. The sixteen years of his reign witnessed tremendous changes in all sectors of public life, economical, social, political and the others.<sup>1</sup> Some writers are convinced that his reign brought many catastrophes upon Egypt.<sup>2</sup>

Isma'il was an ambitious ruler but he shared many of the defects and weaknesses of character of his predecessor. His extravagances had disastrous results and led to his abdication.<sup>3</sup> Isma'il was determined to make Egypt a part of Europe. In order to reach this target he accelerated the process of westernisation which had started during Mohammad Ali's reign.<sup>4</sup>

This desire accounts for his reform of the then existing educational institutions. Convinced that education was the starting-point of any desirable progress, he developed an educational programme which is comparable to that initiated by his grandfather. He began to execute a well-designed project of education which was characterised by the foundation of numerous schools.<sup>5</sup>

He re-established most of the schools built by his grandfather and which continued to function on conventional lines, for producing officials and army officers,<sup>6</sup> but new trends soon emerged with the spread of education throughout

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, Part I, p.3.

2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.342.

3. Ibid., p.425.

4. H.M. Ammar, op.cit., p.110.

5. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.122.

6. H.M. Ammar, op.cit., p.111.

the country. The new policy was more suited to meet the requirements of the people and the country.<sup>1</sup> Many modifications of the internal system of Egypt ensued. During this period public opinion began to play its rôle in political life. The Egyptian constitutional movement goes back to the second half of the past century, more precisely to 1866, at which date the Khedive Ismail created an embryo 'Parliament' by instituting a Chamber of Notables composed of 75 elected members. This chamber was consultative and its opinions were not binding to the Khedive.<sup>2</sup> Newspapers were published in many languages, and Arabic newspapers in particular contributed to the consolidation of the public opinion.<sup>3</sup> The government press at Bulaq, Cairo, printed a huge number of books and official papers. The Egyptian Government during this particular era published three papers; including two scholastic papers. Many modern establishments emerged such as a national library, a national museum, a modern opera house. In addition to roads, buildings, parks, canals, and the like; were constructed on modern models. Egyptology appeared as a new science.<sup>4</sup>

During Isma'il's reign the people's way of life was modified to a great degree; it can even be said that was revolutionised. People began to imitate the Europeans who emigrated to Egypt in large numbers.<sup>5</sup> Under the leadership

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1. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.122.

2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.343.

3. Ibid., pp.344-345.

4. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.124.

5. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., pp.343-344.

of Isma'il the motto of the country became 'Egypt is a part Europe.' A tremendous revolution along Western lines took place in social customs, family life, costumes, city planning, architecture, design of homes, means of communication and transportation, public works, industry, education, and other aspects of life.<sup>1</sup>

Thus a radical change, sponsored by the ruler, took place impetuously in all walks of the Egyptian life during that time. The adoption of modern modes of both material culture and social culture, parallel with European culture, became an accomplished fact.

An Egyptian educationist has summed up the situation in the following passage:

"The influence of the West continued to invade all aspects of Egyptian life-material, intellectual, and moral. It has become noticeable, for example, in education, in law, in government administration and organization, in matters of dress, in furniture housing, and transportation, in means of production, and in multiple technical improvements. But whereas some adopted elements have been incorporated into and stabilized in Egyptian life, others, are still to be considered 'externals'. That is to say, they are less stable in their foundation; and the principles behind them for one reason or another, have not been thoroughly assimilated." 2

#### EDUCATIONAL POLICY UNDER ISMA'IL

Two main periods are observable in Isma'il's educational policy: (1) The first period comprised the years

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1. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.17.

2. Sadek H. Samaan, Value Reconstruction and Egyptian Education. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p.6.

1863-1871, during which the schools of Mohammad Ali were re-opened; (2) The second period, of nearly eight years' duration, from 1871 to 1879, when a new type of school was established on a sound basis.<sup>1</sup> These schools which were subject to civilian and not purely military administration, were better fitted to attain the new educational targets, and to fulfil the aspirations of the nation.<sup>2</sup>

Immediately after his accession Isma'il ordered the Diwan Al-Madaris to be re-established. The Diwan was revived in January, 1863.<sup>2</sup> A new Regulation was prepared to re-mould the educational system. According to it the importance of each educational stage was stressed. Emphasis was laid on the preparatory school which were rightly considered the basis of any sound education. It was stressed that the reform of education must begin with its foundations, and the elementary schools remained, for some time, the centre of attention.

An order was issued to establish three schools, two in Cairo, namely a primary school to accommodate 300 pupils, and a preparatory school to hold 700 pupils. The third school established at Alexandria, to contain both primary and preparatory stages.<sup>3</sup>

The first school was opened in Alexandria to hold both primary and preparatory stages. It was opened in July 1863.<sup>4</sup> The Cairo Primary School was opened in the capital in July

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.346.

2. A. Sami, op.cit., p.16.

3. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, pp.397-398.

4. A. Sami, op.cit., p.17 and app.III, pp.57 and 59.

1863.<sup>1</sup> Prior to its transference to Al-Nasriyah, in 1868, it occupied the site of Al-Mafruzah building at a suburb called Al-Abbasiyah. A preparatory school was opened, at the same time and in the same place, at Al-Abbasiyah. In January 1868, it was transferred to a quarter of Cairo called Darb Al-Gamamiz.<sup>2</sup>

#### THE KHEDIVIYAH PREPARATORY SCHOOL, CAIRO

Having indicated the nature of the social conditions, the new trends of the public opinion and educational policy as a whole, some comment should be made about the various institutions of the preparatory stage. The first school under this category was that of Cairo. The building of the Madrasat Al-Mafruzah was chosen by Diwan Al-Madaris as the site for the new preparatory school. The project was amended, and then it was decided to put it into practice, and preparations were made to admit the pupils.

The procedure observed at the enrolment of the pupils was strict, and consisted of several stages. A medical examination, as well as an entrance examination which included reading and writing took place in the presence of the Diwan officials. All these measures coincided with the preparation for the selected school. Within a month of the regulation being promulgated the number of candidates presented in the Diwan building, was approximately 250, in addition, a group consisting of 21 pupils of the military

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1. A. Sami, op.cit., p.17 and app.III, pp.55-56.  
2. A. Sami, op.cit., p.17.

schools, under the required age, were sent to the Diwan. The cadets comprised the 'Prefects' of the school. The Diwan was extremely keen to start its educational implementations. To reach that aim the pupils were provided with temporary lessons in the Diwan building.<sup>1</sup>

After the completion of the building at Al-Abbasiyah, the pupils were transferred to it in June 1863. Many improvements were undertaken, and new buildings were added to the original one to accommodate the stipulated number of pupils. New pupils also joined the preparatory school and after a short time they were promoted to the Military School at the Citadel. To fill the vacancies which thus occurred in the preparatory school, the principal was empowered to select some of the advanced pupils of the primary stage for this purpose. The need for recruiting pupils in this manner reflected on the limits of the provision for education at this level. The new school was intended to accommodate 700 pupils. As a result of the steps taken, the number of pupils rose to 614, after the elapse of a year and a half from the date of its establishment. New teachers were appointed to carry out the educational tasks but it seems that the size of classes proved too large for the teachers. Apparently the lag of the supply of teachers behind the enrolment of pupils created a difficult problem for the authorities, and the division of the pupils in large groups was accepted as the

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, pp.398-400.



only solution. In some classes, as many as a hundred pupils were instructed by a single teacher.

In these conditions there was little opportunity of the school improving the pupils' standards of achievement. The condition was aggravated by incompetence on the part of the administrative authorities, as many of the pupils were admitted to the military schools prior to the completion of the qualifying courses of study.

At the beginning of the year 1866, a group of the preparatory pupils which was composed of 56 selected among the first grade, i.e. final, were enrolled in the military schools. To cover the deficiency in the number of pupils, 102 primary pupils were designated to fill the vacant places. Thus the stipulated number was reached. Yet, in the following year, nearly 310 preparatory pupils were admitted to military and special schools which deprived the Al-Khediviah preparatory school of a number of its pupils. To restore the balance they were usually replaced by primary pupils. In 1867 the number of the pupils of the school amounted to 564.

Both schools were transferred from Al-Abbasiyah to Cairo. The transfer was due to two factors: (1) the parents' demand as the school was rather remote, and (2) the inadequacy of the building in respect of the increasing number of pupils. The primary school was transferred to Al-Nasiriyah, while the secondary school moved to Darb Al-Gamamiz. The annually budget allocated to the preparatory school was £.E.11,802.

According to the Regulations of the year 1867 new special schools were opened. Consequently, the burden of the preparatory school increased, for it also had to provide these schools with the necessary number of recruits. In addition, 130 of its pupils were admitted to the New special school. A new decree was issued to restrict the number of the pupils to 400. This resulted in the dismissal of the backward pupils, and of a number of the teachers.

To overcome the crowded condition of the school a new policy was adopted to satisfy the demands of the pupils. Permission was given to a hundred pupils to return home at the end of the school-day. Consequently, an external section came into existence for the first time in the history of secular education in Egypt. Furthermore, 50 pupils were diverted to the Alexandria School. In 1869, the total number of pupils was 300.<sup>1</sup>

Thus the Cairo Preparatory School, remained the sole source of recruitment of the special and military schools. It was impossible to rely on the Alexandria Preparatory School, or the Annexed Preparatory Classes in the provincial capitals, to undertake this function. The reasons were the short length of the courses, the inadequancies of the teachers and unsatisfactory discipline. As a result of the loss of its pupils on behalf of special and military schools, the school suffered low achievement standards. Consequently, the special

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, pp.400-404.

and military schools began to complain of the insufficient knowledge of their pupils.

In the Report of the Commission on Educational Reform, 1880 on all issues of that kind D'or pointed out that preparatory education was weak in quality and weaker in quantity. According to his calculations the school was capable of providing special schools with 40 pupils in 1880. In fact the total number graduated was only 17. This small figure was divided into two groups, (1) nine pupils enrolled in the School of Engineering, and (2) eight pupils were admitted to the School of Law. According to its needs the School of Medicine admitted nine pupils selected from the preparatory school.

After a prolonged investigation and discussion, the Commission agreed on the causes of the shortcomings. In its Report the Commission specified the kind of contribution to be made by Preparatory Schools towards the whole educational process, pointing out all its essentials. It was recommended that the preparatory education should improve qualitatively as well as quantitatively.<sup>1</sup>

The significance of the school in numerical terms over a period of approximately twenty years is illustrated by Table XV.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.405.

TABLE XV<sup>1</sup>

THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE CAIRO PREPARATORY  
SCHOOL FROM 1863 to 1882

Year	No. of Pupils	Year	No. of Pupils	No. of Teachers
June 1863	250	1875	178	34*
August 1863	457	1876	225**	-
November 1864	614	1877	187	-
May 1866	700	1878	185	-
1867	564	1879	208	-
1868	400	1880	216	37***
1869	300	1881	266	-
1873	232	1882	321	-
1874	229			

\* According to the figures of the General Census of 1875, the Cairo Preparatory School comprised 192 pupils, the staff was 34 teachers including the principal.

\*\* Including 18 pupils who formed the Turkish Class; they were taught arithmetic and one foreign language from the following: French, English, or German, as well as Arabic and Turkish. This class continued for three years.

\*\*\* Embracing 19 teachers specially devoted to the Preparatory level, and 18 teachers to both primary and preparatory levels.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.406. These figures are coincided, to a great degree, with those given by Sami, op.cit., app.II, p.2.

The pupils of the Cairo Preparatory School were all required to wear uniform "D'or criticises to some extent, this policy, although he appreciates the reasons for its necessity in view of the general poverty of the boys."<sup>1</sup>

It is probably that the Egyptian pupils were admitted to the school in large numbers. This trend is similar to that prevalent during Mohammad Ali's era, and opposite to the conditions under Abbas and Said when preparatory education was a privilege of the alien elements. The proclamation for the promotion and the spread of education were the signs of mature understanding on both sides, the government and the people. Henceforward, the development of the Egyptian secondary education, in particular, and all levels of education in general, proceeded along satisfactory lines.

Concerning the school fees a new policy was adopted during the period under discussion. This measure was well interpreted by Dunne in the following passage:

"A new principle was adopted in connection with the paying of school fees. In both the primary and the preparatory schools, sections were opened for pupils whose parents had to pay a little towards their education. No fixed rules were laid down as to the payments to be made, the amount depending on the discretion of the Nazir of the Diwan and the means of the parents; from the statistics available, the principle does not appear to have been accepted until 1875, for this is the first year in which a percentage (21 per cent) of the pupils is shown as paying fees." 2

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1. D'or who had been appointed Inspector-General of the schools gives a report on several of them which he visited in 1871-2. See, Dunne, op.cit., p.354.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.353.

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS

The provision of teachers for the school showed virtually no change between 1875 and 1880, Table XVI.

TABLE XVI<sup>1</sup>

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS OF THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS  
IN 1875 AND 1880.

SUBJECTS	<u>NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN THE YEAR:</u>	
	1875*	1880
Mathematics	4	2
French language	3	3
English language	2	2
German language	2	2
Arabic language	4	5
Turkish language	4	4
Geography	1	-
Geography and History	1	1
Drawing	6	4
Arabic Calligraphy	4	4
European Calligraphy	1	1
Chemistry	-	1
Natural History	-	1
DEMONSTRATORS	1	4
Total	33	34

The Table reveals records of the employment of some of the teachers of modern subjects such as chemistry, physics and natural history.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.407.

The Report of the Commission on Educational Reform, 1880, suggested the appointment of a teacher for each of the following subjects: Arabic language, Arabic calligraphy, European calligraphy, Turkish language, history and geography, in addition to a proposal to the increase of the number of the officers of the school.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE ALEXANDRIA PREPARATORY SCHOOL

In February, 1863<sup>2</sup> the first school was opened during Isma'il's reign in Alexandria. It was a combined primary and preparatory school. According to the Regulations it accommodated 500 pupils divided, exactly between the two stages. It is unnecessary to discuss the primary stage, but special attention will be given to the preparatory stage.

The stipulated age of the pupil for enrolment at this stage was between 12 and 15 years. Passing successfully an examination in reading and writing was a prerequisite to admission. The pupils marks and samples of their calligraphy were sent to the Diwan in Cairo. The educational authorities who were anxious to reach the required number, approved the admission of pupils less than twelve years of age on condition that they successfully passed the entrance examination. The Preparatory School was to admit the pupils of the Primary

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, p.191.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.348, he gives this date according to Artin. (See Artin, op.cit., p.186). Sami gives the date of its opening as July 1863. (See Sami, op.cit., p.17 and app.III, p.57 and p.59.)

School to an examination so as to enable the successful pupils to enter the Preparatory grades.

The Alexandria Preparatory School participated in recruiting for the special and military schools alongside the Cairo Preparatory School. Numbers of graduates ranging between twenty and sixty from the mentioned school were absorbed by the higher institutions. A selected group of its pupils constituted the 'Marine Grade', which comprised twenty pupils. This Marine Grade was attached to the Naval School, and its pupils pursued their preparatory studies there.<sup>1</sup>

The Alexandria Preparatory School seems to have been neglected as a whole, and soon lost its position as an independent institution probably because it was incapable of providing graduate pupils to satisfy the demands of the post-preparatory schools. Afterwards it was a mere annexe to the primary school, on the model of the preparatory classes attached to the Cairo Primary School at Al-Nasiriyah, or other classes of the same kind in provincial capitals. Many modifications of the syllabus were undertaken during the courses. The fixed four years' duration of studies was never continuously observed, and varied from time to time between three or two grades.

Table XVII records the numbers of pupils enrolled in the preparatory school of Alexandria from 1873 to 1882.

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, pp.414-415.



TABLE XVII<sup>1</sup>

NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN THE ALEXANDRIA  
PREPARATORY SCHOOL, FROM 1873 to 1882.

YEAR	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE:				TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS
	FIRST GRADE	SECOND GRADE	THIRD GRADE	FOURTH GRADE	
1873	15	15	32	58	120
1874	8	10	19	42	79
1875	-	-	20	35	55
1876	-	13	26	18	57
1877	-	19	16	29	64
1878	10	11	19	20	60
1879	-	-	5	8	13
1881	-	-	-	12	12
1882	-	-	4	6	10

The general outcome of these developments is illustrated by the following Table which shows the numbers of pupils and teachers in the governmental preparatory and primary levels in Egypt, over a period of approximately ten years' duration

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.416.

TABLE XVIII<sup>1</sup>

GOVERNMENT PREPARATORY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS DURING THE  
REIGN OF ISMA'IL FOR THE PERIOD, 1868 to 1878

T = Teachers    P = Pupils

YEAR	CAIRO				ALEXANDRIA				TOTAL	
	PREPARA- TORY		PRIMARY		PREPARA- TORY		PRIMARY		T	P
	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P		
1868	-	400	-	388	-	133	-	108	-	1029
1869	-	400	-	530	-	120	-	148	-	1198
1870	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1872	22	309	23	570	-	-	16	246	61	1125
1873	-	233	-	714	-	-	-	421	-	1368
1874	27	229	33	582	-	-	20	331	80	1142
1875	34	192	34	539	-	-	21	298	89	1029
1876	-	226	-	469	-	-	-	280	-	975
1877	-	187	-	312	-	-	-	208	-	707
1878	-	185	-	262	-	-	-	216	-	663

The preceding figures give a picture of the educational activities within primary and preparatory levels. According to the above Table, from 1868 to 1878 there was a gradual decrease in the numbers of pupils from 1029 to 663. At the Cairo Preparatory School from 1868 to 1878 the number of pupils declined from 400 to 185. A reduction of approximately 53 per cent appeared in the latter year's figure. It is difficult to assess precisely the situation in respect of the

1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.389.

Alexandria Preparatory School, owing to the preparatory and primary figures being combined after 1869.

During the period from 1871 to 1874 there was a drop in the government budgetary expenditure of schools. In 1875 and 1876 there was a slight improvement, but from 1877 onwards the allowance was again reduced. Thus the fall in pupil numbers is seen to be related to the financial provision for education.

Artin gives the following data for the period 1868 to 1879, relating to pupil numbers and the payment of fees. A number of useful deductions can be made from these figures.

TABLE XIX<sup>1</sup>

BUDGET OF THE GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATION, NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND COST PER CAPITA FROM 1868 to 1879

YEAR	GOVERNMENT EDUCATION BUDGET (£.E.)	NO. OF SCHOOLS	NO. OF PUPILS			PROP. of TOTAL PUPILS	COST PER CAPITA
			FREE	PAYING	TOTAL		
1868	67,000	13	-	-	1,448	-	41
1869	67,000	13	-	-	1,448	-	41
1870	67,000	13	-	-	1,448	-	41
1871	50,000	9	-	-	1,394	-	35
1872	50,000	9	-	-	1,394	-	35
1873	44,240	9	-	-	1,434	-	27
1874	51,820	9	-	-	1,083	-	38
1875	60,083	9	958	260	1,218	79	41
1876	61,309	9	914	308	1,121	82	46
1877	41,267	8	706	92	798	88	41
1878	35,040	8	685	90	775	89	36
1879	45,108	9	1,396	76	1,472	95	26

1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.386.

The figures and the trend they illustrate reflects the weakness of the financial situation. During the period 1871-1874 there was a considerable fall in government expenditure on education. In 1875 and 1876 more allowances were made available, but from 1877 onwards government spending was again considerably reduced.

THE PREPARATORY CLASSES ANNEXED TO THE PRIMARY  
SCHOOLS IN CAIRO AND AT PROVINCIAL CAPITALS

In 1869, Benha Primary School sent 62 candidates, who had terminated their studies successfully, to the Cairo Preparatory School. Assiut Primary School sent a list comprising 164 names of its graduates to Diwan Al-Madaris. The Diwan authorised the latter school to provide them with the preparatory subjects. Consequently, Assiut Primary School requested the Diwan to appoint teachers to undertake this task, but as this request was not met, as an emergency step the Cairo Preparatory School admitted a number of selected candidates as new pupils. Thus the advanced applicants were sent to Cairo, and the new project to open preparatory classes attached to primary schools at the provincial capitals, began to be applied.

The implementation of this new policy was postponed for three years. The obstacles which handicapped the execution of the project were: (1) The financial difficulties resulting from the transfer of pupils to the Cairo Preparatory School,

and (2) The difficulties of the Cairo Preparatory School in providing accommodation for the increasing numbers of candidates.

The significance of the annexed classes is shown in the following Table.

TABLE XX

NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN THE PREPARATORY CLASSES ANNEXED TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF CAIRO AND PROVINCIAL CAPITALS

YEAR	SCHOOL	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE:				TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS
		1st GRADE	2nd GRADE	3rd GRADE	4th GRADE	
1872	Assiut	-	-	-	8	8
1873	"	-	-	-	-	1
1874	"	-	-	-	-	2
1875	"	-	-	-	-	-
1879	"	-	-	-	17	17
1880	"	-	-	9	12	21
1879	Beni-Suef	-	-	-	22	22 <sup>3</sup>
1880	"	-	-	22	32	54
1880	Rosetta	-	-	-	5	5 <sup>4</sup>
1883	Mansura	-	-	-	14	14
1880	Tanta	-	-	22	30	52 <sup>5</sup>
1879	Nasiriyah(Cairo)	-	17	31	46	94
1880	" "	-	-	13	18	31
1881	" "	-	-	-	17	17

1. In 1873, there were no preparatory classes annexed to the Assiut Primary School. The total number of pupils was divided into five grades. The first grade pupils (final year) studied the same subjects as fourth grade pupils (first year) of the Cairo Preparatory School.
2. From 1875 until 1879, the preparatory grade was replaced by a 'Survey Class'.
3. A 'Survey Class' instead of the preparatory grade was also established at the Beni-Suef Primary School. This was undergone between 1875 and 1879.
4. In 1880, a fourth preparatory grade (first year) was established. It comprised 6 pupils.
5. According to the Report of the Commission on Educational Reform, 1880, p.29.

It is difficult to pronounce an opinion concerning the success of the annexed preparatory classes mentioned above in preparing their pupils for the special schools in spite of the fact that they had not completed their four-grade course. Sami, principal of the Mansura Primary School, stated that the pupils were admitted to the special schools, and this must be considered a certain measure of success.

Through its investigations in two fields, concerning the preparatory education in the independent schools, as well as the annexed preparatory classes, the Commission brought an important fact to light, namely that the increased number of pupils attending annexed classes amounting to 240, was greater than the total number of enrolment at the Cairo Preparatory School during the same period, which must have meant considerable overcrowding.<sup>1</sup> Consequently the Commission approved a reduction of the number of pupils at Al-Nasiriyah Primary School, Cairo, from 49 to 31. In addition the classes of the Rosetta Primary School were discontinued. This was done because the Commission was of the opinion that it was inappropriate to teach the preparatory subjects in the primary school. If such a policy were adopted, reasoned the Commission, it might result in deflecting the attention of the staff from their proper task, namely the teaching of primary classes, and cause them to concentrate unduly on the advanced grades. In addition the Commission also deemed that the number

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1. Rapport de la Commission pour les Réformés, 1880, pp.30-31. Quoted by A.I. Abdel-Karīm, op.cit., vol.II, part II,p.419.

of preparatory grade pupils was too small to justify so much expenditure in time and money. The Commission also referred to the lack of competition consequential upon meagre number of pupils involved. The Commission, therefore, suggested the abrogation of these classes.

At the same time it admitted of the inadequacy of the sole existent preparatory school in Cairo to provide the special schools with a sufficiency of new recruits, and to absorb the primary schools' graduates. The Commission summed up its recommendations in a Report sent to the Diwan to the effect that the Diwan ought to establish, at its own expense Preparatory Schools at Mansura, Tanta, Beni-Suef and Assiut (Article 22). Certain initial requirements were regarded as necessary to ensure the satisfactory progress of the establishment of such schools, (1) The pupils of the primary schools should be thoroughly taught. (2) Only well-qualified teachers should be entrusted with the task of teaching them. (3) The existing teachers' training college should be developed to ensure a sufficient number of graduates.

The execution of a unified curriculum, or programme, was considered indispensable for all preparatory schools (Article 23). It was necessary in order to give the flexibility to the transfer of pupils from one school to another on the same level of education, and to meet the promotion requirements to higher institutions.

The Commission proposed to base preparatory schooling

on two new foundations. The pupils should be, as a rule, day pupils, i.e. allowed to go home at the end of the day's lessons, and only a limited number of boarders should be accepted (Article 24). A tuition fee should be charged, the school receiving fees from both types of pupils, external and boarders alike to cover the entire expenditure (Articles 25 and 26). Free enrolment in preparatory schools was a privilege conferred to those who succeeded in passing an entrance examination. This examination was competitive.

The Commission hoped that the Diwan would start the project of constructing preparatory schools at Mansura, Beni-Suef and Tanta, in the near future. The Commission, moreover, proposed to meet the vital needs for education in commercial subjects in some preparatory schools such as that of Alexandria especially by teaching the pupils foreign languages.

The Commission also made it its task to investigate the condition of poor primary school graduates. It recommended the establishment of an agriculture school, equivalent to the preparatory level, for such pupils.

Despite the fact that the Report prescribed constructive proposals relevant to the circumstances it had no immediate effect on the provision of education. In 1882 the preparatory classes annexed to Al-Nasiriyah Primary School in Cairo were closed, in 1885, in addition, the preparatory annexed classes in the provincial capitals were also closed down.<sup>1</sup>

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1. A.I. Abd-el-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, pp.420-22.



THE PROGRAMMES OF PREPARATORY EDUCATION

There are no reliable official publications concerning the preparatory education prior to 1874. This is the first year in which official programmes and detailed syllabuses for this level of schooling were published. They included the number of the assigned lessons per each subject per week, each prescribed for each grade or year and books were prescribed for every subject.

Sami refers to this fact and points out that in spite of the launching of a new educational policy in 1863, there were no printed programmes for the preparatory level. Sami, in addition, reports on preparatory stage programmes used from 1863 to 1874, and states that he himself had taught pupils in accordance with those programmes.<sup>1</sup> According to Sami the subjects provided in the preparatory stage during the mentioned period of time were as is set out in Table XXI.

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1. A. Sami, op.cit., app.III, p.10.

TABLE XXI<sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES FOR THE PREPARATORY STAGE, APPLIED  
DURING THE PERIOD FROM 1863 to 1874

SUBJECT	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Arabic language	6	6	6	6
Arabic calligraphy	2	2	2	2
Turkish language	2	2	2	2
European language	6	6	6	6
European calligraphy	1	1	-	-
Arithmetic	6	6	3	3
Geometry	6	4	4	4
Algebra	-	2	2	2
History	1	1	1	1
Geography	2	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1	1
Physics	-	-	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	2	2
Total lessons per week	33	33	33	33
Total lessons in Arabic language	21	21	22	22
Total lessons in European language	10	10	9	9
Total lessons in Turkish language	2	2	2	2
Total lessons per week	33	33	33	33

Apart from the number of subjects and the proportion of each subject, Sami also adds that geography and history were taught in either French or English, while the remaining

1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.427.

subjects were taught in Arabic.

The above Table is drawn up on the basis of an educational document issued by the Egyptian Government in 1869.<sup>1</sup> This document provides data on educational establishments and syllabuses. It seems that there are slight discrepancies between the two programmes concerning mathematics, physics and chemistry.

TABLE XXII  
PROGRAMMES OF STUDIES FOR THE PREPARATORY LEVEL

YEAR	SUBJECTS							
1 <sup>st</sup>	Arabic lang.	Turkish lang.	European lang.	drawing & calligraphy	arith- metic	geom- etry	-	-
2 <sup>nd</sup>	"	"	geog- raphy and history	"	"	"	-	-
3 <sup>rd</sup>	"	"	"	"	-	"	alg- ebra	-
4 <sup>th</sup>	"	"	"	"	-	desc- reptive	"	phy- sics

It is clear from Table XXII that history and geography were allocated from the second year. Both were studied in either English or French, according to the pupils language specialisation. French was reserved for the teaching of history; the teaching of French throughout the four years

1. Notice sur les Establishments d'Instruction Publique en Egypte, 1869. In Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.424

course was intended to ensure that the pupils would be able to write satisfactory essays in the French language, on history from the Roman period to Mohammad Ali's reign. Algebra replaced arithmetic in the third and fourth years. Chemistry was not included in the preparatory programme to judge by the information provided in these Tables.

A study of the examination subjects might lead to some confusion as there is a discrepancy between the subjects given at the examination and those prescribed in the syllabus.

TABLE XXIII<sup>1</sup>

EDUCATION SUBJECTS ALLOCATED TO EACH SCHOLASTIC YEAR  
OF THE CAIRO PREPARATORY SCHOOL, 1873

YEAR <sup>2</sup>	SUBJECTS						
1 <sup>st</sup>	Arabic langu.	Turkish langu.	European langu.	Calligraphy	Drawing	Arithmetic	Geometry
2 <sup>nd</sup>	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
3 <sup>rd</sup>	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
4 <sup>th</sup>	"	"	"	"	"	"	"

1. According to Book No.14 of the Preparatory Examinations, Cairo. Quoted by A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.425.
2. The traditional succession of scholastic years has been adopted throughout in presenting the data included in these Tables. If the Tables are arranged according to the succession of years, which was in vogue during those days; and was modelled on the French system, the Fourth year would equal to first year, and would be followed by the second, the third and the first, the latter equalling the fourth or final year.

The pupils of the first year learnt algebra instead of arithmetic. Some pupils studied geography in either English or French. It even seems that the marks of geography were added to those gained in the European language subjects. In 1874 algebra in the first year was added to arithmetic as well as geometry.

In 1873, pupils at the Alexandria Preparatory School were taught, on the whole, the same subjects, as at the Cairo Preparatory School. As already mentioned it was as an exception to that programme that algebra was given to pupils of the first grade but that arithmetic was eliminated. In addition to the basic task of teaching languages, the teachers of European languages<sup>1</sup> were required to teach geography.

It appears that the Alexandria School was, in certain respects, more successful than the Cairo School. This statement is justified by the fact that greater provision for useful subjects was made in its programme. In 1874, for instance, arithmetic, algebra and trigonometry were taught to the pupils of the first year. Second grade pupils received geometry, while third and fourth grades pupils studied arithmetic and geometry. Geography was considered an independent subject.<sup>2</sup>

At the Assiut Annexed Preparatory Classes the sole

- 
1. The English, French, German languages were taught at the Alexandria Preparatory School.
  2. According to Book No.3 and Book No.4 of the Alexandria Preparatory School Examination. Quoted by Abdel-Karim, *ibid.*, p.425.

school in operation during that time consisted of a single class providing a preparatory programme of education. The same subjects were taught to fourth grade pupils as at the Cairo Preparatory School, with the sole exception that history was added to the usual programme.<sup>1</sup>

In 1874, the preparatory education witnessed the promulgation of a new detailed programme allocated for its various grades. The issue of a Ministerial Decree occurred in order to assign subjects to different grades, and specify the number of lessons devoted to each subject. This Decree was propagated after prolonged and deliberated investigations had been carried out by a special committee constituted for this purpose. The following Table shows the programme of preparatory education so devised.

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1. According to Book No.30 of the Assiut Primary School Examinations. Quoted by Abdel-Karim, *ibid.*, p.426.

TABLE XXIV<sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES FOR THE PREPARATORY  
STAGE ISSUED IN 1874

SUBJECT	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Arabic language	6	6	6	6
Arabic calligraphy	2	2	2	2
Turkish language	2	2	2	2
European language	6	6	6	6
European calligraphy	1	1	-	-
Arithmetic	6	6	-	-
Geometry	6	4	5	-
Algebra	-	2	3	2
History	1	1	1	1
Geography	2	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1	1
Physics	-	-	2	2
Cosmography	-	-	-	1
Natural history	-	-	1	1
Trigonometry	-	-	-	2
Curvies	-	-	-	1
Descriptive geometry	-	-	-	2
Chemistry	-	-	2	3
Total lessons per week	33	33	33	33
Total lessons in Arabic language	24	24	24	24
Total lessons in European language	7	7	7	7
Total lessons in Turkish language	2	2	2	2
Total lessons per week	33	33	33	33

Comparing the above programme with the previously discussed one, namely that of 1863-1874, the following observations are possible:

- (1) The number of allocated lessons per week remained as it had been, namely 33 lessons per week.
- (2) The number of weekly lessons devoted for languages such as: Arabic; European; Turkish remained unchanged.
- (3) Arithmetic was excluded from the weekly programme for the third and fourth years (second and first grades) in addition to the omission of geometry from the fourth year syllabus.
- (4) The following subjects were included in the fourth year, cosmography, trigonometry, curves, descriptive geometry, and natural history appeared in both the third and fourth year programme.

The preparatory programme prescribed in the year 1874 perpetuated up to 1885, but it was not followed precisely at the preparatory school in Cairo in any year.

It seems that many modifications were made to the 1874 programme but like the preceding one, were not put into practice.

Apart from the instability of the programme, no attempt was made to prepare the pupils adequately in their studies. As a result, the pupils were admitted to special and military schools before the completion of their studies.

The combination of these factors led to remarkable



weakness in the educational achievement of pupils in the preparatory school. This had equally unsatisfactory consequences in the post-preparatory, special and military schools. Without any doubt the educational system as a whole was unsatisfactory.<sup>1</sup>

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, pp.423-428.

CHAPTER FOURTEWFIK AND THE BRITISH OCCUPATION

Ismail was forced to abdicate on 19 June, 1879,<sup>1</sup> and then exiled to Italy. Tewfik succeeded his father Ismail on 26 June, 1879.<sup>1</sup> The latter's abdication was the consequence of financial and political troubles which began in 1876. The new Khedive reigned the country for thirteen years from 1879 to 1892. "Tewfik was weak, cunning, and incompetent. 'He deceived everyone, accomplished nothing, and died Khedive'".<sup>3</sup> He was educated in Egypt and never left the country, not even to pay the customary visit to the Porte on succeeding to the Khedivial throne.<sup>4</sup>

In 1876 the financial crisis in Egypt resulted in the floating of a Foreign Debt Control. In order to secure the European debts; the Khedive was obliged to accept the nomination of two European ministers in the Egyptian cabinet. The Minister of Finance was English, meanwhile, the Minister of Public Works was French. The above Anglo-French control or the so-called Dual Control was accepted by the Powers and the Porte, but was opposed by the Egyptians. The Dual Control was suspended in December 1878, but was revived during the reign of Tewfik in September 1879, and not abolished until Orabi's famous demonstration of 19 September, 1881.<sup>5</sup>

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.10.
  2. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.425.
  3. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.10.
  4. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.174.
  5. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.180.

Orabi's movement is considered as one of the most profound and devoted attempts to secure the Egyptian national targets and to eliminate the foreign intervention and exploitation. It is the first attempt stimulated by the action of a pure Egyptian. Under Orabi's plan all the regiments quartered in Cairo were to march to Abdin Palace that Friday 19 September, 1881, afternoon. This demonstration was organised to present the nation's and army's demands to the Khedive.

At the head of this military demonstration appeared Orabi surrounded by a group of his colleagues, the total number of soldiers amounted to 4,000 fully equipped. The Khedive accompanied by Sir Auckland, General Stone, Mr. Colvin, Mr. Cookson, the acting British Consul-General and a few officers, interviewed Orabi. In reply to the demand of the Khedive for the explanation of the astonishing scene, Orabi replied that they came to put to the Khedive the demands of the army and the nation.

" 'What are these demands?' asked the Khedive. 'We have three demands to make', said Orabi, 'First, the dismissal of the Cabinet; second, the meeting of the Chamber of Delegates, and third, the raising of the army to 18,000 men as stated in the firman,' He added that the army had come to see these demands accepted, and would not move from their places till their demands were conceded."<sup>1</sup>

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1. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.183. For full details of the procedures and consequences of this movement, see Ahmad Orabi. *Kashf Al-Sitār 'an Sir Al-Asrar fī Al-Nahdah Al-Misriyah Al-Mashurah bi Al-Thawrah Al-Orabiyah* "Disclosing the Secret of the Egyptian Renaissance Known as Orabi's Revolution" (Cairo: Misr Press, 1925), pp.235-236. (In Arabic).

There is no place to discuss in detail the episodes that followed this demonstration. Britain seized the occasion as a golden opportunity to intervene in the internal affairs of Egypt by occupying the country. On 11 July, 1882, the British fleet bombarded Alexandria in an attempt to invade the country from the north. But the British Government found that it was sufficient to attack Egypt from the East via the Suez Canal.

And so Orabi's nationalist movement came to an end due to the British army's intervention which resulted in the unequal battle, at Tel-El-Kebir on 13 September 1882.<sup>1</sup> The excuses for such military action, from the British point of view was the protection of the foreign debts, to secure the public order and continuing of western interests in Egypt.

To forestall demands by other Powers for the evacuation of British troops from Egypt, the British government at intervals made pronouncements on the state of affairs justifying the maintenance of an army in occupation whilst reaffirming the readiness to withdraw when conditions permitted.

In 1883, one year after the beginning of the British military occupation of Egypt, the British government declared that "although for the present a British force remains in Egypt for the preservation of public tranquility, Her Majesty's Government is desirous of withdrawing it as

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1. M. Rifaat, op.cit., p.211.

soon as the state of the country will admit for it."<sup>1</sup>

In 1884, two years after the commencement of the occupation, Granville replied to a question concerning the prospect of evacuation in the following terms:

"There is some difficulty in fixing a precise date for the evacuation ... for in practice such a date may prove either too long or too short. But Her Majesty's Government, in order to dissipate any sort of doubt regarding her policy in this affair ... promises to withdraw her troops at the commencement of the year 1888 provided the Powers will be of opinion that the evacuation can take place without compromising peace or order in the country." <sup>2</sup>

In a tract on the subject of the British government's announcements on evacuation it is stated that no less than sixty public statements were promulgated.<sup>3</sup> As a result of despotism, extravagance and mismanagement of the rulers who succeeded Mohammad Ali, Egypt suffered a series of catastrophes. An eminent writer refers to the Khedives of Egypt as having been tyrants of the worst kind, indulging in the exercise of cruelty and failing in the obligations of government. "They jump from an extreme of injustice to a prodigality of munificence. They violate all economic and moral principles in managing fiscal affairs. They often through Europeans of high ability and low morals try to introduce new wine of European civilization into old bottles of conservatism."<sup>4</sup>

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1. Lord Cromer, *Modern Egypt* (London: The Macmillan Co., 1908), vol. II, p. 340.
  2. *Parliamentary Papers: Egypt. Correspondence between Granville and Waddington, June 1884*; quoted by M. Rifaat, *op.cit.*, p. 216.
  3. Murray Harris, *op.cit.*, p. 4.
  4. G. Young, *op.cit.*, p. 85.

COMMISSION ON EDUCATION 1880.

In 1880, a special commission was constituted to design a reconstruction of preparatory education, which initiated a movement of reform of education. After a thorough investigation, the Commission promulgated a Report.

The Commission admitted the concrete fact that the levels of attainment of the pupils were unsatisfactory, and that the number of preparatory schools was inadequate.<sup>1</sup> The overloading of the timetable and curriculum presented the pupils with difficulties that they could not deal with. Moreover, many subjects prescribed were useless to the pupils, and contributed only a minimum benefit to the society. The elimination of such subjects from the curriculum was therefore approved by the Commission to give the pupils competent time to apply exercises and experiments in subjects which in practise had been merely learnt by rote. The Commission's investigations referred to the weak results in the study of history and geography. The achievement in physics and chemistry also fell below the required standard.

To remedy these unsatisfactory features, the Commission made the following proposals: (1) The number of teachers should be increased, on condition that they were allocated to preparatory schools. (2) Pupils who were found incapable of benefitting by their studies should be dismissed. (3) Preparatory classes should no longer be annexed to the

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1. Rapport de la Commission pour les Réformés, p.25. In Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.432.

primary schools at the provincial capitals. (4) Adequate provision should be made for the establishment of new preparatory schools. In addition to the foregoing recommendations, a new approach to the curricula was made the subject of discussion and study. It was intended to introduce radical changes in preparatory education programme. The main objectives was to make the programme at all grades flexible, diverse and efficient in order the better to meet the requirements of special schools.

The Commission recommended the division of the preparatory programme into two sections, which was to commence on the termination of the third grade. These two sections were (1) the literary section, and (2) the mathematic section. The former was to accept pupils who had literary aptitudes, interests and potentialities, and were able and willing to study languages and such social subjects as geography and history. The latter was to enrol pupils who had a talent for mathematics. In addition the Commission drew up the outline of a full educational programme for each section,<sup>1</sup> stressing the importance of educational certificates<sup>2</sup> which could be conferred to those who finished successfully the primary, the preparatory or the special stage.

Though profound efforts were devoted to the preparation of these recommendations they were not implemented

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1. Rapport de la Commission pour les Réformés, pp.28-29.  
2. Ibid., p.53. See Abd-el-Karīm, op.cit., vol.II, part II, p.433.

probably because their implementation would have required much time, effort, and expenditure. Despite the fact that the Commission of 1880 had suggested the introduction of a certificate to be granted to secondary stage graduates, this was disregarded and no Secondary Education Certificate was introduced until 26 March, 1889.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE CAIRO TECHNICAL SCHOOL

The Report raised certain postulates to be discussed later, concerning a technical school parallel to the preparatory level or stage. The school had its own special administration, and was called Madrasat Al-Sina'ah or the Technical School. This school occupied a particular part of the School of Arts and Crafts at Bulaq, Cairo; the latter was sometimes called Madrasat Al-Amaliyat.

The Cairo Technical School was established in 1878 to provide a fraction of primary school graduates who were of good behaviour, industrious and of moderate intelligence, but who were unable to pursue advanced academic studies of a special school. The proper function of this school was to provide those candidates with different sorts of vocational skills and practical activities, in order to enable them to pursue their future careers satisfactorily.

The school opened with an admission of 78 pupils. In the following year, 1880, 97 pupils were admitted who were

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1. See the Ministerial Decree in Philip Galad, Qamus Al-Idarah wa Al-Qada' "Dictionary of Administration and Jurisdiction" (Cairo: Bulaq Press, 1890-1896), vol.IV, p.314 (In Arabic).



divided into two sections. All the pupils were taught arithmetic, geometry and drawing. Thirteen of them studied, in addition to the above mentioned subjects, decorative drawing and painting. While there were seven pupils from the total number of the second section pupils studying decorative drawing and painting. The curriculum provided special instruction and skills associated with a particular kind of occupation. In other words, in this technical school the teaching given to the pupils was capable of immediate application, and was concerned with the control of material things. This school was so practical in intention that there were no teachers of either Arabic or European languages appointed to teach the pupils.

The time-table of this school is summarised as follows. For the majority of the pupils, the theoretical lessons finished at ten o'clock; for the twenty pupils who were studying decorative drawing and painting, they finished at one o'clock in the afternoon. All the pupils attended the workshop, in which apprentices taught them the skills of different trades and vocations.

The distribution of the pupils of the various skills taught, in 1880 were 28 pupils training in fitting, 5 training in turning, 21 training in carpentry, 3 training in plumbing and 2 training in decoration, plaster casting and decoration.

The idea of siting the school in an industrial

district, and the providing of workshop experience in an environment related to the activities being pursued was at the time unique.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE

As soon as the Commission had completed the study of the preparatory education in Egypt, it started the discussion of the procedures necessary to enable the primary schools' graduates, unwilling or unable to pursue advanced academic studies, to obtain further education linked to the preparatory school in level, but vocational in orientation.

The Commission was fully convinced of the necessity of establishing an agricultural school, especially in Egypt, a country where land was the main source of wealth. During this period, the government endeavoured to establish an institution providing those who desired to improve the methods of agriculture which were, at that time, based upon traditional peasant and largely subsistence methods.

The aim of the school was to be training practical agriculturalists who would be competent in crop raising and in animal husbandry.

The Commission recommended the establishment of an agricultural school similar in level to the preparatory school. Its function was to serve two objectives:

- (1) To provide pupils, who intended in the future to form,

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, p.222.

or supervise the administration of land belonging to their families, with an education which would enable them to serve this purpose reasonably and extensively.

(2) To provide well-qualified managers, supervisors, and administrators for the existing large estates.

As the project was still entirely at the planning stage, it was still possible to put all its theoretical implications into practice. Thus it was found advisable to build the school on a prosperous and active estate. The Administration of Government Lands agreed to give to the prospective school a piece of land at Shubra near Cairo, and to provide it with all other facilities to set up and foster this new type of education.

The Commission proposed that the initial pupil intake should be 25-30 pupils a year and that this should eventually be increased at intervals. Admission to the school required that candidates should have obtained the advanced primary education certificate or, alternatively that they should pass an entrance examination of the same level of attainment. The Commission recommended that the boarding system was to be the rule, the possibility of admitting some external pupils was also considered. A fixed number of poor and semi-poor pupils were to be accepted without paying for tuition.

The Commission added that the administration of this school was to remain, solely, in the hands of the Ministry

of Education. The cycle of studies at this school was to be of four years duration.

The subjects to be taught at the school were to be agriculture, horticulture, poultry and cattle-breeding, elementary veterinary medicine, botany, zoology, agricultural trades, survey and agricultural book-keeping, and, if a satisfactory number of the pupils desired this study and were found capable of mastering it, the study of Turkish or a European language was to be added.

Finally, it was proposed to provide the advanced pupils with additional subjects such as: Agricultural law, the Agriculture Councils System, and other regulations of interest to landowners.

It was proposed that an agricultural museum should be attached to the school to which the pupil would be admitted at certain hours. A farm was to be allocated beside the school to provide opportunities for the pupils to follow up their classroom studies by observation of field and by experiments under the supervision of their teachers. The pupils were also expected to participate in practical agricultural activities.

It was recommended that the educational certificate attesting the completion of the full duration of studies was never to be granted unless the pupil proved that he could satisfactorily perform all the activities of agriculture and husbandry in practice taught.<sup>1</sup>

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, pp.223-226.

EDUCATION DURING TEWFIK'S REIGN (1879-1892)

Some discussion of the political, social and economic features of the country is a necessity to the consideration of the education system because the latter is a social institution related to and dependent upon politics, economics and society.

Secondary education during the reign of Tewfik was not an isolated phenomenon, and must be discussed within the context of the events that happened in that era, in particular, attention must be given to the fact that in addition to internal pressures for change, invasion from abroad exercised its own special influence on education.

Some writers are convinced that Tewfik was a ruler who encouraged the expansion of education, and approved of many educational reforms to improve the schools in both quantitatively and qualitatively.<sup>1</sup>

A Commission of Educational Reform was formed according to a decree issued on 27 May, 1880. The Commission started on 2 June, 1880, its task of investigation.<sup>2</sup> The Minister of Education stated that the educational machine was at a standstill. Moreover, he was convinced of the inadequacy of the meagre allowance allocated to education and the need for reform by a revision and improvement of the curricula. He stressed the need for continuity between the different levels of education, namely primary, preparatory and higher

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.426.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, p.189.

education. He criticised the lack of primary facilities for the people, except in Cairo itself, which did not provide the preparatory school facilities of wide enough choice of satisfactory candidates and which in turn affected the standard of the pupil who had to be admitted to this school and in the special schools; the pupils chosen from the Primary School were not sufficiently prepared with the result that there was a low standard throughout and consequently a very poor type of official was produced.<sup>1</sup>

The Minister suggested an increase in the number of primary schools, the granting of school certificates to control the promotion of pupils not only from one grade to another, but also, from one school to another. The acquisition of a school certificate was to be the fundamental condition of appointment to government posts.

The Minister pointed out two major obstacles which barred the way of the proposed reform (1) lack of money and (2) lack of qualified teachers. He considered it an easy matter to overcome this double handicap by allocating a larger allowance from the budget, and by improving the standard of the Arabic training college for teachers, Dar Al'Ulum, as well as establishing another training college for graduating qualified teachers of European languages, history, geography, physics and chemistry.

The Report contained many well-devised suggestions

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.426.

concerning the establishment of primary schools all over Egypt. According to the section of the report dealing with this subject, the population of every village community was to share in the expenses entailed in providing adequate courses in primary education and thus to ease the financial burden on the government. The creation of a Council of Education in the Diwan itself was proposed to organise and assess the educational programmes, and to secure the selection and prescription of the books required.<sup>1</sup> Towards these ends the education allowance from the State's Budget was increased in 1880 to £.E.59,415 to £.E.81,949 in 1881; and to £.E.88.078 in 1882.<sup>2</sup>

Since the main subject of this study is concerning actual research into secondary education, there is no room for a discussion of the Report as a whole, and the emphasis must be devoted to the provisions for preparatory education. Regarding this educational level the Commission referred to a previous report made by D'or, who had stated that only the Cairo Preparatory School could be considered as providing secondary education. In this respect it should be noted that the recruits to the special school were drawn from the Cairo Preparatory School.<sup>3</sup>

The number of pupils enrolled in the Cairo Preparatory

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, pp.198-201.  
J.Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.227.
  2. Yacob Artin, Consideration sur L'Instruction Publique en Egypte (Le Caire: Imprimerie Nationale, 1894), p.33.
  3. Rapport de la Commission pour les Réformés, dans l'Organisation de l'Instruction Publique (Le Caire: Imprimerie Nationale, 1881), pp.24-25.

School was increased from 216 in July 1880 to 292 in November of the same year.

TABLE XXV <sup>1</sup>

NUMBERS OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN THE CAIRO PREPARATORY  
SCHOOL IN NOVEMBER, 1880

GRADE	NO. OF PUPILS	PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE
First	21	7
Second	74	25
Third	87	30
Fourth	110	38

As already stated, the Report emphasised the necessity of increasing the number of teachers. It also recommended an improvement in the standard of history and geography teaching, and suggested that backward pupils should be eliminated after the third grade. It suggested that after the third grade pupils were to be divided according to their abilities tendencies, interests and aspirations into a literary and a scientific section. As regards the discipline of the school the Report maintained that was weak, and the reason for this was the inadequacy of the staff.<sup>1</sup>

A remarkable expansion in preparatory education manifested itself in the establishment of preparatory classes attached to some primary schools. In 1879 this type of class had been annexed to the Primary Schools of Cairo,

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1. J. Heyworth-Dunne, op.cit., p.432.



Alexandria, Tanta, Assiut, Beni-Suef and Rosetta. The total number of pupils accommodated to the foregoing preparatory classes was 240. Table XXVI indicates the number of pupils attending each grade of the stated schools.

TABLE XXVI<sup>1</sup>

ENROLMENT NUMBER OF THE ANNEXED PREPARATORY CLASSES  
TO PRIMARY SCHOOLS

SCHOOL	NUMBER OF PUPILS			
	Second Grade	Third Grade	Fourth Grade	Total
Cairo Primary School	17	31	46	94
Alexandria Primary School	-	5	8	13
Tanta Primary School	-	22	30	52
Assiut Primary School	-	12	9	21
Beni Suef Primary School	-	22	32	54
Rosetta Primary School	-	-	6	6
Total	17	92	131	240

It is obvious from the preceding Table that the annexed preparatory classes to the Cairo Primary School overweighed the total enrolment number in all the corresponding schools in the provinces. Furthermore in some schools only two grades were in operation. For instance, there was only one preparatory grade comprising 6 pupils annexed to the Rosetta Primary School. Thus whilst there were 292 pupils attending the Cairo Preparatory School there were 240 pupils attending all the annexed preparatory classes.

1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.III, p.219.

SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE BRITISH OCCUPATION PERIOD  
(1882-1922)

The provision of education following the advent of British occupation of Egypt underwent great change. When the occupation took place the country was in a state of chaos which handicapped any expansion or reconstruction in the realm of education.

Lord Cromer, who was Consul-General in Egypt from 1884 up till 1907,<sup>1</sup> was responsible for educational system as well as other activities in the country.

Three obstacles had interfered with the possibilities of progress in the development of education:

(1) Financial difficulties as the result of the absurd and extravagant policy of Ismail, and the need for repaying a substantial element of Egypt's foreign debts before any considerable internal reform was possible.

(2) The ignorance and jealousies of the pashadom, the aristocratic class, made them reactionary to any programme of reform or of development.

(3) The British policy which "precluded any direct attempt to establish the influence of the British culture",<sup>2</sup> on grounds that the British occupation was a temporary condition.

The Anglo-French Declaration of 1904 which recognised

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1. Humphrey Bowman, Middle-East Window(London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1942), p.46.
  2. Lord Lloyd, Egypt Since Cromer (London: The Macmillan Co., 1933), vol.I, p.159.

Britain's special position in Egypt and that of France in Morocco, which was approved by Germany, Austria, and Italy,<sup>1</sup> and the attainment of financial solvency in 1889, created conditions which were much more favourable to the reform and development of education. Yet little was attempted. The stagnant attitude in education was in part due to the hangover of two decades of chaos and indifference and in part to the Whig tradition in which Lord Cromer had been brought up<sup>2</sup> and which coloured his own attitudes.

In considering educational development in Egypt during the British occupation it is necessary to give some attention to the influence of tradition of education in England and the underlying educational philosophy.<sup>3</sup> In addition note must be taken of the English position as an occupying power and how this influenced policy.

Lord Macaulay's educational policy in India was the guiding star in Lord Cromer's educational programme in Egypt. Thus the overall designation of the educational activities was confined to provision of two types of instruction: (1) a higher type for the few rich individuals, and (2) a lower type for the majority of the people, the poor masses. Thus Lord Cromer interpreted his responsibilities in educational field as being in part the production of an élite which would

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1. Lord Cromer, op.cit., vol.II, p.391.

2. Lord Cromer, op.cit., vol.I, p.161.

3. Education Yearbook, 1929, an article by Sir Michael Sadler. "The Philosophy Underlying the System of Education in England", (New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1930), pp.3-4.

form the ruling class, and in part the ensuring that the masses should be educated in a fashion consistent with that state of life to which God had called them.<sup>1</sup>

This policy involved giving paramount attention to the old system of kuttab education for the masses and the provision of a small number of schools on modern lines, which applied a vigorous examination system for promotion. Furthermore, fees were charged at such a level that precluded any but the rich from being admitted to the schools. Thus modern secular education was made the privilege of the few, where as prior to 1882 education at all levels had been free.<sup>2</sup>

One consequence of the charging of fees was a sharp drop in the enrolment figures. Commenting on this aspect of affairs, White states: "Few boys survive the secondary course. They enter at the age of fourteen, or under, and drop off steadily year by year because parents get weary of paying fees."<sup>3</sup> The primary schools fees were £.E.12-15 per annum per pupil.<sup>4</sup> It is probable that secondary schooling fees were higher.

The privileged pupils, whose parents were affluent enough to pay secondary school fees, were handicapped by the vigorous nature of the examination. Prior to the British occupation the sole function of the examinations had been to

1. Lord Cromer, op.cit., vol.II, p.534.

2. Ibid., p.531.

3. Arthur Silva White, The Expansion of Egypt (London: Methuen and Co., 1899) p.229.

4. G.H.Stevens, Egypt in 1898. (New York: Dodd, Mead, and Co., 1898), p.107.

stimulate the pupils to acquire knowledge and skills, as it was stipulated in the Law of Rajab A.H. 1284.<sup>1</sup>

A Board of Examiners was constituted to organise and administer the examinations, which were superintended by Mr. Dunlop, the British adviser himself.<sup>2</sup> The British concept of the use of the examination was dominated by vigorous standards of attainment.

The challenging character of the Secondary Education Certificate Examination is fully exemplified in high level of failure shown. In 1891 for instance, only 28 candidates out of 128 passed the examination successfully. In the following year, 1892, 83 out of 90 were successful.<sup>3</sup> The unsatisfactory results may have been attributed to the inadequacies of the pupils. Yet it would appear that this is not so, as some writers have testified to the ability of the pupils. Consequently it is therefore reasonable to assume that the real cause of deficiency was embodied in the system of examination itself.<sup>4</sup>

Table XXVII will demonstrate the impact of both vigorous examinations and excessive fees on the secondary schools' enrolment figures in a period from 1887 up till 1892.

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1. See J. Heyworth-Dunne, *op.cit.*, pp.362-369 for the complete text of the Law of the 10th Rajab 1284 = 7th November 1867; and in particular articles 18, 19, 20, 21 concerning "Rewards and prizes". p.365.
  2. A.S.White, *op.cit.*, p.222.
  3. G.H.Stevens, *op.cit.*, pp.112-113.
  4. For a full discussion of this point see Stevens, *op.cit.*, pp.118-119.

TABLE XXVII<sup>1</sup>  
NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
BETWEEN 1887 and 1893

YEAR	ENROLMENT FIGURES PER EACH GRADE:			
	FIRST GRADE	SECOND GRADE	THIRD GRADE	FOURTH GRADE
1887	201	74	56	19
1888	190	128	62	56
1889	194	110	89	44
1890	241	140	93	70
1891	257	195	126	75
1892	225	170	129	80

Whilst the high fees have been generally regarded as the main cause of the wastage, doubtless failure in promotion examinations may have also contributed to the loss of pupils.

The limited provision of secondary education during this period is illustrated by the data provided in the following Table.

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1. Y. Artin, Considerations ..., op.cit., p.143.

TABLE XXVIII<sup>1</sup>  
NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR BOYS  
AND ENROLMENT FIGURES FROM 1882 to 1923

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	NO. OF SCHOOLS	NO. OF PUPILS
1882-1883	1	275
1890-1891	3	705
1900-1901	3	569
1910-1911	5	2,197

It is apparent from Table XXVIII that over a period of approximately three decades the provision of schools only rose from 1 to 5, and the pupil enrolment from 275 to 2,197. These schools were for boys only. Throughout this period there was no provision of modern secondary education in Egypt for girls by the government.

Mr. Dunlop who was the British Educational Adviser from 1906 to 1919 received the greatest weight of criticism for the failure of the educational development as borne out in the facts enunciated above.<sup>2</sup> Thus education in a liberal tradition, in accordance with the English people's democratic ideals, was never part of the British educational policy in

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1. Sati Al-Husary, Hawliyat Al-Thaqafah Al-Arabiyyah "Yearbook of Arab Culture" First Year (Cairo: Lagnat Al-Talif Wa Al-Targamah Wa Al-Nashr, 1949), p.376. (In Arabic).
  2. For different points of criticism see J.E.Marshall, The Egyptian Enigma (London: J.Murray, 1928), pp.91-92; Sir Valentine Chirol, op.cit., pp.231-232; P.G. Elgood, op.cit., p.147; and Lord Lloyd, op.cit., vol.I, p.161.

Egypt.<sup>1</sup> The corresponding figures of the years 1920-1921 there were 8 schools with 3,261 pupils and 216 teachers. In 1921-22, nine schools, 252 teachers and 3,789 pupils. In 1922-23, ten schools, 292 teachers and 4,363 pupils. Concerning girls' secondary education, there was one school in operation in 1920-21 with 28 pupils and 7 teachers. In 1921-22, 8 teachers and 43 pupils.

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION EXPENDITURES

Figures concerning the budgetary provision for education throw light on the educational activities. In the year 1920-21 the state budget was £.E. 62,051,182. Meanwhile the Ministry of Education budget was £.E.1,097,341, i.e. 1.7 per cent of the State's budget. The state's budget in 1921-22 had decreased to only £.E.37,747,112. Ministry of Education allocations was £.E.1,209,653, or approximately 3.2 per cent of the total state budget.<sup>2</sup> Academic secondary education expenditure was only £.E.183,320<sup>3</sup> of the Ministry's budget.

#### TECHNICAL EDUCATION

During the period under survey the government showed little concern about secondary education in general and technical in particular. The reason for this overall neglect

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1. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., p.101.
  2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.348.
  3. H. Ammar, op.cit., p.141.



was embodied in the outlook of both the landlords, the affluent element of the nation and in the outlook of the occupying powers. The large landowners had no desire to change things themselves, and the British policy was influenced by the fact as a major industrial nation it was interested in a market for its goods but was not anxious to have any local competition. In consequence there was motivation in favour of developing local industry and, in consequence, no concern for developing secondary technical education. Table XXIX demonstrates the extent of the neglect.

TABLE XXIX<sup>1</sup>

NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN TECHNICAL EDUCATION

FROM 1882 to 1911

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION	COMMERCIAL EDUCATION	AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION
1882-1883	136	-	-
1890-1891	353	-	44
1900-1901	345	-	54
1910-1911	824	120	196

Over a period of nearly 30 years 1,658 pupils were enrolled in industrial education. No provision was made for commercial education until 1910, and despite the fact that

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.378.

Egypt throughout this period was regarded primarily as an agricultural country less than 300 pupils received formal agricultural education. There was no provision made for girls' technical education during the mentioned above span of time.

The following discussion will be devoted to demonstrate growth of the technical and vocational education provided. This type of instruction falls into four categories: (i) Industrial, (ii) Commercial, (iii) Agricultural and (iv) Feminist vocational education.

#### I. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

Up to 1911 there was one industrial school at Mansura, in addition to a couple of workshops, in Cairo, and at Assiut in succession. The prime function of these schools was to provide the government with its trained technical workers. Reading and writing were the sole requirements for admission to training.

#### II. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Prior to 1911 there was no provision by the Government for commercial education. The financial and commercial spheres were monopolised, as has been indicated in Chapter One, entirely by alien members of the population. In 1911 a group of ardent Egyptian citizens established a Commercial Institute to permit Egyptians to acquire commercial knowledge and skills. This institution comprised two levels: (a) an intermediate course and (b) higher course. Admission to the intermediate course which was called the intermediate School

of Auditing and Commerce, required the candidates to have obtained the Primary Education Certificate. Enrolment to this school was stimulated by the establishment of Bank Misr.

### III. AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

In 1890 an agricultural school was founded to accommodate those who desired to learn agricultural skills. The only provision for admission to this school was the holding of the Primary Education Certificate. This provision seriously limited the enrolment of a sufficient number of candidates. Many holders of the Primary Education Certificate preferred to pursue a general secondary education in the hope of gaining opportunities for the pursuit of higher education, as this opened the way to distinguished and lucrative posts in the government. In 1911 an agricultural school, parallel to secondary school education, was opened at Moushtohor. In 1912 a second agricultural secondary school was founded at Damanhour. In 1914 a third school was set up at Shebin El-Kom. Fifteen years later in 1929 a fourth agriculture secondary school was established at Minia.

### IV. FEMALE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In 1910, the first vocational school for girls came into existence at Kobri El-Koubba, Cairo. This school provided facilities for specialised study of home economics. Admission to the school required entrants to have obtained the Post-Elementary Education Certificate, which was equivalent to the Primary Education Certificate, with

exemption from foreign language instruction.<sup>1</sup>

The provision of facilities for secondary education was not, however, limited to government effort, private persons, provincial authorities and foreign organisations made independent provision in a variety of ways and had a profound influence on the education system.

#### TECHNICAL EDUCATION ENROLMENT FIGURES

It is necessary to supplement this section with the enrolment figures of 1920-21: Industrial schools comprised 1,026 pupils, Commercial 1,081, and Agricultural 86. In 1921-22, 1,358, 1,191 and 189 in succession.<sup>2</sup>

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1. Mohammed Khayri Harby and El-Sayed Mohammed El-Azzawi, Education in Egypt (U.A.R.) in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1960), pp.16-19.
  2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.376.

CHAPTER FIVESECONDARY EDUCATION FROM 1922 TO 1952SOCIAL FORCES AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

The two major traditions of education which emerged by the end of the nineteenth century were the kuttab for the mass of the people, and the primary school for the privileged few. Profound endeavours were exerted by the educational authorities to bridge the gap between the two channels of education. Some consideration must now be given to the social forces involved in the educational process.

There was obviously a great public demand for higher education. This demand <sup>was</sup> perpetuated and aggravated by the lack of sufficient places in the state system to satisfy it, in spite of the foundation of the Egyptian university in 1908.<sup>1</sup> This university remained for fifteen years a private institution. As a result of financial problems it was transferred to sponsorship of the Ministry of Education. In 1925, a royal decree was promulgated to establish a state university under the name "Egyptian University". The university recruited its students from the secondary education leavers. Consequently, great strain was laid upon secondary schools in order to feed the university. This is not astonishing since parents at the lower end of the social

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1. Roderic D. Matthews and Matta Akrawi, Education in Arab Countries of the Near East (Washington D.C. : American Council on Education, 1949), p.71.

scale realised that education had become one of the main agents of occupational and also social mobility.<sup>1</sup> In addition, such education also has status value, since social position depends to a remarkable extent on a person's occupation. It should also be noted that there was pressure upon the middle classes to hold their position in society against the competition from other social levels.

The social needs of the growing and complicated society required a better educated population. The lesson had to be learnt that the nation ought to rely upon other resources beside agriculture as it became clear that the agricultural economy is incapable of keeping pace with the needs of the rapid increase of population.

The World Wars I and II forced examination of the educational system. As a result of shortages of the imported manufactured goods industry began to expand resulting in a demand for technical education felt by the people and the state.

The great trend of democracy and consequently the belief in social equality led to a demand for equal educational opportunity. This attitude was given explicit recognition in the Educational Law of Secondary Education of 1951 which provided free secondary education for all. It had also provided or rather encouraged, different kinds of secondary

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1. For a good discussion of sociological account of this issue, see the Yearbook of Education, 1950, Chapter V, "Education Opportunity and Social Mobility" by Jean Floud. (London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1951).

schools to meet different abilities, aptitudes and needs of the pupils. Moreover, the feasibility of transformation from one type of secondary education to another was essential in the provision of equal educational opportunity.

Education of girls had also expanded. This was naturally the outcome of the new conception of equal educational opportunity. Schools for girls were opened all over the country to provide the girls with various types of education, secondary and technical. Establishment of the Egyptian University is the turning point in the history of girls' education. Thus women began to secure salaried occupations and skilled work increased at a great degree in particular from that time onwards.

#### SOCIAL FACTORS AND THEIR IMPACT

Education is a single social institution, at the same time it is influenced by and reflects other factors, economic, social and political in varying degree at different times. Any major variation in these factors makes for change in education. Furthermore, secondary education is related to primary education upon which it is built, and to university education of which it is the forerunner. Changes in either primary or university education will effect secondary education.

At the primary level in addition to secular primary schools, there was a system of primary education basically

religious in elements. Since 1889 this feature of education has undergone four phases.

(1) During the period between 1889 and 1910 primary religious education was provided by endowed and individual kuttabs.

(2) The period between 1910 and 1916 which has been characterised by the Provincial Councils' efforts in expansion of education in general and elementary education in particular.

(3) From 1916 up to 1925 the kuttabs were transformed into elementary schools.

(4) From 1925 up till 1940 efforts were made to establish compulsory education at this stage, in addition to expanding it. This type of education was established in accordance with the Article 19 of the Constitution of 1923 which stipulated a compulsory education for both boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 12 years. The legislators of the Constitution believed that a sound social life could only be realised through the spread of education. Therefore, education was considered a major agent to attain satisfactory social reform and a sound democratic life.

The establishment of the Egyptian University in 1925, as mentioned before, and the attempts made to reform higher education in 1927, had important consequences for secondary education in seeking to keep pace with the new requirements of the university education.<sup>1</sup>

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, *op.cit.*, pp.40-45; see also M.K. Harby and E.S.M. El-Azzawi, *op.cit.*, pp.9-12 and 20-26.



### EFFORTS FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The sole function of secondary education during the occupation period was to provide persons qualified for requirement to government service. Preparation for either higher education or future life was neglected. Yacoub Artin comments upon this aspect of secondary education in the following terms: "If we considered the decree issued in 1892 and make an approximate computation of the government administrative needs, we will find that the Ministry of Education should graduate, in a short period, 200 candidates at the Secondary Education Certificate level. To attain this end, it is necessary to raise the enrolment number to meet this need of a five-year period of duration to 2,000 pupils."<sup>1</sup>

In 1919, the national consciousness reached its climax and was manifested in the national aspiration for political independence and a sound system of education with specific and utilitarian functions. An expression of this awaking of the national conscience was frequent appearance in the Press of articles criticising the kind of education provided, and the failure of the secondary schools to become useful instruments in serving the society. Thus the cry for an education more closely related to citizenship needs.

### THE 1925 PROJECT

In 1925, the Ministry of Education launched an

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1. Yacoub Artin, *Al-Qawl Al-Tam fi Al-Ta'lim Al-'Am* "Last Word in Public Education" Tr. by Ali Bahgat (Cairo: Bulaq Press, 1894), pp.54-55. (In Arabic).

extraordinary review of the syllabuses. Committees were constituted to investigate the conditions of secondary education. As a result of their examinations they advocated the inclusion of additional practical subjects to the curriculum of the secondary school level. Thus increasing the demands upon the pupils to an absurd degree.

In 1926, the secondary schools' length of studies was extended from four years to five. The time-table was expanded from 30 to 36 lesson-periods per week. French was added to the curriculum as a supplementary foreign language. Furthermore, natural history, geology, psychology, logic, economics, civics and ethics were added to the curriculum. Great attention was given to increasing the content of the subject-matter in Arabic, geography, history, science and mathematics. Thus, this measure emphasised quantity rather than quality. Nevertheless, it may be considered the first effort in the realm of reconstruction and reformation of the curricula designed under the supervision of the British Educational Adviser.<sup>1</sup> The main purpose of secondary education, however, was as before to provide recruits for government service, but the objective for providing candidates for admission to the university began to receive some attention from the planners of secondary school level curricula. No provision was made to provide teaching related to the interests of the society other than these.

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1. A. Boktor, op.cit., p.143.

### REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The Ministry of Education had undertaken a major task in the realm of educational reconstruction. In accordance with its endeavours, it had engaged two European experts in education, to investigate the educational system as a whole, and to contribute their proposals and recommendations. In addition the Egyptian educationists had also exerted great efforts to contribute their suggestions in this respect.

In connection with the educational reports for reform, it could be said that the Mann Report and the Claparède Report are the landmarks in the contemporary educational literature. These two independent reports were submitted by an English expert in education Mr. Mann and a Swiss Professor of Education Dr. Claparède. After a study of system of Egyptian schools during the winter of 1928/29, they had delivered two separate reports. A former Egyptian Minister of Education had also contributed a similar report on secondary education in 1935, which will be discussed in another place of the thesis. By the same Minister a report was issued in 1943, which will also be discussed later on. These printed reports are the most significant sources available for the period.

#### THE MANN REPORT AND THE CLAPARÈDE REPORT. 1929.

The outstanding features throughout the history of Egyptian education are two-fold: (1) the objective of the system, and (2) the context of the educational procedures

leading to realisation of that objective. The fundamental criticism which may be directed to educational aim, during the period under investigation, was mass-production system, aiming solely to prepare recruits for government service. So it had ignored the other aims of education. Concerning the context of the educational process, it was primarily directed to attain the former target, or rather it was fundamentally theoretical and academic, crowned by the imperious system of general examination. The logical consequence of the educational system led to inhibition of the growth of independent thought, the ignoring the social obligations, and the creating of passive products.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE AIM OF EGYPTIAN EDUCATION

Concerning the passion for government service Mann said:

"Probably in no country in the world is the status of government employee so high in popular estimation. Nowhere perhaps are parents willing to sacrifice so much for the chance of making their children civil servants of some sort. And, failing government employment of some kind, the next best in the ordinary Egyptian judgment appears to be establishment in one or more dignified professions - in medicine, or law. What least of all appears to be desired generally is that a boy at the conclusion of advanced course of education should have to go out to the world and make his own way by individual force in the spheres of unsheltered industry and commerce."<sup>2</sup>

This attitude towards government posts influenced the whole educational construction and transformed the schools

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1. R. Galt, op.cit., pp.47-50.

2. The Mann Report, (Cairo: Ministry of Education, 1929), pp.10-11. (Mimeographed).

into factories to produce employees. Primary and secondary schools as well as commercial, industrial and agricultural were basically absorbed in this task.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURES

The context of education consists of a three-fold entity: curricula, methods and examinations. Regarding the curricula of the secondary education, it was prescribed by the Ministry of Education. The private schools pursued the same curricula as they were the granted way to general examinations, and consequently government posts. Memorising was the traditional method for assimilating the miscellaneous prescribed subjects. This method was appreciated by the pupils, who considered the passing of examinations as the sole criteria of their education.

Regarding this issue Claparède comments as follows:

"We have heard complaints about memorization of instruction from the top to the bottom of the educational ladder and our visits to the classes have strengthened this impression. We have been told that the students in medicine study their books by rote, but when they must judge for themselves and make a diagnosis at the sick bed, they are completely lost... . These are the three defects (memorization, lack of interest, and absence of initiative) which have everywhere been pointed out to us." 2

In connection with the examinations, it was considered the climax of the whole educational process and the sole criterion for granting the educational certificates. The

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1. The Mann Report, pp.9-13 and 56, 67.  
2. Claparède Report, pp.10-11. Quoted by R.Galt, op.cit., p.59.

great exaltation of the examinations may be attributed to the occupation requirements. Galt interpreted this trend and lay the responsibility upon the British Authorities: "the British definitely tied up government positions with educational certificates."<sup>1</sup>

#### THE COMMITTEE OF 1930

In 1930, a committee was constituted to study the curricula of general education. It was entitled: The Committee for the Formulation of a General Educational Policy. The Minister of Education commented on their work as follows: "They completed as soon as possible this difficult task and represented to the Ministry two reports rich in ideas and observations upon which we shall draw heavily in the study which we shall undertake."<sup>2</sup>

Thus, it is well demonstrated by the educational authority that the reports of Mann and Claparède were remarkable contributions to Egyptian education. The Committee of 1930 summed up the defects of secondary stage in the following points:

- (1) Overloading of secondary education syllabi with miscellaneous subjects.
- (2) Neglect of practical aspects in secondary stage syllabi and emphasis upon theoretical aspects.

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1. R. Galt, op.cit., p.61.

2. See Reports of the Committee for the Formulation of a General Educational Policy, Nov., 1930; see also R.Galt, op.cit., p.48.

- (3) Concrete and remarkable weakness of pupils in educational achievements in the languages field: Arabic and European alike.<sup>1</sup>

The secondary school level was organised in accordance with the Educational Act of 1928. As a result of recommendations of this committee it was amended. This amendment is the first effort to reform secondary education.

Regarding technical education, the Minister in a speech delivered at the Committee for the Formulation of a General Educational Policy, said:

" ... these professional schools instruct their students and give them their diplomas, but rarely do they form men able to give proof of capacity in agriculture, commerce or industry. The diplomas from this type of education are often taken to solicit employment in the government offices, just like the diplomas from the non-professional schools." 2

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION SYLLABUSES

The Turkish language was the medium of instruction in secondary education at its establishment in 1825. The reason for this was that a large number of the pupils were of Turkish or foreign origin. The Arabic language replaced Turkish as the medium of instruction when the majority of

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1. Hassan Fayedq, Taqrir 'an Tataurat Khitat Al-Ta'lim Al-Thanawi "Report on the Developments of the Secondary Education Plan" (Cairo: Ministry of Education, 1935), pp.10-11. (In Arabic).
  2. From a circular letter of the Minister of Education to the Committee for the Formulation of a General Educational Policy, Nov., 1930; see R. Galt, op.cit., p.52.

the pupils were Egyptians during the reign of Ismail. In 1888 English was made the medium of instruction for the teaching of history, geography and physics. The only exception to this rule was mathematics. In 1897 mathematics also was taught through English.<sup>1</sup> Thus the Arabic language lost its position as medium of instruction in the secondary schools. At this stage, the weekly time-table consisted of 33 periods, nine of which were given in Arabic. This policy was pursued up till 1907 when the Arabic language managed to resume its lost prestige.<sup>2</sup>

In 1907, arithmetic and geometry were taught through Arabic in the first year. In 1908, it was extended to the second year of the secondary stage. In 1911, Arabic was made the medium for instruction teaching all mathematic subjects. Geography, natural history, and history were taught in English until 1912 when Arabic became the medium of teaching all subjects within all grades of the secondary level.<sup>3</sup>

There was, however, still virtually no connection between school and society. National requirements and the country's potentialities were ignored. History syllabuses, for instance, were centred upon two major themes: (1) History of Britain and (2) Mohammad Ali's dynasty.

No contribution was made towards the teaching of aesthetic subjects such as music, drama, or the teaching of

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1. H. Bowman, op.cit., p.55.

2. A.I. Abdel-Karim, Tarikh Al-Ta'lim fi Asr Mohammad Ali, p.657.

3. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, pp.362-365.



practical subjects. They were not regarded even as extra-curricular activities that might be carried out under the supervision of the school. Nevertheless, in 1925 they were prescribed as optional subjects.

Scientific subjects were taught theoretically only, no practical training was provided. Though secondary education was considered the source of recruits for government service, clerical in nature, book-keeping, typing, and the like were absolutely ignored. Concerning physical education, only one lesson-period was provided per week.<sup>1</sup>

In 1905, the secondary education course was increased in length from three years to four years. This period was divided into two stages. At the end of the first two years of the secondary stage pupils were required to take an examination. Success gave the candidates the "Qualifying Certificate for Junior Civil Posts". As the name implies the holders of the certificate qualified to the lower ranks of the civil service, otherwise successful candidates were permitted to continue the second part of the secondary school course. In the second stage pupils were enrolled in either literary or scientific courses. The former prepared pupils for admission to the School of Law, the latter prepared candidates for the School of Engineering. The Supreme School for Teachers accepted the graduates of both courses.

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1. H. Fayeq, op.cit., pp.1-8.

The pupils were to be conferred the Secondary Education "Part I" Certificate (Al-Kafa'a) on finishing successfully the first two years of the secondary level. At the termination of the second part of the secondary level, the pupils sat for the final examination. Successful candidates were granted the Secondary Education "Part II" Certificate (Baccalaureate). The implementation of these measures were intended to secure two advantages: (1) Raising the standard of secondary education, and consequently the achievement standard of the higher education, and (2) Elevating the level of the governmental official.<sup>1</sup>

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION PLANS OF STUDIES

As has been mentioned before the sole function of the secondary education programme was either preparation for the high schools, or for admission to government posts. These were the objectives of the secondary education system and the syllabus was devoted to serve these two ends. The curriculum was essentially secular and modern in content. The emphasis was upon quantity of school output rather than upon quality of scholarship. This pattern of secondary education continued until the amendment of the Law No. 26 of 1928, and further amendment in 1935. The length of the course was then changed to five years. In the first three years the emphasis was upon general education leading to the Kafa'a examination. This

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1. A.I. Abdel-Karim, op.cit., vol.II, part II, pp.432-434.

examination consisted of a complicated pattern of tests covering the syllabi of the previous three years. Some idea of what was involved up to 1935 is shown by the time-table requirements.

TABLE XXX<sup>1</sup>

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PRIOR TO 1935

PART ONE

SUBJECTS PROVISIONED TO THREE FIRST YEARS

TERMINATED BY KAFA'A EXAMINATION

SUBJECTS	<u>1<sup>st</sup></u> Year	<u>2<sup>nd</sup></u> Year	<u>3<sup>rd</sup></u> Year
Religion	1	1	-
Arabic language	6	6	6
First Foreign language	9	9	8
Translation	1	1	1
Second Foreign language	4	4	4
Arithmetic, algebra and geometry	6	6	6
Physics	2	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	1
Natural History	-	-	1
History	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2
Civics and ethics	-	-	1
Drawing	1	1	1
Physical Training	1	1	-
TOTAL WEEKLY LESSON PERIODS	35	35	35

1. R.Galt, op.cit., p.127. Quoted from the Official Syllabus of Studies in Secondary Schools for Boys and Girls, (Cairo: Government Press), 1934.

In the last two years, as has already been pointed out, the courses were specialised along the lines of either literary or scientific. It will be seen from examination of Table XXXI, that the degree of specialisation was only partial, in that the literary pupils were required to do some mathematics and some science subjects. Similarly, the scientific pupils were required to study some literary subjects. In the case of the science group language studies were directed mainly to the language needs for the study of scientific subjects, whereas in the literary side, the language studies were directed to literary aspects.

The requirements of mathematics and the sciences on the literary side represented a compulsory requirement making undue demands upon those pupils who had to take examinations in these subjects as well as in their literary subjects. The science pupils on the other hand were not required to study or be examined in such subjects as history, geography, geology, psychology, and logic.

At the end of the specialised course pupils were required to take a final general examination. Successful candidates were granted the Baccalaureate Certificate. Table XXXI sets out the syllabuses of this stage of secondary level.

TABLE XXXI<sup>1</sup>

SUBJECTS ALLOCATED TO SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY COURSES  
COMPRISING THE FINAL TWO YEARS TERMINATED BY  
BACCALAURIATE EXAMINATION

SUBJECTS	4 <sup>th</sup> Year		5 <sup>th</sup> Year	
	Lit.	Sc.	Lit.	Sc.
Arabic language	7	5	7	5
First Foreign language	8	7	8	7
Second Foreign language	6	4	6	4
Translation	2	1	2	1
Arithmetic, algebra, and geometry	2	6	2	6
Physics and Chemistry	2	-	2	-
History	4	-	4	-
Geography and geology	3	-	2	-
Drawing	1	2	1	2
Psychology and logic	-	-	1	-
Mechanics	-	2	-	2
Physics	-	3	-	3
Chemistry	-	3	-	3
Natural History	-	2	-	2
TOTAL WEEKLY LESSON PERIODS	35	35	35	35

SECONDARY EDUCATION REPORT OF 1935

In 1935, the most relevant and progressive report concerning secondary education was promulgated. The Minister of Education had pointed out the defects and suggested the

1. R. Galt, op.cit., p.128.

the means of reform. The report placed the responsibility for the weaknesses in secondary education on the central authority of education: "the real cause of the trouble lies in the Ministry of Education itself."<sup>1</sup>

In connection with the general development of education the report suggested the foundation of: (i) a National Advisory Council, (ii) a Department of Research, (iii) a Department of Supervision, and suggested that these bodies should exert a major influence in order to satisfy the new aspirations of the nation, in the realm of education.<sup>2</sup>

Wide-spread complaints were published through the Press about the weakness of the secondary school leavers, a feeling shared by everybody in contact with this stage of education. This dissatisfaction was summarised in the Report in the following words:

"Profound dissatisfaction with the graduates of secondary education which has been expressed by the university, departments of the Government, business firms and the like. Weak achievements in general knowledge and languages were remarkably felt among the Secondary Education Certificate holders .... High Institutes complain of the absence of some essential characteristics among them such as: rationality, insightment, and self-independence. Lack of investigation ability and scientific thinking as well." <sup>3</sup>

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1. Ahmad Naguib EL-Hilali, Secondary Education, its Defects and Means of Reform (Cairo: Government Press, 1935), p.2.
  2. A.N. EL-Hilali, op.cit., pp.38-39.
  3. Ahmad Naguib EL-Hilali, Al-Ta'lim Al-Thanawi: Oyuboh Wa Wasa'il Islahoh "Secondary Education: Its Defects and Means of Reform" (Cairo: Government Press, 1935), p.1. (In Arabic).

The cause of the weakness may be attributed to the allocated syllabuses for secondary school level which basically formulated a long time ago, had undergone no serious change in relation to the changed social, economic and political circumstances. Academic interests were pursued as the ultimate objectives in themselves. Consequently, memorisation was regarded as the best method for studying. Scientific methods of thinking or creative thinking were completely neglected. This was apparent through the failure of the pupils to express their ideas in correct linguistically way, and was manifested through the incapability of the pupils to acquire self-independence or taking decisions.

#### THE SYSTEM OF EXAMINATIONS

The main comments of the Report in respect of the examination procedures were:

- (1) Divorce the school certificate from government employment by the substitution of civil service entrance examinations. Two results would thereby be attained: (a) selection of sufficient employees, and (b) cutting down some subject-matter which were included in the syllabuses to prepare pupils for government posts.
- (2) Providing a unified primary and secondary stage which might be terminated by a state examination.
- (3) Substitution of the Primary Certificate Examination by a regular promotion examination which should be held at the end of each scholastic year.

(4) Promotion of pupils between succeeding grades within the eight-year stage (the proposed combination of the primary and secondary courses) might be replaced through assessment by headmaster and the staff. Such a procedure would contribute a great freedom to the school administration to manage its own duty.<sup>1</sup>

(5) Reduction in the subjects required at the Baccalaureate grade, i.e. final year in secondary stage, through providing a restricted five-group system as follows: 1. Arabic language, 2. Foreign languages, 3. Mathematics and science, 4. Social sciences, 5. Different subjects as: drawing, music, domestic science.

(6) Different channels of education ought to be provided for the pupils instead of a single channel in operation. Individuals and voluntary bodies should be encouraged to establish various schools.

(7) Thinking or comprehensive questions ought to be applied in the examinations in order to avoid the traditional method of memorisation.<sup>2</sup>

#### THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SECONDARY EDUCATION REPORT

Egyptian educational thought had been, to a remarkable degree, influenced by this report. Thus, according to the new thought, the objective of secondary education began to take

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1. The Mann Report had referred to similar suggestions, pp.35-37.
  2. A.N. El-Hilali, op.cit., pp.16-27; see also R.Galt, op.cit., pp.100-102.



on a modern form. The new approach to the secondary school as an institution of furnishing its pupils with the new and desirable means of integrated growth emerged. The curriculum was the main tool for the prospective reform, thus modification of the allocated subjects was of prime importance to attaining the prescribed reconstruction. The new syllabuses were intended to take into consideration the application of critical thinking methods by the pupils, and to offer them a range of subjects which would enable them to discover their talents and abilities, to develop a strong character, independent personality and unbiased opinion.

Many international conferences were held to discuss, investigate and recommend the reform of secondary education. The Conference of Rome held in August, 1934, contributed considerable proposals in connection with secondary stage. Among its proposals, the Conference stated that the prime function of secondary education should be the preparation of pupils for life. The acquirement of knowledge should be a means for attaining development and not to be an ultimate end in itself. Application of practical and vocational orientation should be the core of this type of education.<sup>1</sup>

Their viewpoint was interpreted in the Report in the following terms:

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1. U.N.E.S.C.O., Recommendations of the International Conference of Public Education, 1934-1953. Tr. by El-Sayed Mohammad El-Azzawi (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1960), pp.6-13. (In Arabic).

"The substantial goal of secondary education is providing its pupils with general culture subjects, as a preliminary approach to acquire a degree of specialisation later on. Thus, the main function concerning preparation of pupils is simultaneously acquiring general culture and specialisation courses alike. To attain relevant results, the provision for general culture course syllabi and length of stage are pre-requisite. Considering that the allocated subjects are, at that time, numerous. This is well exemplified in the final examination which comprises thirteen subjects. Thus the pupils find no spare time to reach a competent educational achievement." 1

TABLE XXXII<sup>2</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, GENERAL-CULTURE COURSE,  
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, APPLIED FROM 1935

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK			
	1 <sup>st</sup> .Year	2 <sup>nd</sup> .Year	3 <sup>rd</sup> .Year	4 <sup>th</sup> .Year
Religion	2	1	-	-
Arabic language	6	6	6	6
First Foreign language	9	9	8	8
Second Foreign language	4	4	4	4
History	2	3	-	3
Ethics and Civics	-	-	2	-
Geography	1	2	2	2
Arithmetic	4	-	-	-
Algebra	-	3	3	3
Geometry	-	3	2	3
Physics	3	2	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	4	-
Biology	-	-	-	3
Drawing	1	1	1	1
Physical training	1	1	-	-
TOTAL	33	34	34	34

1. A.N.El-Hilali, op.cit., pp.6-9. (In Arabic)
2. Egypt, Ministry of Education, Manhag Al-Drasah Al-Thanaqiyah "Curriculum of Secondary Education" (Cairo: Government Press, 1935) (In Arabic).

It is apparent from the above Table that the first four-year period was considered as a general-culture stage, the subjects prescribed were intended to attain a basic instruction in the various subjects such as languages and social sciences, in addition to mathematics and sciences. But no contribution was made to practical studies in this provision. A comparison between this time-table and the previous one (see Table XXX) will display a reduction of a lesson-period per week in the new applied time-table of 1935.

The specialised course was limited to a one-year course providing three different courses, literary, scientific, and mathematic. Table XXXVIII sets out the subjects and their prescribed lesson-periods per week.

TABLE XXXIII<sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMMES OF STUDIES, SPECIAL COURSES: LITERARY,  
SCIENTIFIC AND MATHEMATIC, IN SECONDARY EDUCATION,

1935

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
	LITERARY SECTION	SCIENTIFIC SECTION	MATHEMATIC SECTION
Arabic language	6	6	6
First Foreign language	7	6	6
Second Foreign language	7	3	3
History	5	-	-
Geography	4	-	-
Philosophy or Mathematics	3	-	-
Study Periods	2	-	-
Biology	-	9	-
Chemistry	-	6	3
Physics	-	4	4
Pure and Applied Mathematics	-	-	10
Drawing, Biology or Additional Physics	-	-	2
TOTAL	34	34	34

Instead of the previous two-year specialised course which had been applied in the secondary education prior to 1935, a one-year course was provided under the new system. Another alteration was undertaken namely the establishment of mathematic section.

1. Egypt, Ministry of Education, Manhag Al-Drasah Al-Thanawiyah.

The literary section had been in charge of preparing its pupils for admission to theoretical Faculties of the university such as: Arts, Law and Commerce, in addition to providing recruits to the literary section of the Institute of Teachers. The scientific section had as its prime task the preparing of pupils for enrolment in the scientific faculties at the university, Medicine, Agriculture, and particular sections of the Faculty of Science. In connection with the mathematic section, it was in charge of pupils intended to enter the Faculty of Engineering and some sections of the Faculty of Science. The Institute of Teachers recruited its students from both the scientific and mathematic sections.

#### IMPORTANCE OF THE NEW SYSTEM

The Report may be considered the outstanding landmark in the history of Egyptian secondary education. The Report's criticism was directed towards school curricula, equilibrium between general-culture course and specialised courses, the examination system, methods applied in teaching foreign languages, the number of pupils per class, the inspection system, centralisation, training of teachers, the equilibrium between social and moral instruction on one side, and loading the pupils' heads with various knowledge on the other.

#### NEW SHAPE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Though the total duration of secondary education

remained as it was before the implementation of the 1935 amendment, namely five-year course, the shape of the courses was considerably modified. The four-years course was provided as a general-culture course terminated by a general examination. Successful candidates were awarded the Secondary Education Certificate (General Course) or 'Thaqafa'. An orientation year was provided in order to give a different course of specialisation, literary, scientific and mathematic. Pupils were set for another general examination at the completion of this one-year course. Those who passed this examination successfully were granted the Secondary Education Certificate (Special Course) or 'Tawgihieh'. This system applied to schools for boys. For girls, there was a further supplementary year provided making a six-years course for girls. This year was intended to provide a sort of equilibrium between boys and girls instruction. As girls were required to study a number of subjects not required of boys, it was thought necessary to add one more year to their course. The girls sat for the 'Thaqafa' examination at the end of the fifth year and the 'Tawgihieh' examination was taken at the termination of the sixth year.

#### THE OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The objectives of these syllabus changes can be summed up as providing: a unified syllabus in all schools but in doing so the syllabus neglected the individual needs

and interests of the pupils and also ignored the individual differences, abilities, potentialities and talents.

Great attention was given to subject-matter as an ultimate end in itself, little or rather no contribution was made to acquire useful habits, the development of correct attitudes of critical thinking and social behaviour were ignored.

Neglect of manual sides and activity curricula, in addition to hobbies and practical studies.

Inflation of subject-matter and knowledge within the curricula which were fundamentally theoretical.

Technical orientation which might be of importance in discovering the pupils' abilities, potentialities and aptitudes was not pursued.

Lastly, the consequent result of implementation of such irrelevant syllabuses was the isolation of the school from the society, in other terms the link between school and its locality was neglected.

That was the overall picture of secondary education which was provided after the declaration of Egypt's independence in 1922, which was to a remarkable degree the same as during the occupation era. The method of planning the curricula was the cause of trouble and contributed to the failure to reach desirable educational ends. Furthermore the methods of teaching and learning remained antiquated.

The introduction of the new syllabuses in 1935 was

much more of a process of reorganisation of content rather than the introduction of radically new ideas. Nevertheless, the changes must be recognised as being a first endeavour in the reform of secondary education of considerable importance.

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION REAPPRAISALS

As discussed before, Law No.26 of 1928 was the backbone of secondary schooling provisions. This fact is clear in spite of the amendments of 1930 and 1935. This Secondary Education Act was amended for the third time by Law No.55 of 1941, and in the succeeding year, a fourth state of amendment was carried out through the passing of Law No.8 of 1942. The succeeding amendments were the outcome of the devoted exertations for improving the secondary education performance. They also represented responses to the social pressure, exerted by the parents and pupils out of their conviction of the importance of secondary school education in terms of individual prestige. In particular for the pupils it represented the means of entry to the university, hence to the privilege of a secure place in government service.

In 1945, as a result of this pressure, it was felt that an alteration should be made in the procedure for admission to the secondary school. The required age of enrolment was reduced from 17 to 15, and a 10 per cent factor of the total marks for each year a pupil's age fell



below the maximum age for entry was introduced to encourage the more precocious pupils. Substantial facilities for exemption from the payment of fees was provided in order to ensure that the best candidates would not be prevented by poverty from gaining admission to the university.<sup>1</sup>

School fees to day pupils were fixed at twenty pounds per annum; this included the cost of lunch which was served five days per week, and the provision of stationery and equipments. Boarder pupils were required to pay forty pounds annually.<sup>2</sup>

#### REPORT OF 1943

In 1943 a Report on Educational Reform in Egypt, was prepared by the Minister of Education. The 'Report' referred to the impact of war on educational requirements, and also referred to the pre-war problems of education. The aim of education in the 'Report's' terms:

"There is a consensus of opinion among educationists that the aim which nations and governments should seek to attain by education is to afford a happy childhood for the children, to pave the way for initiation into adult life and to realize for all citizens the fullest share of all earthly good and bliss that lie within human reach. They should utilise all means for the development of the different human faculties and their direction in the right path. The youth of the country should enjoy all possible opportunities for training and advancement."<sup>3</sup>

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., pp.37-39.
  2. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.57.
  3. Naguib El-Hilali, Report on Educational Reform in Egypt (Cairo: Government Press, 1943), p.7.

Referring to weaknesses in the educational system the 'report' expressed the opinion that "the complaint of the inadequacy of education in Egypt, excluding compulsory education is exaggerated."<sup>1</sup>

In connection with the new orientation in educational policy, the main points involved are as follows: (1) Equality of opportunity, and (2) Its implementation in primary, secondary, and technical schools. In addition the 'Report' dealt with problems of health and nutrition, adult education, schools for mentally and physically defective, medical service in schools, non-government education, the examination system, school buildings, the training of teachers and educational missions.

#### REPORT ON REORGANISATION OF GENERAL EDUCATION

In December 1945, the Ministry of Education had submitted to the Supreme Education Council a report containing recommendations for the reorganisation of general education (primary and secondary). It proposed the provision of an overall educational system, for both boys and girls alike between six and seventeen years of age. A gradual application on a gradient method for attaining the targets of various aspects of development, needs and requirements was postulated in collaboration with the various stages of

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1. N. El-Hilali, op.cit., p.14.

the general educational ladder. The essential objective of the Report was the provision of full educational opportunities for boys and girls in order that they might attain their complete growth to the highest stage of education irrespective of individual economic status according to their talents, potentialities and abilities.

The major points made by the Report are:

1. Providing a general national system of education for all citizens, in the first stage of their growth. Moreover, planning for a procedure to generalise it in a short span of time.
2. Delimiting the connection between the first stage of the educational ladder and the following stages, and defining the objectives of the primary stage of the system.
3. Urged the need for reforming secondary education so that it would be better able to satisfy pupils' needs, and defining the role of this type of education and its relationship with technical and higher education.<sup>1</sup>

#### DIVERSIFICATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The Report made it clear that the then form of secondary education was not relevant to the changed circumstances of society, and that it failed to provide for the differences of capacity, ability, interests and

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1. Ismail Mahmoud El-Qabbani, Dirasat fi Tanzim Al-Ta'lim bi Misr "Studies in Organisation of Education in Egypt" (Cairo: Al-Nahdah Al-Misriyah, 1958), p.277. (In Arabic)

potentialities of the young people. Furthermore, the degree to which it was directed to meeting the qualifications of particular careers tended to inhibit the preparation of the pupils as citizens of the future. Diversification of the provisions for secondary education were seen to be essential to meet the latter needs. Studies in other countries have made it clear that the objectives of academic education are not always relevant for all pupils.<sup>1</sup> Other types of schools may meet the needs of those who find no interest in following up the academic secondary school. This idea of diversification of the secondary school system is dependent on the following considerations:

1. Selection of a satisfactory starting point for the diversification process.
2. Diversification does not imply any sort of narrow sense of specialisation, which latter ignores the true conception of secondary education.
3. Pupils' own choice should be taken into consideration for the enrolment. Admission to any kind of secondary education should be voluntary, at the same time guidance is very necessary.
4. Equal educational opportunities should be furnished to the brilliant pupils in order to pursue their university

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1. Edward Blishen (Editor), Education Today (London: British Broadcasting Corporation, 1963), p.48.

education, irrespective of the type of secondary schools they have attended, academic or technical alike.

#### PROPOSALS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

The proposed provision for commencement of different types of secondary level should be at the age of fourteen, which coincides with the termination of the second year in this type of education. At this age, the pupils' tendencies, abilities, potentialities and aptitudes are satisfactorily obvious to orient them towards the adequate pattern of school.

At this age, it is also appropriate to transfer a group of pupils to the intermediate technical schools, parallel with the academic secondary school. In the technical schools both general-culture and technical subjects are to be provided together.

Technical educationists upheld this trend, they sustained that the proposed diversification between various types of secondary school is the best way to attain satisfactory results from technical schools. The possibility of transferring to the secondary schools and vice-versa around fourteen years of age represented a major reform in the practice of enrolment to technical schools which usually recruited from the primary school leavers. This latter procedure was unsatisfactory because it was difficult to judge the actual tendencies of the pupil at twelve years of age.

The second proposal concerned the internal arrangements within the duration of schooling. It was recommended that two divisions within secondary course should be organised. The first stage would provide a two-years course, starting around 12 and 14 years of age. A unified syllabus would be provided for all pupils attending the various types of secondary level academic and technical alike. The programme of studies should provide subject-matter which not only ought to satisfy different types of pupils but also to discover their tendencies, abilities, potentialities and aptitudes, and make it possible to develop these traits satisfactorily.

The proposed subject-matter which was to be provided in that stage is as follows:

- (1) Linguistic and literary studies such as Arabic language as well as one foreign language.
- (2) Mathematics studies such as arithmetic, algebra and geometry.
- (3) Scientific studies such as science.
- (4) Humanistic studies such as national history, geography of Egypt and civics.
- (5) Practical studies such as drawing and handiwork, in addition to the pupil's favourite hobbies, music, horticulture and the like. In girls' schools, domestic science should be replaced by handiwork in pupils' schools.<sup>1</sup>

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1. I.M. El-Qabbani, op.cit., p.286.

A general examination was to be provided at the termination of the first two years course of secondary schooling. The successful candidates would be able to follow the second stage of secondary education of three years duration.<sup>1</sup>

#### SECOND PART OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In this stage it was recommended that there should be division of it into an academic course containing literary and scientific sections, leading to the university, and a modern or practical course without any vocational bias or any technical school. Scientific and literary courses would be open to pupils who showed talents and potentialities that might lead them to pursue university careers successfully.

The modern or practical course was intended to be in charge for pupils who do not show abilities and talents for continuing the university education, and who do not show interest and capacity for technical education. It was advised that this proposed practical course should be flexible enough to satisfy the needs of that category of pupils which showed neither academic nor technical aptitude. Thus the fundamental objective of this practical course should be devoted to a synthesis of subject-matters which would enable the pupils to deal satisfactorily with their future careers, basically in the practical aspects of life.

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.32.

Such pupils as could satisfy the admission requirements on completion of their secondary education could go on to further education in higher technical institutes. Admission to the university would be open to pupils obtaining satisfactory standards in the subjects connected with the 'faculty' they wished to attend.<sup>1</sup>

#### PROPOSED SYLLABUSES FOR ACADEMIC SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the first year of part two of secondary education, i.e. third year, the subjects taught in the first part of this education, i.e. first and second years of the secondary schooling were to be continued in addition to another foreign language and the study of civics. This proposal had two ends (1) developing the pupils' general-culture, and (2) discovering the pupils' abilities, aptitudes and tendencies. For the remaining two years the proposed syllabus allocated to scientific course should contain the following.

- (1) Languages Group (including Arabic language, a First foreign language and a Second foreign language);
- (2) Mathematics Group;
- (3) Scientific Group (such as chemistry, physics and biology (which should be taught as separate subjects)).

The allocation of lesson periods to the required subjects had to be such as to make it possible for pupils to select certain supplementary studies at a specialist level

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.33.



related to their intended university studies.

For the literary course the following groups of studies were proposed:

- (1) Language Group (including Arabic language and two foreign languages as well).
- (2) Social Subjects Group (comprising history and geography).
- (3) Philosophy Group (containing philosophy and sociology).

As with the science course, supplementary specialisation was to be provided.

#### PROPOSED SYLLABUSES FOR MODERN COURSE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

It was proposed that the secondary modern course should be of three years duration covering:

- (1) Language Group (composing of Arabic language in addition to a Principal foreign language and a Supplementary foreign language).
- (2) Practical Group (including applied subjects, practical mechanics, commercial subjects, horticulture, music and drawing). The pupil would choose the subjects which were related to his own tendencies, aptitudes and abilities.
- (3) Two more groups of subjects to be selected by the pupil from the following groups: (i) Social Subjects Group (including civics); (ii) Mathematics Group; and (iii) Scientific Group.

In all the proposed courses, a final examination would be held at the termination of the three-year duration of studies. The Modern Course pupils were to be exempt from supplementary subject tests required in the academic courses.

The length of the course in both sections in this proposed secondary school for boys and girls should be the same. Thus the total duration of studies in secondary schools would be five years. The Ministry of Education deemed it irrelevant to prolong the schooling time of secondary level. This assumption was based upon the sufficiency of the preparatory year provided by the universities various 'faculties'.

The proposal that girls should have the same length of secondary schooling as boys, is considered a progressive effort in the domain of girls' education. In the second part of modern course, for instance, girls were to be taught competent subjects coincident with their nature. To meet the feminist requirements of education, the proposed modern course had to comprise a considerable amount of technical subjects under a Technical Subjects Group category. This 'group' would be a combination of domestic science, embroidery and dress making; child welfare and the like. It was also suggested that girls could choose one group of the following: Social Subjects Group, Mathematic Group, or Scientific Group. Whilst the modern course for girls was not assumed to lead to university entrance it was regarded as a

suitable qualification for entrance to the Art High Institute for Women Teachers.

#### IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROJECT

The Supreme Education Council passed the proposals to a special committee of its members under the presidency of a former Prime Minister and Minister of Education. This committee was called the General Education Committee. In February 1946, it submitted a Report endorsing the idea of a compulsory school from 6 to 12 to be provided to all children. The elimination of foreign languages from the programme of this school was also recommended. It suggested a final examination for both primary and compulsory schools alike, which would enable successful candidates to gain admission to secondary education. Thus after approximately a century of a dual educational ladder, the nation started the work for attaining one single ladder rising from a free common school.

Concerning secondary education, the Committee with amendments approved the proposals of the Memorandum on Reorganisation of General Education, 1945. The Report of the Committee had pointed out some substantial issues in respect of secondary education.

They recommended that a five-year course was to be the length of secondary schooling, for both boys and girls alike. They called for simplification of various syllabuses

and the abandonment of certain details of content to avoid overloading of pupils. They recommended the provision of free reading among pupils by means of allocating a particular number of lesson-periods per week to attain this aim. Supervision of various subject-teachers ought to be sought. Examinations papers should be designed to establish the pupil's comprehension and understanding of the subjects studied, within the framework of the moderate pupil's abilities.

Concerning the school fees, provision was to be made to exempt those pupils who showed talent and distinction among their colleagues. Subject to these and other amendments the Report of December, 1945 was unanimously agreed by the Committee of 1946.

An important proposal was the setting up in each governorate or province of a General Education Committee. The chairman would be the Director of Education in the zone, its members would comprise high education officials of the locality, members from provincial or municipal councils, as well as members representing various Ministries, Health, Social Affairs, Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, and to include a big landlord, a big businessman and some of the prominent intellectuals of the locality. The functions of this committee were to include the study of expansion of education in the zone, allocate the educational budgetaries,

buildings, premises and equipment as well as pupils' nutrition programmes. In other terms the function of the zone committees was to run the educational activities in the zone within the framework of the national general educational policy.

In April 1947, the Supreme Education Council held its fifth session in order to study and examine the proposals of the General Education Committee of 1946. The Council approved the new proposals which were the outcome of the labours of a group of Egyptian educationists. The reform of the primary school system was also approved and preliminary committees were set up in order to prepare the drafts of the educational Acts for primary and secondary education. In January 1949, two laws for primary and secondary education were separately promulgated.<sup>1</sup>

#### PROGRAMMES OF STUDIES IN APPLICATION ON THE EVE OF THE 1949 SECONDARY EDUCATION LAW

Reference must be made briefly to the courses of studies in secondary schools prior to the promulgation of the 1949 Secondary Education Law. This procedure is advisable to throw light on the educational situation.

The secondary school level was divided into two stages, the general-culture stage which covered a four-year course, and the specialisation course of one-year length,

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1. I.M. El-Qabbani, op.cit., pp.277-297.

Literary, Scientific and Mathematic, making a five-year period of secondary education.

Table XXXIV shows the allocation of subjects for the General-Culture Course and the weekly lesson-periods devoted to each. It will be clear that the same subjects had been allocated within this course timetable since 1935 with a little alteration. It is also to be noted that the girls were required to pursue a five-year course whilst the boys' schools provided a four-year general-culture course.

TABLE XXXIV<sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, GENERAL-CULTURE COURSE,  
SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1945-46

B = Boys      G = Girls

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK									
	1 <sup>st</sup> Year		2 <sup>nd</sup> Year		3 <sup>rd</sup> Year		4 <sup>th</sup> Year		5 <sup>th</sup> Year	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	G	
Religion	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Arabic	8	8	8	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
First Foreign language	8	7	8	7	7	7	7	6	7	7
Translation	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	1	1
Second Foreign language	-	-	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
History and civics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4 <sup>2</sup>	5 <sup>2</sup>	
General Science	4	4	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physics	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2 <sup>2</sup>	2 <sup>2</sup>	
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	3	2	-	2	-	-
Biology	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1 <sup>3</sup>	3 <sup>3</sup>	
Drawing	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1
Handwork	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physical training <sup>2</sup>	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1
Needlework and domestic science	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-
Music	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	1
TOTAL	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36

1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.58; see also S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.340.

2. Girls not intended to enter in the university may substitute drawing (including interior decoration and history of art), child care and psychology, or needlework and domestic science for physics and mathematics.

3. Includes child care.

In Table XXXV is set out the subject-matter for the specialised one-year course. The orientation year included three dependent sections: literary, science and mathematic. Both girls and boys were provided with a one-year course at this stage.

TABLE XXXV<sup>1</sup>  
PROGRAMMES OF STUDIES, ORIENTATION YEAR,  
SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1945-46

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
	LITERARY SECTION	SCIENTIFIC SECTION	MATHEMATIC SECTION
Arabic language	6	6	6
First European language	7 <sup>2</sup>	6 <sup>2</sup>	6 <sup>2</sup>
Second European language	7 <sup>2</sup>	3	3
History	5	-	-
Geography	4	-	-
Philosophy or mathematics	3	-	-
Library	2	-	-
Biology	-	9	-
Chemistry	-	6	3
Physics	-	4	4
Pure and applied mathematics	-	-	10
Drawing or additional physics or biology	-	-	2
TOTAL	34	34	34

1. R.D.Matthews and M.Akrawi, op.cit., p.61; and Al-Husary, ibid., p.431.
2. One period a week is devoted to translation into Arabic.



It is obvious from the above Table that the literary section subjects are focussed upon literary knowledge, languages come in the first-rate importance, translation into Arabic was also provided to improve the pupils' abilities to undertake their further literary specialisation at the university. Library periods were designed to familiarise the pupils with library materials, resources, the arrangement and classification of collections and to give them training in the techniques of elementary research.

The scientific and mathematics section subjects were intended for pupils wishing to attend a practical faculty in the university. Various subjects were offered to provide the pupils with the basic knowledge in this field. Great emphasis was laid upon the laboratory work.

#### LAW NO.10 OF 1949

Law No.10 of 1949 was enacted to provide for secondary education. This Law was composed of 53 articles. It stipulated that secondary education would be divided into two stages: first division would be to embrace two years' duration, and second division which comprised three years. At the end of each division an examination would be held. Successful candidates were to be granted the Intermediate Education Certificate (Article 10), and the Secondary Education Certificate (Article 33), respectively.

Enrolment requirements for the first division were

(1) Holding Primary Education Certificate, and passing an examination in a foreign language; (2) maximum permitted age of 15 years at the initial year of admission. Priority in enrolment would be according to the total marks attained by the candidate (Article 2). Meanwhile the second division enrolment provisions were as follows: (1) Possession of the Intermediate Education Certificate (2) Eighteen years was the maximum age for acceptance. Priority to admission would be conferred to the highest marks holders (Article 19).

Free education was provided for pupils of the Intermediate Course as a general rule for those attaining a 60 per cent mark in the Primary Education Certificate. Poor pupils might be granted free education at that stage. Some pupils would be accepted on payment of school fees when vacancies are available (Article 55).<sup>1</sup>

As has already been pointed out the programme of studies designed for the last two years of secondary education, was organised in three sections: (i) literary section; (ii) scientific section; and (iii) general section. The last section was an entirely new feature of the secondary school system. The former two, literary and scientific sections were familiar to the pupils. They had been in operation since the introduction of the traditional reforms described previously. The mathematic section, which had existed prior to the new plan was merged into the scientific

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, pp.423-425.

section. The most progressive feature of the new project was the equalising of the secondary school period for girls with that of the boys. This feature of the system was intended to attain two targets, the saving of expenditure on girls' education and the providing for girls an equal educational opportunity with boys.

LAW NO. 142 OF 1951 (SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT)

While the Ministry of Education was engaged in implementation of the provisions of Law No.10 of 1949, the Cabinet resigned. Another Cabinet came to office and the new Minister of Education began to design a new educational law. Within its provisions the Minister intended to embark upon a completely new policy. On 6 August, 1950 an order was issued to suspend the 1949 Act, and substitute for it Law No.108 of 1950. Thus Secondary School Act was to provide reversion to the programme of studies prior to the Law of 1949.

In the following year, the Minister of Education issued the Secondary Education Act in Law No.142 of 1951, which had been promulgated on 23 September, 1951. The new Law was composed of 38 articles. According to its provisions secondary education was to be divided into two main types: academic and technical. The duration of studies was to comprise a preparatory stage and another one entitled the general-culture stage. The final year of the latter stage would be allocated to a specialised course. The final

orientation one-year course would be divided into two sections: literary and scientific. Technical secondary education was to be divided into the four categories: agricultural, commercial, industrial and feminist.

The Law stated that all post-primary education should be considered or called secondary education, which by its turn would lead to the university education as well as to all other kinds of vocations. Secondary education would be provided to all pupils free, supplementary fees would be allocated by ministerial orders issued later on (Article 1).

Secondary education would embrace both academic or general schools as well as technical schools alike (Article 2).

The length of secondary education would be a five-year course. The first two years allocated to the preparatory stage. The addition of one or two years would be provided in the case of those pupils who held the Technical Secondary Education Certificate, and who intended to pursue higher education, in accordance with the provisions of the Law (Article 3).<sup>1</sup> This provision was to be confined to those who obtained 60 per cent of the total marks in the mentioned certificate. (Article 35).<sup>2</sup>

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1. Sati Al-Husary, *Hawliyat Al-Thaqafah Al-Arabiyyah "Year Book of Arab Culture"* (Cairo: Dar Al-Riad, 1952), p.368. (In Arabic).
  2. S. Al-Husary, *op.cit.*, Second Year, p.373.

The feasibility of transformation of any pupil from or to any type of secondary education, on condition that approval of the staffs of the old and new schools should be obtained in advance (Article 17).<sup>1</sup>

The provisions for admission to the preparatory stage of secondary schools were defined as follows: (i) Holding the Primary Education Certificate or its equivalent; (ii) Maximum age of admission was fixed at sixteen years of age for academic schools and seventeen for technical schools; (iii) Success in foreign language in the Primary Education Certificate Examination was a fundamental provision for admission to academic secondary schools. (Article 10).

For admission to the third year of the academic secondary school the following requirements had to be met; (1) Holding the Academic Preparatory Education Certificate; priority of acceptance for those with the highest total marks; (2) Maximum age for admission was eighteen years at enrolment (Article 18).

In connection with the enrolment rules for the fifth year of the academic secondary school, the following provisions were made: (i) Success in the General Education Examination was the prime requirement. (ii) Pupil's free choice in attending either literary or scientific section, relative to his abilities, and aptitudes. The Minister was empowered to

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.372.

introduce new sections if he so desired. (Article 24).

In the realm of technical secondary education, and the third year enrolment provisions, the law stated that candidates must have the Preparatory Education Certificate. Nineteen years of age was pointed out as the maximum age for entrance to the third year course. Nevertheless the law stated that the Minister of Education could extend this age requirement (Article 29).<sup>1</sup>

#### COMMENTARY ON SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT

The promulgation of 1951 Secondary Education Act was the most progressive and substantial measure undertaken by the Ministry of Education during the twentieth century. It aimed at a radical change in the character of post-primary schooling. The broad lines contributed by this law could be summed up as follows:

(1) Providing a free and public secondary school for all. This was a tremendous effort to provide equal educational opportunities to all youth of the nation.

(2) Accepting all post-primary institutions as part of a secondary education regardless of whether it was academic or technical in nature, was a major step towards integrating educational procedures and practice.

(3) The provision of transfer facilities from one school to another within the framework of secondary level was a further contribution to appreciation of the need for pupil's

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.386.

aptitudes, abilities and tendencies.

(4) Making it possible for brilliant technical pupils to attend university or other institution of higher education was an outstanding contribution to the encouragement of industrious technically minded pupils to pursue higher education.

(5) Dealing with girls' education on the same principles as boys was a social change of the greatest import.

#### CONFLICT OF EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT

To terminate this theme, the promulgation of the last two educational Acts, i.e. of 1949 and 1951 demonstrated two different perspectives in the realm of secondary education. The former (1949) tackled the goal of a gradual expansion of a system of education erected on fundamental and appropriate pedagogical lines, with the confines of the financial resources of individuals and the community. The fosterers of this school of thought considered the expediency of solving the future problems inherent in the expansion measures of teaching staffs, premises, equipment, prior to any pursuit of the expansion programme.

Meanwhile, the second school of educational thought as exemplified by the provisions of 1951 Act, was fully convinced that providing the people with the education they demanded irrespective of the difficulties that may emerge was fundamental to the well-being of the society. The advocates

of this trend focussed their attention on providing secondary schools for all. They assumed that the problems which will appear through the implementation of this achievement will be solved under the pressure of the public opinion.<sup>1</sup>

Thus the foregoing two schools of educational thought represent two different policies, the first sought to attain the quality at each stage, whilst the latter deemed that achieving of quantity goals in the initial stages was of the first importance and that the improvement of quality could be attained later on. El-Koussy comments on the situation in the following words: "It is obvious that these two policies are diametrically opposed, and for one to succeed the other without a transition period must result in some waste."<sup>2</sup>

#### ENROLMENT FIGURES IN ACADEMIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

To end this section it may be of some interest to examine the numbers of pupils, boys and girls, attending government academic secondary schools in the period from 1922 to 1940. This procedure should throw light on the growth of this type of education. Table XXXVI illustrates this issue.

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., pp.40-41.
  2. The Yearbook of Education, 1952, an article by Abdel-Aziz El-Koussy entitled 'Education in Egypt before 1952' (London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1952), pp.445-457. The above quotation see p.453.



TABLE XXXVII<sup>1</sup>  
DEVELOPMENT IN GOVERNMENT ACADEMIC SECONDARY  
SCHOOLS FROM 1922-23 TO 1939-40

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	BOYS' SCHOOLS			GIRLS' SCHOOLS		
	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Pupils	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Pupils
1922-23	10	292	4,363	1	12	72
1923-24	11	372	5,567	1	12	79
1924-25	15	496	7,446	1	12	69
1925-26	16	536	8,059	1	8	41
1926-27	18	654	9,811	1	9	69
1927-28	21	798	11,790	1	12	123
1928-29	21	906	13,594	1	15	190
1929-30	21	962	14,438	1	15	208
1930-31	24	992	14,888	5	62	928
1931-32	23	998	15,208	5	108	1,297
1932-33	24	1,016	14,043	5	124	1,298
1933-34	24	1,032	13,673	5	134	1,420
1934-35	25	1,028	13,402	5	160	1,375
1935-36	27	1,064	14,671	5	150	1,314
1936-37	31	1,182	15,962	5	150	1,373
1937-38	33	1,264	17,150	5	152	1,426
1938-39	34	1,390	19,027	5	166	1,594
1939-40	36	1,428	19,749	5	162	1,599

It is obvious from the above Table that the enrolment figures for boys during the given period was increased approximately six-fold. Girls' enrolment figures had shown a tremendous growth, during the same period, its increase rose

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.376.

from 72 girls in 1922-23 to 1,599 in 1939-40, nearly 57-fold improvement. The climax of girls increase took place from 1931-32 onwards. Furthermore, the whole growth seems to be steady and gradual in both sexes. This trend of increase may be attributed to the people's demands for this type of education. Girls were also attracted to academic secondary level to attain a considerable degree of education, and probably to attend university education later on.

The promulgation of new reform laws or amendments for secondary education influenced the development of this type of education. This opinion is clearly exemplified in the enrolment figures, particularly those of 1935-36 and the succeeding years. The preeminent secondary education report of 1935 had played a remarkable role in promoting secondary education and consequently more pupils attended secondary schools. Other factors that were in action behind the expansion figures in these schools have been discussed above.

From 1940-41 up till 1951-52, owing to the great pressure upon secondary schools two educational acts were issued in 1949 and 1951, these laws were of prime importance in interpreting the development of the secondary school enrolment figures.

The essential statistical data is provided in Table XXXVIII.

TABLE XXXVIII<sup>1</sup>  
GROWTH OF ACADEMIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS (GOVERNMENTAL)  
FROM 1940 to 1951

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	BOYS' SCHOOLS			GIRLS' SCHOOLS		
	No. of Schls.	No. of Teach- ers	No. of Pupils	No. of Schls.	No. of Teach- ers	No. of Pupils
1940-41	36	1,438	20,446	5	182	2,443
1941-42	37	1,454	21,347	6	194	1,829
1942-43	39	1,544	23,843	6	222	2,172
1943-44	42	1,668	28,950	9	244	2,787
1944-45	43	1,838	33,322	9	272	3,332
1945-46	50	2,122	35,435	9	314	3,388
1946-47	58	2,376	40,736	10	310	4,074
1947-48	65	2,490	44,943	10	396	5,336
1948-49			53,717 <sup>2</sup>			6,330 <sup>2</sup>
1949-50			62,131 <sup>2</sup>			8,193 <sup>2</sup>
1950-51		4,593 <sup>3</sup>	80,957 <sup>2</sup>		859 <sup>3</sup>	12,810 <sup>2</sup>
1951-52			102,155 <sup>4</sup>			23,936 <sup>4</sup>

It is clear from the above Table that the secondary school development carried on steadily. Comparison of

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.376.
2. A. El-Koussy, Education in Egypt before 1952, The Yearbook of Education, 1952, p.454. Husary reports that in the scholastic year 1949-1950 the enrolment figures were: 62,131 for boys, and 12,781 for girls; with total of 74,912. Corresponding figures in 1950-1951 scholastic year were 80,957 for boys; 18,957 for girls; with total of 99,029. For full details see S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.417
3. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.412.
4. Saif Al-Husary, Hawliyat Al-Thaqafah Al-Arabiyyah "Year Book of Arab Culture" (Third Year), Cairo: Laganat Al-Talif wa Al-Targamah wa Al-Nashr, 1953), p.366. (In Arabic).

scholastic years 1940-1941 with 1951-1952 figures show an increase of approximately five-fold through nearly one-decade period. The increase in the enrolment of girls during the same period was nine-fold. The increase in the 1951-1952 figures reflects the provision of free secondary education for all.

To give an epitomised picture of the overall growth of enrolment in the secondary school level, the period from 1945 to 1951, is of prime importance. Table XXXIX provides the basic facts.

TABLE XXXIX<sup>1</sup>

DEVELOPMENT IN GOVERNMENT ACADEMIC SCHOOLS, 1945-1951

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	INCREASE PER YEAR
1945-1946	35,435	3,388	38,823	2,169
1946-1947	40,736	4,074	44,810	5,987
1947-1948	44,943	5,336	50,279	5,469
1948-1949	53,717	9,688	63,405	13,126
1949-1950	62,131	12,083	74,214	10,809
1950-1951	80,957	18,072	99,029	24,815
1951-1952	102,155	23,936	126,091	27,062 <sup>2</sup>

This period 1945 to 1951 witnessed the emergence of the two schools of educational thought mentioned above.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.417.
  2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Third Year, p.266.

According to the provisions of Law No. 142 of 1951, the objective was the provision of secondary education for all and free. The effect of this policy was immediate and is demonstrated by the increase in the enrolment figures of the scholastic year 1951-1952. The increase of 21,198 boys enrolled in 1951-52 was approximately 25 per cent, and the increase of 5,864 girls represented an increased enrolment of the order of 30 per cent over the enrolment of the previous year. The gross percentage increase was of the order of nearly 27 per cent.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERMEDIATE TECHNICAL EDUCATION

FROM 1922 UP TO 1952

Under the Intermediate Technical Education, there were approximately four categories of schools as follows:

- (1) Intermediate Commercial Schools. (2) Intermediate Agricultural Schools. (3) Intermediate Industrial Schools. (4) Feminist Culture Schools.<sup>1</sup> This type of education provided the nation with its needs for individuals who were half-way between the ordinary worker and the highly qualified planner.<sup>2</sup>

I. INTERMEDIATE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

In 1927-1928, two intermediate commercial schools were set up by the government to meet the increasing demand for this pattern of education.<sup>3</sup> The last Educational Act concerned with intermediate commercial schools was Law No.102 of 1945. According to the provisions of the Law, the objective of this type of education was preparation of its pupils, theoretically and practically, for pursuing the clerical and computation careers in commercial, financial, agricultural and government administrative cycles. (Article 1).

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.439.  
 2. A. El-Koussy, op.cit., The Yearbook of Education, 1952, p.454.  
 3. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.43. See also, Technical and Vocational Education for the Arab States, 1957; Report on Commercial Education, Member Countries Reports/1: Egypt. (In Arabic).

The provision for admission to this type was obtaining the Primary Education Certificate; sixteen years of age was the maximum and thirteen was the minimum age for entrance, in addition a medical test was to be passed. The priority for admission was to those who had obtained high marks in Arabic and Foreign languages, and arithmetic as well. (Article 2).

The course of studies was four years in length, successful candidates at the final examination at the termination of the schooling period were to be conferred the Diploma. (Article 4). Table XL will illustrate the programme of studies in this type of school.

TABLE XL<sup>1</sup>PROGRAMME OF STUDIES IN THE INTERMEDIATE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK			
	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
Arabic language	5	5	5	5
English language	7	5	5	5
French language	7	5	5	5
Arabic calligraphy	2	1	-	-
European calligraphy	2	1	-	-
History of modern Egypt	2	-	-	-
Natural Geography	3	2	-	-
Economic Geography	-	-	2	2
General Knowledge in Economics & Commerce	-	-	1	2
General Arithmetic	2	-	-	-
Algebra	2	-	-	-
Geometry	2	-	-	-
Commercial Arithmetic	-	2	3	3
Book-keeping	-	3	3	4
Business methods (in Arabic)	-	2	2	2
Business methods (in English)	-	2	2	2
Business Methods (in French)	-	2	2	2
Arabic typewriting	-	2	2	1
English typewriting	-	2	2	1
TOTAL	34	34	34	34

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.441.



The whole structure of the subject-matter was directed to qualifying for clerical and business careers. Great attention was given to modern foreign languages in order to attain well-qualified individuals in the financial and commercial sectors. There is no fundamental criticism to be directed towards this programme.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH SECTIONS:

A Ministerial Decree was issued in 1935 in order to "establish two sections in which the medium of teaching is to be the English or French in succession" which were to be accommodated at two intermediate commercial schools in Cairo. The preamble (recital) of this decree was as follows: "It is prerequisite to graduate pupils to obtain competence in acquiring foreign languages, to enable them to apply these languages in commercial business in foreign firms. It is indispensable to attain this end in view of the shortage of employment in governmental administration and national circles ...."

A five-year course was prescribed for these sections. The first two years were to coincide with the same period of the academic secondary school syllabus. The remaining three years were to be devoted to learning the pure commercial subject-matters.<sup>1</sup> School fees of £.E.10 per annum were to be charged per each pupil.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.442.

In 1945, these fees were raised to £.E.12 per annum per each pupil. Approximately 50 per cent of the total enrolment figure was exempted from the fees. The exemptions were granted according to the marks attained by the pupil at the Primary Education Certificate and the age of the candidates.<sup>1</sup>

## II. INTERMEDIATE AGRICULTURE SCHOOLS

The development of the Intermediate Agriculture Schools was steadily maintained during the period from 1943 up to 1952. Within this period one new school was established each year.<sup>2</sup> The objective of this type of education was preparing its pupils, in theoretical and practical realms, to pursue their future careers in agricultural enterprises or any similar activities which required agricultural training. Provision for admission to this type of school were similar to the foregoing type. Seventeen years of age was regarded as the maximum enrolment age.<sup>3</sup>

In their initial stages the intermediate agricultural schools, as a general rule, were attended by the Primary Education Certificate holders. In some cases, pupils were admitted after enrolment to the general secondary schooling for some time, after which they attended a three-year course at an intermediate agricultural school. This system of enrolment was implemented between 1911 and 1939. In order to

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.67.  
2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.44.  
3. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.444.

raise the general-culture achievement standards among its pupils, a provision was made, in 1939, for requiring two years attendance in a general secondary school, a procedure which failed to attract pupils from secondary schools to agricultural schools.<sup>1</sup>

In 1943, the duration of studies was extended to cover a five-year course. Simultaneously, both general-culture and agricultural subjects were provided. Substantial provision was made for attendance by persons holding the Primary Education Certificate.

Many modifications were undergone concerning this type of education in the length of schooling period, and the design of the courses. In 1944, namely after the expiration of only one year of the preceding amendment, another year was added to provide a six-year course. Furthermore, two stages were designed within the total schooling period: (1) a general-culture stage of four years, which was identical with the general-culture stage of the academic secondary school with some agricultural subjects added. An examination was to be held at the end of this stage to confer on successful candidates the Secondary Education Certificate (General Course), in addition candidates had to satisfy a test in the agricultural subjects. (2) An Agriculture course of two years' period, followed, consisting of agricultural subjects and languages.

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M.El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.44.

On completion of this stage another examination was held. The Agricultural Certificate was granted to successful pupils. This certificate was the qualification for admission to a Faculty of Agriculture at a university or the Higher Institute of Agriculture.

In 1945, once again this system of education was amended. The six-year period of studies was divided into three courses: (i) a Preparatory Cultural stage composed of two years identical with the same years in secondary schools. Horticulture and agriculture were substituted for the handwork of the secondary school. At the end of this stage a Preparatory Agricultural Certificate was obtained by successful candidates; (ii) This was followed by an Agricultural stage consisting of three years in which agriculture and cultural subjects were taught. At the termination of this stage an examination was to be held. Successful candidates obtained the Agriculture-Culture Certificate; (iii) Successful candidates might take a supplementary, and optional purely cultural one-year course in order to enrol in a Faculty of Agriculture.<sup>1</sup>

Nevertheless, in the Report submitted by the Commission of the American Council on Education which visited Egypt between 15 November, 1945 to 15 February, 1946, it was

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.45. See also Vocational and Technical Education Conference for the Arab States, 1957. Egypt, Report on Agricultural Education in the Republic of Egypt. (In Arabic).

pointed out that this school was providing a five-year course to train practical agriculturalists competent in crop-raising, agricultural industries, and dairying. Schools fees were exactly the same and exemption regulations were the same as for intermediate commercial schools.<sup>1</sup> The studies taken in the first two years are set out in Table XLI.

TABLE XLI <sup>2</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES ALLOCATED FOR THE FIRST TWO YEARS  
OF THE INTERMEDIATE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK	
	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
Religion	2	1
Arabic language	8	8
English language	8	8
French language	-	4
History	2	2
Geography	2	2
Mathematics	4	4
Natural Sciences	4	3
Drawing	4	2
Physical Training	2	2
Agriculture Subjects	Practical Horticulture Practical Agriculture	4 -
	-	3
TOTAL	38	38

1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., pp.67-68.  
2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.445.

The subjects for the Agricultural Stage of the Intermediate Agricultural Schools are set out in Table XLII.

TABLE XLII <sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, AGRICULTURAL STAGE, INTERMEDIATE  
AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK			
	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR AGRICULTURE SECTION	THIRD YEAR HORTICULTURE SECTION
Theoretical agriculture	4	4	4	-
Practical agriculture	11	8	10	-
Theoretical horticulture	3	2	-	5
Practical horticulture	6	6	-	12
Chemistry	3	3	3	3
Book-keeping	2	1	-	-
Economics of agriculture	-	2	2	2
Veterinary medicine	-	2	2	-
Botany	3	3	-	-
Survey	3	-	-	-
Agricultural engineering	-	2	-	-
Zoology	2	-	-	-
Insects	-	2	2	4
Agriculture trades	-	-	-	10
Dairy	-	-	10	-
Poultry- and cattle-breeding	-	2	3	-
Bacteriology	-	-	2	2
Hygienic culture	1	1	-	-
TOTAL	38	38	38	38

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.446.

It is clear from the Table that the total three-year course was devoted to acquiring knowledge about various agricultural subjects.

### III. INTERMEDIATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

The function of this type of school was preparing its pupils to be qualified workers, tutors or supervisors at the factories and work-shops. A five-year course was provided. Admission qualifications were possession of the Primary Education Certificate, being between the ages of 13 and 17 years, and satisfying a medical examination.<sup>1</sup>

The subjects taught may be classified into the two major categories, theoretical subjects division and practical division. The theoretical subjects were, Arabic language and ethics, a foreign language, arithmetic, geometry, drawing, technical drawing, engineering drawing, technology, decoration, applied mathematics and workshops business. For practical work, the pupils were required to select one subject from the following: fitting, turning, forging, sheet and metal work, furniture-making, motor-cars repair, electricity, radio, marine mechanics, ship-building, ship furniture making, carpentry of buildings, sculpture on wood, plumbing, processing of granite, dyeing and decoration, watchmaking, instrument making, decorative iron, pottery and mosaic, leather making, printing and binding, musical instrument making and tailoring.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, pp.450-451.

Some schools provided instruction in one trade of the above mentioned subjects, such as the following: (1) School of Construction Trades, (2) School of Marine Trades, (3) School of Decoration Trades; (4) School of Weaving and Spinning. But many of the intermediate industrial schools provided several trades altogether.

Admission to this type of education was free. On completion of the five years' length of this type an examination was held, successful candidates secure the Diploma. These schools "Produce skillful technicians, many of whom become foremen or managers or owners of shops."<sup>1</sup>

Practical training in workshops received 70 per cent of the total time in the schedules of these schools. In order to stimulate the industrious pupil who intended to pursue university education, in 1949, evening classes were provided to prepare those pupils for an equivalence examination to that of the Secondary Education Certificate (Special Course).<sup>2</sup>

To conclude discussion on this type of technical education, it will be adequate to sum up the syllabuses provided to its pupils along the five-year course, in Table XLIII.

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., pp.66-67 and 68.
  2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.42. See also Technical and Vocational Conference for the Arab States, 1957, Member Countries Reports/1, Egypt, Report on Industrial Education. (In Arabic).



TABLE XLIII<sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, INTERMEDIATE INDUSTRIAL  
SCHOOLS (GENERAL DISTRIBUTION)

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK				
	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR	FIFTH YEAR
Arabic language and Ethics	4	2	2	-	-
English language	2	2	2	-	-
Arithmetic and Algebra	2	2	-	-	-
Science	-	2	2	-	-
Engineering and Industrial drawing	4	-	-	-	-
Mechanical drawing	-	2	-	-	-
Book-keeping and Business methods	-	-	-	2	-
Total of General Subjects	12	10	6	2	-
Total of Special Subjects including Work-shop Training	32	34	38	42	44
Grand total of weekly periods	44	44	44	44	44

From the above Table, it is clear that the proportion of general subjects to special subjects and work-shop training is in favour of the latter. In the first year there were 12 lesson-periods devoted to the former, i.e general subjects, out of the total weekly timetable of 44 lesson-periods. The time allocated was reduced year by year. It

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.452.

became 10, 6, 2, and nil in the following second, third, fourth, and fifth years. This trend of emphasis on special subjects and workshop was intended to attain excellence in skill in the selected special subjects.

#### IV. INTERMEDIATE TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF GIRLS

The provision of education for girls was provided in two categories: (1) Schools of Embroidery Arts, and (2) Schools of Feminine Culture.

##### (1) SCHOOLS OF EMBROIDERY ARTS

In 1927, the first school of embroidery arts was established. The course was free and of three years in length. Admission required the holding of the Elementary Education Certificate. In 1937, a decade later, its course of studies was extended by one more year, and the attainment of the Primary Education Certificate was required for enrolment. School fees were six pounds per annum.<sup>1</sup> Exemptions from the payment of fees were made to 30 per cent of the new intake, provided the candidates had obtained 55 per cent of the total marks in the Primary Education Certificate examination.<sup>2</sup> The function of this school was the preparation of girls either to teach embroidery and needlework arts in the elementary and primary school, or to secure an employment in dress-making establishments.<sup>3</sup>

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., pp.45-46.  
 2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.456.  
 3. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.69.

In 1946, the school period was extended to five years and was converted into a Secondary School of Embroidery Arts. There were fourteen such schools until 1953-1954 when they were abolished.

The programme of studies in the first two years was identical with that of the academic secondary schools. The programme for the remaining three years of schooling is set out in Table XLIV.

TABLE XLIV <sup>1</sup>

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, IN THE FINAL THREE YEARS OF THE  
SECONDARY EMBROIDERY ARTS SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR
Religion and Arabic language	4	2	2
Foreign language (English or French)	4	2	2
Cutting, sewing, embroidery and modes	10	-	-
Embroidery	-	10	10
Cutting and sewing	-	14	16
Home keeping	4	-	-
Historical and Geographical Readings	2	-	-
Mathematics and Practical geometry	2	-	-
Science	2	-	-
Business methods and Bookkeeping	1	2	-
Drawing	4	3	3
Music	1	1	1
Physical Training	2	2	2
Total	36	36	36

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.458.

(2) SCHOOLS OF FEMININE CULTURE

In 1937 the first school of feminine culture was founded. It accepted holders of the Primary Education Certificate. Its major objective was preparing its pupils for the management of their homes.<sup>1</sup> The course was four years in length. The fees were £. E. 12 per year. In 1942-1943 an additional year was added to provide a specialised course and another optional course. Later the course was further extended making the total period of schooling to six years.<sup>2</sup>

The course was divided into two stages: (1) A primary stage of four years. (2) An advanced stage of two years. The cultural subjects dominated the first course, the subjects prescribed being religion, Arabic, a foreign language, geography, history, civics, science, mathematics and psychology. In addition to child welfare, hygiene and nursing, dress-making and embroidery and house keeping courses, programmes in art, music, horticulture, and physical training were provided. The second, the advanced or specialised stage provided Arabic and a first (principal) and second (optional) foreign language. The pupils were requested to select three of the following subjects: art, house-keeping, child care, science, cutting and sewing, embroidery and music. A pupil could choose a fourth subject from the above, instead of studying a second foreign language.<sup>3</sup>

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1. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.70.

2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.46.

3. R.D. Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.70.

The feminine culture schools were converted to the secondary feminine schools. This conversion enabled the graduates to be admitted to the Institute of Home Economics and Embroidery Arts on the same basis as the academic secondary school leavers.<sup>1</sup>

#### NEW TRENDS IN THE TECHNICAL EDUCATION REFORM

The following pages will be devoted to discussing the attempts and efforts for reform exerted during the forties of the twentieth century. At the beginning of this period as has already been pointed out, secondary school syllabuses were designed to prepare pupils for admission to the university or secure an occupation. The traditional method of learning was essentially by rote. Examinations were the ultimate objective of the educational process. So, academic subjects were provided to the pupils. Practical subjects were not included in the curriculum.

In the reforms put forward during this period it was recognised that pupils possessed individual differences, and three general categories were identified. First, there are pupils who attended general or academic school, possessing high intelligence and considerable powers of abstraction. The second type are pupils whose abilities and interests lie in the field of applied science or applied art. The third type of pupils tend to be factual rather than theoretical in

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1. See, Conference on Technical and Vocational Education for the Arab States, 1957, Report on Domestic Economy, States' reports 1: Egypt. (In Arabic).

their outlook. University education, theoretical or technical, does not satisfy the interests of the third type of pupil. Recognition of these differences led to curricula reforms and reorganisation of the education system to prepare pupils to participate in all walks of life, in the fields of agriculture, commerce and trades.<sup>1</sup>

Intermediate Technical Schools were designed to meet the needs of the second type of pupil. The curricula provided there were directed to attain this end. In 1944, the Secondary Technical Schools were introduced to replace the old Intermediate Technical Schools. The differences between the old and new technical schools was exemplified in the preparation of the pupils theoretically and practically for careers related to their interests and aptitudes and to open the way for gifted pupils to pursue advanced studies in technical fields at the university or other higher technical institutes.

The Report on Educational Reform in Egypt, December 1943, stated that the function of technical secondary schools was to prepare the pupils for industrial, commercial and agricultural activities, which they might pursue in their future life.<sup>2</sup> The Report explained the idea of equality of educational opportunities in the realm of secondary school level in the sense that all types of this level should be on the same standard, or the Report words:

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1. A.K.C. Ottaway, *Education and Society* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1960), pp.73-74.
  2. N. El-Hilali, *op.cit.*, pp.24 and 34.

"It has been stated in addition that the great popularity of secondary education in its present form is due to the fact that existing secondary schools are more highly esteemed by the boys' parents than the other kinds of schools. That is accounted for by greater care bestowed on them by the State, the better kind of school premises and the higher standard of the teaching staff, all of which attract the parents of the schoolboys, although those schools prepare only for university education and for some forms of administrative and clerical work." 1

The Report proposed a solution to this situation in the following passage:

"If the parents of the schoolboys are to be attracted to practical education, the different secondary schools - and especially the technical schools - should be of the same standard and should be given the same care as regards premises, equipment, capacity of class rooms, teaching staff and general appearance." 2

Recruitment to the technical secondary schools as well as to the academic secondary schools resulted in overcrowding and unsatisfactory construction. Furthermore the attempt to prepare pupils for both future trades in industry, commerce, or agriculture, and for admission to higher education within the content of the same course resulted in unsatisfactory achievement in respect of both objectives. The period of technical or practical preparation in the secondary technical schools compared unfavourably with the old intermediate technical schools. Furthermore, the general-culture course was inadequate for admission to higher education.

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1. N. El-Hilali, op.cit., p.28.  
2. Ibid.

These inadequacies are illustrated by a comparison between the programmes of the old intermediate technical and the new technical secondary schools. The weekly schedule witnessed a small number of periods allocated for agricultural subjects in the programme of the agriculture secondary school in comparison with those of its predecessor, i.e. the intermediate agriculture school. Table XLV provides a comparison between the Agricultural Secondary and Intermediate Agricultural Schools.

TABLE XLV<sup>1</sup>

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE ALLOCATED WEEKLY TIMETABLE FOR THE TOTAL COURSE IN AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY AND INTERMEDIATE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS	INTERMEDIATE AGRICULTURE SCHOOLS
Agriculture	20	38
Horticulture	14	23
Zoology	6	6
Botany	6	9
Physics and chemistry	23	15
Dairy and agriculture trade	66	18
Economics of agriculture and cooperation	-	3
Book-keeping	-	3
Veterinary medicine	-	6
Survey	-	3
Agricultural engineering	-	3
Insects and protecting of plants	-	9
Poultry- and cattle-breeding	-	8
Total	75	144

1. I.M. El-Qabbani, op.cit., p.121.



In the Commercial Secondary Schools, the total number of lesson-periods devoted to commercial subject-matter throughout the six-year course was slightly less than that of the old intermediate commercial schools. Furthermore, the allocating of one-lesson-period each for the Arabic and European typewriting courses was inadequate for the standard of achievement desired.

The consultative committees for agricultural, industrial and commercial education, in their conference on 13, 17 and 19 March, 1945, expressed the opinion that the graduates from this type of education were inadequately provided to undertake their vocational careers satisfactorily. This opinion was supported by that of the Deans of technical faculties at the universities. They had pointed out that products of the academic or general secondary schools were more able to carry on their university technical course than the graduates from technical secondary schools. They were of the opinion that this was in part due to the inadequacies of the theoretical teaching in the secondary technical schools of the mathematics, physics and mechanics.

Actually, the equality of educational opportunity did not mean changing all types of secondary schools to satisfy university needs. Equality of opportunity should be interpreted as providing both academic and technical secondary schools with a parallel courses and facilities, teachers, premises, equipment and the like, length of

schooling duration, and the number of pupils per class. Facilitating the admission of industrious and gifted technical schools leavers to higher education. Achievement of these ends would contribute to full opportunity of growth of pupils of the secondary technical schools.<sup>1</sup>

Despite these strictures, technical education developed considerably during the period from 1922-23 to 1951-52.

Table XLVI shows that the growth of industrial education had witnessed a steady and gradual development during the period mentioned. A comparison between the 1923-24 and 1939-40 shows that this type of education increased approximately nine-fold.

In connection with the growth of commercial education, it will be apparent from the same Table that it rose in the scholastic year 1939-40 to 3,429 pupils against 1,186 pupils in the scholastic year 1923-24. Thus there was a three-fold increase in total enrolment during this period.

During the same period agricultural education attained a five-fold dimension of growth. Nevertheless, the actual enrolment in this sector of secondary education was very small compared with that of the technical schools.

In girls' education, the increase in enrolment attained, amounted to approximately eighteen-fold. But this relatively great increase still left the enrolment of girls

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1. I.M. El-Qasbi, op.cit., pp.114-123.

in secondary technical education far behind that of boys.

TABLE XLVI<sup>1</sup>

DEVELOPMENT OF GOVERNMENT TECHNICAL SCHOOLS  
(FROM 1922-23 TO 1939-40)

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	INDUSTRIAL	COMMERCIAL	AGRICULTURAL	FEMINIST
1922-1923	1,486	1,197	176	-
1923-1924	1,606	1,186	163	-
1924-1925	2,027	1,249	140	-
1925-1926	2,317	1,309	173	-
1926-1927	3,069	1,547	235	-
1927-1928	3,498	1,996	349	-
1928-1929	3,804	2,224	479	-
1929-1930	4,129	3,040	621	-
1930-1931	2,240	4,150	737	-
1931-1932	7,354	3,807	1,223	99
1932-1933	5,821	3,668	869	104
1933-1934	7,196	2,916	1,298	138
1934-1935	7,821	2,397	1,408	183
1935-1936	9,898	2,101	1,502	523
1936-1937	12,825	2,076	1,576	770
1937-1938	12,897	2,380	1,622	1,293
1938-1939	11,851	3,006	1,334	1,662
1939-1940	9,706	3,429	1,494	1,834

From 1940 to 1951 the rate of growth continued as shown in Table XLVII.

1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.378.

TABLE XLVII <sup>1</sup>

GROWTH OF GOVERNMENT TECHNICAL EDUCATION  
(FROM 1940-41 TO 1951-52)

SCHOLASTIC YEAR	INDUSTRIAL	COMMERCIAL	AGRICULTURAL	FEMINIST
1940-1941	9,272	3,974	1,158	1,995
1941-1942	9,099	3,934	290	2,194
1942-1943	8,711	3,890	493	2,422
1943-1944	7,669	4,306	494	2,670
1944-1945	8,460	4,821	606	3,916
1945-1946	7,982	4,870	944	3,236
1946-1947	8,360	6,204	1,296	3,725
1947-1948	8,553	5,974	1,901	3,261 <sup>1</sup>
1948-1949	9,909	7,792	3,181	3,546
1949-1950	10,857	7,071	4,017	3,574
1950-1951	11,115	8,762	4,853	3,305 <sup>2</sup>
1951-1952	—————	19,321	—————	9,529 <sup>3</sup>

The trend of growth may be attributed to promulgation of Law No. 142 of 1951, which had played a remarkable role in changing the educational enrolment figures in favour of academic secondary education. Nevertheless, the Table above speaks for itself; it needs a little comment. The total enrolment number of industrial, commercial and agricultural

1. For the enrolment figures of 1940-41 to 1947-48, see S. Al-Husary, op.cit., First Year, p.378.
2. For the enrolment numbers of 1948-49 to 1950-51, see S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Second Year, p.422.
3. For the enrolment figures of the scholastic year 1951-52, see S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Third Year, p.266.

schools in the year prior to the issue of that law was 24,730 pupils against 19,321 in the following year 1951-1952, or the year in which the implementation of the law occurred.

Thus it is apparent that the pupils preferred to attend general or academic secondary schools instead of technical schools. The feminist technical education underwent a remarkable development. In approximately one-decade time, 1940-1951, it rose from 1,995 pupils to 9,529 or multiplied nearly nine-fold.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### THE EGYPTIAN REVOLUTION OF 1952

On 23 July 1952, a revolution broke out under the leadership of Gamal Abdel Nasser, the first Egyptian to rule his country since a succession of foreign rulers from the Persian invasion in the second half of the sixth century B.C.<sup>1</sup> He has eradicated a royal régime that dated back, "through a variety of different despotisms to the first Pharaoh."<sup>2</sup>

#### MOTIVES OF THE 1952 REVOLUTION

There were three groups of factors worked actively behind this Revolution, as follows: (1) Political factors; (2) Economic factors; (3) Social factors. Some consideration of these factors is necessary because of the implications for educational development.

#### (1) POLITICAL FACTORS

Foreign occupation undoubtedly provided a stimulus towards revolution. The occupation of 1882 was replaced by British protectorate status in 1914.<sup>3</sup> By 1919 resistance to the protectorate broke into revolution. The British response to this was to terminate the protectorate and provide nominal independence in 1922. The continued pressure of British

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1. T. Little, op.cit., p.25.

2. Ronald Segal, African Profiles (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1962), p.332.

3. Roland Oliver and J.D. Fage, A Short History of Africa (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1962), p.232.

presence and influence led to continued agitation which the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936<sup>1</sup> was intended to satisfy. Complete evacuation of British forces, however, remained the ultimate political objective of the nation. Mass demonstrations in 1946-47 eventually resulted in British withdrawal to the Canal Zone,<sup>2</sup> only to result in further negotiations for complete withdrawal from Egyptian soil. Abrogation of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936 by the Egyptian government<sup>3</sup> resulted in a series of reprisal actions, and the political situation was further exacerbated by the arbitrary political activities of ex-king Farouk as well as by his personal conduct. Antagonism towards the British<sup>4</sup> and towards the royal régime was further accelerated by the Palestinian War result.<sup>5</sup>

## (2) ECONOMIC FACTORS

Though the country had had considerable economic development in the period following the First World War in 1952 the country was essentially still in the category of underdeveloped. Overseas trade throughout the forties was marked by an accumulation of deficits, as will be seen from

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1. G.E.Kirk, op.cit., pp.171-173. See the main provisions of this treaty on the mentioned pages.
  2. G.E.Kirk, op.cit., pp.227-228.
  3. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.105.
  4. Abdel-Rahman Al-Rafi'i, Muqadimat Thawrit Thalathah wa Eshrine U'lu 1952 "Introductions of the Revolution of 23th July, 1952" (Cairo: Al-Mahdah Al-Misriyah, 1957), pp. 42-149. (In Arabic). See also T.Little, op.cit., p.183.
  5. T. Little, op.cit., p.177; J. & S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.233, and A.R. Al-Rafi'i, op.cit., pp.158 and 199-200.

Table XLVIII. At the year 1951-1952 the economic situation showed further deterioration as a result of manipulations on the Alexandria Cotton Exchange. In consequence of which the cotton crop was virtually reduced, prices of food and goods rose to levels that costed general hardship and the country came dangerously near total economic collapse.<sup>1</sup>

TABLE XLVIII<sup>2</sup>

DEFICIT IN FOREIGN TRADE IN EGYPT, PRIOR TO THE  
1952 REVOLUTION

YEAR	DEFICIT	YEAR	DEFICIT
1946	14,000,000	1949	40,000,000
1947	12,000,000	1950	38,000,000
1948	30,000,000	1951	39,000,000

The government had failed to exploit the resources of the country and appeared to be incapable of improving the national income to keep pace with the expanding population. The combination of lack of economic growth and an expanding population accelerating the general conditions of poverty inevitable created conditions favourable to revolution.

The majority of the population of the country lived in poverty, much of it extreme. The governments were incapable of improving the national income, and of facing the increase of population. No efforts to improve the national resources

1. T.Little, op.cit., pp.180-182.

2. National Bank of Egypt, Economic Bulletin, vol.5, p.52.  
Quoted by A.R. Al-Rafi'i, op.cit., p.166.



of wealth such as improving the methods of productivity in agriculture and industry were attempted nor of exploiting various mining resources and the like. Thus the economic situation demanded a revolution to abolish the standstill position and to keep between with inhabitants and production.<sup>1</sup>

### (3) SOCIAL FACTORS

Social justice is an essential foundation for the development of a sound society, and a satisfactory general standard of living is essential to this. Furthermore, satisfactory social relations and integration of the different social classes must be established. Without these issues being satisfactorily resolved national solidarity is unlikely to be reached.<sup>2</sup>

Prior to 1952 Revolution the major aspect of the country calling for social adjustment was undoubtedly the condition of the land. In 1949 the overall cultivated land area was 5,962,662 feddans, shared between 2,760,661 holders. The proportional distribution in units per owner is given in Table XLIX.

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1. A.R. Al-Rafi'i, op.cit., pp.166-167.

2. Ibid., p.168.

TABLE XLIX<sup>1</sup>DISTRIBUTION OF SMALL OWNERSHIPS IN EGYPT, 1949.

SIZE OF HOLDING	NUMBER OF OWNERS	NUMBER OF FEDDANS OWNED	PERCENTAGE TO:	
			TOTAL OWNERS	TOTAL CULTIVATED LAND
<u>Feddans</u>				
Less than $\frac{1}{2}$	1,459,167	413,551	53.0	7.0
$\frac{1}{2}$ to 1	522,162	356,695	18.5	6.5
1 to 2	327,612	446,816	12.5	7.5
2 to 3	153,293	354,855	5.2	4.8
3 to 4	881,366	272,342	2.7	5.0
4 to 5	56,589	247,017	2.1	4.2
5 to 10	79,647	527,136	2.9	8.0
10 to 20	43,100	598,028	1.6	8.5

Table L will reveal the distribution of big land-ownership in 1949. It needs no comment at all to indicate to the concrete inequality of land distribution in Egypt. A number of 280 individuals had possessed 583,411 feddans or rather 1 : 10,000 of landowners possessed 10 per cent of the total cultivated land.

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1. A.A. Izzat, op.cit., pp.89-90.

TABLE I<sup>1</sup>DISTRIBUTION OF BIG OWNERSHIP IN EGYPT, 1949

SIZE OF HOLDING	NUMBER OF OWNERS	NUMBER OF FEDDANS OWNED
<u>Feddans</u>		
More than 2,000	61	277,258
1,500 to 2,000	28	97,454
1,000 to 1,500	99	122,216
800 to 1,000	92	86,483
Total	280	583,411

The total area of land held in units of 200 or more feddans per holding was 1,208,493 feddans. This land was owned by 2,215 landowners.

From the above Tables, it is clear that there was great paradox between the two extremes of distribution of small and big ownership in Egypt prior to the 1952 Revolution. Nearly 98.7 per cent of the landowners shared 51.5 per cent of the total cultivated land area. Egypt was in fact a country of very rich landowners and her structure evoked a feudal system. Bearing in mind that the majority of the Egyptian people are rural inhabitants, it is easy to observe the decline in the standards of the total community.

The picture of the country supplied by the foregoing description is one of a country occupied by foreign military

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1. A.R. Al-Rafi'i, op.cit., p.170. The above Table is based on the Agrarian Reform Law Memorandum. See also A.A.Izzat, op.cit., p.23.

forces, torn by dissension and internal quarrels arising from the multiplicity of political parties, numerous changes of cabinet, a country whose administration was riddled with corruption and graft, where full demographic growth was unaccompanied by a corresponding economic development, a country whose inhabitants had low average per capita incomes, and no prospect of improvement; a country constantly a prey to economic crises bordering upon catastrophe, whose economy was almost exclusively based on one single export, whose government was in the hands of few landowners, the finance and industry mostly in the hands of aliens. Something had to be done to secure order and remove the chaotic circumstances. "Then, in July, 1952, there came the news of revolution in Egypt. Farouk was deposed, the old titles were abolished, social reforms were promised."<sup>1</sup>

#### THE AIMS OF THE JULY 1952 REVOLUTION

The national revolution of 1952 is considered the climax of the people's aspirations. The Revolutionary government promulgated the embarkment of the six famous aims of the Revolution as follows:

- (1) Abolition of imperialism and its agents.
- (2) Abolition of feudalism.
- (3) Abolition of monopoly and capitalist domination of the Government administration.

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1. Erskine Childers. Common Sense about the Arab World (London: Victor Gollancz Ltd., 1960), p.77.

- (4) Establishment of a strong national army.
- (5) Establishment of a predominant social justice.
- (6) Establishment of a sound democratic system under the auspices of a social society.<sup>1</sup>

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SIX AIMS  
OF THE JULY 1952 REVOLUTION

It is necessary to demonstrate the implementations of the six aims of the July 1952 Revolution, as an approach to the educational implications which will be studied in the following chapter.

FIRST AIM

ABOLITION OF IMPERIALISM AND ITS AGENTS

Deposing and exiling Farouk, who had become for the majority of Egyptians the symbol of corruption,<sup>2</sup> was an immediate objective of the Revolution. This measure was achieved on 26 July 1952.<sup>3</sup> On 9 December 1952 the Constitution of 1923, which was misinterpreted or neglected for a long period since its issue, was suspended.<sup>4</sup> The political parties were dissolved on 16 January 1953, and their assets were confiscated for the benefit of the people, and a transitional period of three years prior to construction of a sound democratic constitutional government<sup>5</sup> under a

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1. U.A.R., The Yearbook 1959 (Cairo: Information Department, 1959), p.25.
  2. Jacques Baulin, The Arab Role in Africa (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1962), p.38.
  3. T. Little, op.cit., pp.197-199.
  4. Ibid., p.204.
  5. U.A.R., The Yearbook 1959 (Cairo: Information Department, 1959), p.62. (In Arabic).

Provisional Constitution was announced on 10 February 1953.<sup>1</sup> The eradication of the monarchy and the proclamation of the Republic was made on 18 June 1953.<sup>2</sup>

The Sudan Problem was settled, with the conclusion of an Agreement on 11 February 1953. This Anglo-Egyptian Agreement stipulated the abrogation of the condominium system. Sudanisation of the administration was to be implemented immediately within three years. Both Egyptian and British troops were to be evacuated from the Sudan. At the end of this three-year period a referendum was to be held under international supervision to decide the future of the Sudan. In 1956 the Sudan voted to become an independent republic.<sup>3</sup>

In the three years which elapsed after the abrogation of the monarchy and proclamation of the Republic, the last British soldier was evacuated from Egypt on 18 June 1956.<sup>4</sup> The Revolutionary Government achieved its first aim by concluding the Evacuation Agreement with Britain which was announced on 19 October 1954.<sup>5</sup> The Agreement stipulated: (1) Complete evacuation of British troops from Egyptian soil over a period of 20 months starting from the date of signing the Agreement. (2) Abrogation of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936. (3) Transformation of ownership to the Egyptian State of all airports and installations, and the placing all

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1. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.169.

2. G.E.Kirk, op.cit., p.276.

3. R.Oliver and J.D. Fage, op.cit., p.200.

4. Bena Al-Watan Monthly Periodical, (Cairo), 23 July, 1962. p.21. (In Arabic).

5. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959, pp.65-66. (In Arabic).

British technicians remaining during the evacuation within Egyptian jurisdiction.

The evacuation of all representatives of foreign authority and the freeing of the Egyptian people from foreign control and interference was achieved, after approximately 74 years of foreign occupation and domination. Thus, the greatest aspirations of the people were achieved.

## SECOND AIM

### ABOLITION OF FEUDALISM

It has been mentioned above that Egypt suffered from an imbalance in the distribution of cultivated land. The majority of Egyptians are rural inhabitants. Their proper share in the agricultural resources of the country were obtained through the promulgation of the Agrarian Reform Law 8 September 1952. According to this Law ownership was restricted by 200 feddans,<sup>1</sup> as a maximum holding. A major step was taken to develop the land resources through the High Dam project. Its completion, giving more irrigation and whereby making more land available was calculated to bring prosperity to millions.

Designing the construction of this tremendous work was started in October 1952, when expeditions were sent to make preliminary surveys south of Aswan.<sup>2</sup> Several

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1. M. Berger, op.cit., p.220; J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.340; T. Little, op.cit., pp.221-222 and 316.
  2. Egypt, Permanent Council for the Development of National Production, op.cit., 1955, p.135.

investigations were undertaken. Briefly, after withdrawal of the American and British offer to finance the High Dam on 20 July 1956, Nasser on 26 July 1956 nationalised the Suez Canal Company in order to erect the Dam. Then, the 1956 Suez Crisis.<sup>1</sup> However, on 9 January 1960 was commenced the inauguration of the erection of the High Dam started under the aid of the Russian technicians and finance.<sup>3</sup> Egyptian engineers and workers undertook a vital role in this task, and the Suez Canal income was earmarked for paying the Russian government for the aid in building the Dam. The benefits accruing from the High Dam to the U.A.R. will be: (1) Expansion of cultivated land by an area of two millions feddans, simultaneously about 700,000 feddans in Upper Egypt will be converted to perennial irrigation. (2) Guarantee present and future water requirements for the total bulk of cultivated lands even in years of minimal floods. (3) Improved drainage would be brought about. (4) Guarantee the cultivation of 700,000 feddans of rice per annum, regardless of the volume of flood waters.<sup>4</sup> There are many other advantages to be derived from the project such as: protection against high floods and the improvement of navigation.

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1. T. Little, *op.cit.*, p.284.

2. Sir Ivison Macadam (editor), *World Events: The Annual Register of the Year 1960* (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1961), p.307.

3. M. Berger, *op.cit.*, pp.350-351.

4. *Egypt, Permanent Council ...*, pp.167-173. (In Arabic). See also J. and S. Lacouture, *op.cit.*, p.391.



Moreover many other measures were taken, in the agrarian reform, such as reducing rents by approximately 40 per cent. "This altered the social pattern of the countryside and broke the power of the big land owners, who had been dominant in Egyptian society for decades."<sup>1</sup> Compensation was given to big landowners. Agricultural rents cannot exceed seven times the basic rate.<sup>2</sup> This measure was indispensable to consolidate the price of land and to give the tenant a satisfactory return for his cultivation. The Agrarian Reform Law implied another aim, namely to help the transfer of capital from agriculture to industry, co-operative societies were established to foster small land owners and to provide mechanised methods for them. The number of these societies totalled 408 in 1962.<sup>3</sup> Shifting small ownerships to landless peasants is a deliberate attempt to keep the soil in good condition.<sup>4</sup> Agricultural labourers who constitute 38 per cent of Egypt's rural inhabitants also benefitted by a law prescribing 18 piastres as a basic daily rate of pay, and the right to establish agricultural trade unions was established.<sup>5</sup>

Another attempt was made to raise the peasants standard of living and to abolish feudalism by the foundation of the liberation province (Muduriyat Al-Tahrir). Work was

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1. T. Little, op.cit., pp.221-222.
  2. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.346.
  3. Bena Al-Watan Monthly Periodical (Cairo), July 1962, pp.34-35 (In Arabic).
  4. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., pp.347-349.
  5. Ramses W. Asaad, "Social Survey of Egypt", Civilisations, issued by International Institute of Differing Civilizations, 1957, vol.VII, No.1, pp.52-53.

begun to establish a modern pattern of rural community economically and socially, when in the autumn of 1953, 1,200,000 acres on the western fringe of the Delta were delimited for development. Model villages were erected in modern planned layouts. Approximately 14,000 peasants were transferred to the new location in order to cultivate the area. Everything was mechanised, and the co-operative pattern of agriculture was adopted. The Province now yields numerous kinds of fruits, dairy produce and poultry which find their way to the markets in Cairo and Alexandria. In addition steps have been taken to establish a number of factories in the new province.<sup>1</sup>

Another new project is designed to open up a vast area of desert lands by irrigation from subterranean waters. This project had made considerable progress by the end of 1959-60. The major area being developed is the New Valley, which covers a vast stretch from Kharga Oasis, Dakhla Oasis, Faraffra Oasis, and Baharia Oasis all lie in the Western Desert. New Valley will give priority to the cultivation of fruits, vegetables and to establish animal and poultry breeding stations. Corresponding to this project, others have been designated such as: the Sinai Peninsula, and the North Western Coast Region.<sup>2</sup>

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1. T. Little, op.cit., p.316. See also J. and S. Lacouture op.cit., pp.350-353.
  2. The Scribe Monthly Periodical, (Cairo), August 1960, pp.76-78. See also Wahby Ghobrial, *Al'wa'a ala Khitat Al- Tanmiyah Al-Iqtisadiyah fi Al-Gomhoriyah Al-Arabiyyah Al-Motahidah* "Lights on the Economic Development Plan in the United Arab Republic" (Cairo: National House for Printing and Publication, n.d.), p.94. (In Arabic).

Through land reclamation the absorption of people into regular work on the development of means of using the raw material of agricultural development is intended to raise the standard of living through raising income.<sup>1</sup>

### THIRD AIM

#### ABOLITION OF MONOPOLY AND CAPITALIST DOMINATION OF THE GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

The preceding measures concerning land reform will prevent citizens from amassing great fortunes by exploitation of the law at the expense of the working masses. As has already been pointed out over and above agrarian reform, industrialisation is the basic need of the nation. In order to achieve this end, 34 per cent of the allocations of the Development Plan were set aside for industry as against 23 per cent designated for agriculture.<sup>2</sup> The industrialisation programme ensures possibilities of employment for new categories of people and promises to the national income.

The "Permanent Council for the Development of National Production" was established in accordance with Decree No. 213 of 1952,<sup>3</sup> on 3 October 1952. The purpose of this Council is to investigate and plan economic projects in all walks of life in Egypt. On 29 June 1956<sup>4</sup> the Ministry of

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1. Bena Al-Watan Monthly Periodical, (Cairo) July 1962, pp.38-40. (In Arabic).
  2. Ibid., p.49. (In Arabic).
  3. Egypt, Permanent Council ..., 1955, pp.1 and 402-408. (In Arabic).
  4. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959, p.70. (In Arabic).

Industry<sup>1</sup> was established in order to define industrialisation policy for the country. The First Five-Year Plan was laid out for this purpose. Measures leading to promoting the standards of production, establishing stability and development, and prescribing various means for protecting local industries from foreign competition were implemented.<sup>2</sup>

The industrial counterpart of agricultural advantages to be gained by the building of the High Dam will be a steady and constant supply of hydro-electric power by the production of 10 milliard K.W.H. per annum, approximately five-fold of the present amount generated by the Aswan Power Station. This will assist in the creating of new industries, in addition to expansion of the contemporary ones. On completion of the High Dam the individual's allocation of electric power will be raised to 400 K.W.H. per annum, against 60 K.W.H. individual's amount of today.<sup>3</sup>

The nationalisation of the Suez Canal Company meant the elimination of the biggest symbol of European domination of Egypt. In 1957, the Egyptianisation of British and French assets, in Egypt such as banks and insurance companies and the complete Egyptianisation of Belgian assets 1960-1961,

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1. Ministry of Industry, Ministry of Planning and lastly Ministry of Land Reform were established on 29 June 1956. See U.A.R., 'The Yearbook 1959, p. 70. (In Arabic).
  2. U.A.R., Pocket Book 1961. (Cairo: Information Department, 1961), p.197.
  3. Egypt, Permanent Council ..., 1955, op.cit., pp.168-169, (In Arabic).

ended the whole process of rehabilitation for the people's rights.<sup>1</sup>

In February 1960, the National Bank and Bank Misr were nationalised. In May 1960, publishing houses of newspapers and periodicals ownership were transferred to the National Union, in the same month, the Cairo omnibus companies were also nationalised. In August, the wholesale pharmaceutical houses were nationalised<sup>2</sup> Egyptianising and nationalisation of the country's economic and financial understructure has ensured a judicious exploitation and an appropriate harmonisation of the methods necessary for bringing about industrialisation.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE NATIONAL INCOME

The following Table gives a clear picture of the contribution of each sector to the total bulk of national income.

TABLE LI<sup>3</sup>

#### PROPORTION OF NATIONAL INCOME CONTRIBUTED BY ECONOMIC SECTORS IN EGYPT, IN PERCENTAGES

AGRICULTURE	INDUSTRY	TRADE	OTHER	TOTAL
31	21	10	38	100

1. T. Little, op.cit., p.305; R. Segal, op.cit., p.341; R. Oliver and J.D. Fage, op.cit., p.234.
2. Sir Ivison Macadam (editor), World Events 1961, op.cit., p.306.
3. National Bank of Egypt, Economic Bulletin (1961), 14:6.

Thus, it is apparent that while agriculture contributes about a third of the total national income, industry contributes about two fifths, and trade, one tenth. Industry and trade between them, make a contribution to the national income equal to that of agriculture alone. It is clear that the government has begun to give great attention towards industrialisation. This is due to the profound desire of relying on more than one primary sector of production in building up the national economy.

Table LII illustrates the distribution of the labour force in the various economic sectors providing further evidence of the need for changing the emphasis.

TABLE LII<sup>1</sup>  
DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR FORCE BY ECONOMIC SECTOR  
IN EGYPT, in 1958, IN PERCENTAGES

AGRICULTURE	INDUSTRY	COMMERCE	OTHER	TOTAL
56	11	10	23	100

The above Table makes clear the contrasts between the proportion of persons employed in agriculture compared with those engaged in the other sectors of the economy. Approximately agriculture absorbed half the total bulk of various economic sectors, though it contributed only one third of the national income. A proportion of one tenth goes to

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1. National Bank of Egypt, Economic Bulletin (1960), 13:88.

industry and commerce separately. Though both contributed, a corresponding figure as agriculture to the national income.

The results of the pursuit of the industrial programme have begun to appear. A noticeable increase has been achieved in the quantity of the various industrial products. This has been accompanied with another noticeable increase in wages and profits, a factor that has contributed to the acceleration of economic activity, income and the inflow of foreign currencies on a satisfactory scale.

The value of the industrial production jumped from £.E. 558 million in 1959 to £.E. 655 million in 1960 with a difference of £.E. 97 million. The value of production also exceeded 700 million pounds by the end of 1961, a value that exceeds the aim set for production in 1961. Table LIII will display the industrial production in 1952 in comparison with the available data for 1959, 1960 and 1961.

TABLE LIII<sup>1</sup>  
INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION DISTRIBUTION (1952-1961)  
 (IN THOUSAND £.E.)

PROCESSING INDUSTRIES	1952	1959	1960	1961
1. Spinning and weaving	84,643	183,374	230,058	241,092
2. Food production	122,334	164,147	172,734	175,308
3. Chemical industries	20,471	43,285	48,480	53,412
4. Technical industries	30,118	62,585	80,880	90,403
5. Building industries	8,432	19,597	20,018	21,108
Total	265,998	472,988	52,170	581,323
Mining industries	3,631	7,034	7,531	9,762
Oil industries	43,165	57,599	66,447	54,516
Electric power	10,087	21,250	29,410	48,000
Grand Total	313,881	558,871	655,548	693,601

The preceding Table needs no comment; it speaks for itself. One brief conclusion deserves note, namely that a steady increase has occurred through a period of ten years and that the general industrial production has, approximately, doubled throughout the same period.

This growth of industry and the increase in national income, implies a need for development and modification of the education system to meet the needs of a society becoming increasingly technological in its manpower requirements, and also implies the availability of funds to finance the

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1. U.A.R., Ten Years of Progress and Development, 1952-1962 (Cairo: Information Department, 1962), p.123.



development and extension of education. The educational implications of this situation receive attention in a subsequent chapter dealing with the professional opinion of secondary school teachers concerning the relevance of the current curriculum to the needs of the society.

#### FOURTH AIM

##### ESTABLISHMENT OF A STRONG NATIONAL ARMY

Establishment of a strong national army was regarded as a major need for both the Revolution and the nation. After the achievement of the economical and social and political aspirations, the country asked the West to provide her with its requirements of arms. All her demands were neglected. Outside aggression began to increase after the conclusion of the Evacuation Agreement. In order to oppose this aggression the logical consequence was to seek arms elsewhere. Hence on 27 September 1955, Egypt concluded an arms deal with Czechoslovakia.<sup>1</sup>

Not only does Egypt import arms but also she manufactures her needs in local military factories which were established to provide the army with its requirements. The first two military factories were built in February 1953<sup>2</sup> to produce bullet shells. These have been followed by factories to provide both military and civil needs, in terms of consumer goods such as household articles, office

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1. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959, p.68. (In Arabic).

2. Ibid., p.62.

equipment, sports articles. In the agricultural sector, insecticide sprayers, diesel motors, cans for preserving vegetables and fruits, and aluminium pipes, in the mining sector; in the public services sector, electric cables, telephones etc., etc. In the industrial sector, metallurgical products, instruments and other items, irrigation equipment, chemical products. In addition to the foregoing products there are many others under study and under execution.<sup>1</sup>

#### FIFTH AIM

#### ESTABLISHMENT OF A PREDOMINANT SOCIAL JUSTICE

Economic development cannot be accomplished without parallel social progress. In fact, the measures taken in this direction are now in proportion to the gigantic effort exerted for agricultural and industrial development. Reforms have covered all spheres of social life: education, hygiene, provision of portable water and electric current, construction of popular houses, youth welfare and training, social insurance, vocational training, educational training, education of the masses, raising the cultural standard, aid to the aged and destitute.

There are now 250 combined units meeting the requirements of more than 1,000 villages; in other words rendering educational, medical, social, economic and cultural service to more than 4,000,000 citizens. They comprise 250

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1. The Scribe Monthly Periodical, July 1962 (Cairo), pp.92-94.

rural primary schools, 250 village hospitals and 250 social centres. In addition a pharmacy, an analytical laboratory, and a public library is provided for each combined centre. There are two poultry breeding centres, one in Upper Egypt, another in Lower Egypt, producing 500,000 chicken per annum. Twelve milk collecting and refrigerating centres have been established in the country.

### EDUCATION

Prior to the Revolution of 1952 education was a privilege to a limited group of society. Now it becomes the right of all citizens, regardless of the parents' income, free at all levels from the primary school up to and including the higher education. Compulsory education is provided by primary schools. The extent of this development is illustrated by the following facts; the education budgetary allowances totalled £.E.200 million in the period of 70 years, from 1882 up till 1952. In the decade 1952-1962 £.E.400 million were spent on education.<sup>1</sup>

### HOUSING

Housing was also seen to be an urgent task. The high rents demanded for new buildings erected by private enterprise were impossible for those of limited income. The government therefore launched a large-scale project to construct two types of accommodation: (1) Some 4,666 popular

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1. Bena Al-Watan Monthly Periodical, July 1962, p.67. (Cairo) (In Arabic).

houses for those of limited income, the total cost was £.E.2,500,000. (2) Houses for rent: About 19,449 economic and medium residences costed at about £.E.15,000,000 and 2,419 residences for workers and employees.

The total accommodation constructed since 1956 up to the beginning of July 1962 is approximately 23,455 flats, thus nearly 120,000 citizens have benefitted by these flats. In addition, there are approximately 1,006 medium houses costed at £.E.1,185,000. A long term housing policy was also scheduled as follows: (1) construction of 113,000 economical residences costing £.E.39,500,000. (2) building of 85,000 small residences costing £.E.8,500,000.

Housing policy is the key issue in the reconstruction and rehabilitation sphere. Many roads and bridges have been constructed all over the country. Portable water facilities have been provided in every place, especially in the rural areas involving 12,000,000 inhabitants. This represents 80 per cent of the population against 15 per cent who, prior to the Revolution, enjoyed these facilities. Drainage is also growing gradually in urban and rural areas alike.<sup>1</sup>

#### HEALTH

In the realm of public health, profound efforts have been exerted to improve both quality and quantity. A quick glance at Table LIV will reveal the extent of the expansion of the health services.

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1. U.A.R., Ten Years ..., op.cit., pp.175-182.

TABLE LIV<sup>1</sup>A COMPARISON IN HEALTH SERVICES BETWEEN 1952 AND 1960

	1952	1960
Number of hospitals	90	144
Number of beds	6,147	10,278
Number of patients	133,000	256,000
Number of examinations	5,250,000	12,000,000
Number of major operations	41,800	80,000
Number of minor operations	96,000	140,000
Treatment by X-ray	6,055	60,600
Treatment by short wave	5,130	13,250

To sum up the situation as follows: (1) The death rate has dropped from 22 per thousand in 1952 to 16 per thousand in 1962. (2) The treatment of Bilharzia has been provided through the Combined Units. (3) Treatment of endemic diseases totalled 1,019 in 1961, which was an increase of 23 per cent over the figure for 1952, serving 4,000,000 citizens, fourfold the number served in 1952. (4) The number of beds allocated for tuberculosis in 1962 was 26 per cent over the 1952 allocations. (5) A hundred thousand pounds were contributed to tuberculosis and their families in annual aid, against £.E.40,000 in 1952. (6) The incidence of ophthalmia decreased from 87 per cent to 20 per cent among pupils between 1952 and 1962. (7) There are 752 child welfare centres against the 1952 corresponding figure of 285.

1. The Scribe Periodical (Cairo), December 1961- January 1962, p.44.

(8) The pharmaceutical industry has been established to meet the patients' requirements. (9) In 1962, 11,000 general practitioners graduated from medical faculties, 1,000 dentists, 317 chemists, 93 technical assistants, 1,515 midwives and nurses. The 1952 corresponding figures are as follows: 6,000; 500; nil; 21; 827 respectively.

#### OTHER REFORM MEASURES

Inspired by national solidarity and equality in the widest sense, the measures taken in the course of this decade have made the U.A.R. citizen a recipient of the most enviable social status, especially in comparison to those of developing countries. Arab socialism has rejected the concept which regards the working masses and the people as simply a factor of the development of production. The human being has a special value which should not under any circumstances be sacrificed for the benefit of the State, even if this sacrifice should be for the betterment of conditions for coming generations.

Many legal dispositions have been taken in the individual or collective labour contracts concerning the rate of indemnity in case of illness, accident or death, paid holidays, labour conflicts, minimum salaries, the 42-hour week, dismissal, etc. The worker completely escapes the arbitrary power of the employer.

Vocational Training has given the country the skilled manpower required for the national development and the improvement of production while contributing to the raising

of the standard of living of the working classes who become more conscious of their dignity and their importance within the nation.

One of the most revolutionary measures is undoubtedly the association of the worker with the management and the profits of the enterprise which employs him. The economic and social advantages of this measure require no comment. Summing up the Socialist Laws of 1961 go as follows:

(1) Company profits distribution, according to the promulgation of Socialist Laws of 1961, is as follows; the net profits available for distribution in a company shall be distributed as follows: 75 per cent to the shareholders, and 25 per cent to staff and labour.

(2) Labour participation in Company Boards with one representative for labourers and another for staff, the total membership of a Company Board not exceeding seven in number.

(3) Maximum remuneration to any member of directorate ... not to exceed £.E.5,000 per annum.

(4) Progressive taxation which started from 8 per cent levied £.E. 1,000 up to 90 per cent levied on over £.E.10,000.

(5) Nationalisation of banks and insurance companies.<sup>1</sup>

(6) The state ownership in 91 companies and enterprises 50 per cent at less.<sup>2</sup>

(7) Limitation of individual shares in 159 companies.<sup>3</sup>

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1. U.A.R., Socialist Laws of 1961 (Cairo: Documentation and Research Centre, 1962), pp.12-15.

2. U.A.R., op.cit., pp.16-20.

3. Ibid., pp.21-26.

- (8) Restriction of public sector work with private firms.<sup>1</sup>  
(9) Organisation of the cotton exporting establishment.<sup>2</sup>

These reforms have certainly been motivated by socialist ideals, and it is in this light that they should be viewed. Some firms have been nationalised; others have been converted into a system of co-partnership between the private and public sectors; progressive income tax has become increasingly socialistic in incidence and scale; working hours have been reduced to a maximum of seven hours a day; boards of directors have been reconstituted in a manner that will gradually enable the worker to feel and appreciate the personality which his role in the economy places upon him; and finally land reform has extended in its socialist scope by reducing the maximum tenure to 100 feddans per person. This is by no means a complete list of the recent reforms and their details, but only a few examples that point to the democratic socialist character of the new society.

It is necessary to refer to the fact that the true spirit of democratic socialism clearly indicates that confiscation or even partial compensation must not be the solution for that would mean inflicting material harm on a single group of people for no apparent reason.<sup>3</sup>

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1. U.A.R., op.cit., p.27.

2. Ibid., pp.28-29.

3. Ibid., pp.5-11.



SIXTH AIMESTABLISHMENT OF A SOUND DEMOCRATIC SYSTEM

The traditional political parties, and the 1923 Constitution were suspended, as it has been mentioned above. The "Liberation Rally" was established to mobilise the whole popular activity. A provisional constitution was issued to cover the three year transitional period. These measures were necessary to establish a sound democratic system.<sup>1</sup>

On 16 January 1956 a new Constitution was promulgated to provide a national assembly, a cabinet of ministers and a president. Establishment of the National Union was stipulated according to the provisions of the Constitution. The National Union has controlled the general elections of July 1957.<sup>2</sup>

The new Constitution of 1956 recognised the women's right to be accepted as candidates and electors. This measure reflected the new trend towards a full share for women in the political life of the country.<sup>3</sup>

The formation of the National Union was stipulated in accordance with Article 192 of the 1956 Constitution, as follows: "A national union will be established by the people to work for the realisation of the aims of the Revolution and to muster all efforts for the sound building of the nation in the political, social and economic fields."<sup>4</sup>

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1. T. Little, op.cit., p.204.

2. Ibid., p.308; see also J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.273.

3. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959, pp.68-69. (In Arabic).

4. Ibid., pp.109-110.

The National Union is a link between the people and the administration at village, city, province levels and the country as a whole. It is a measure to set up local public participation in government and to decentralise particular administrative procedures, thus providing the National Union "a commanding position at all levels of politics and administration".<sup>1</sup>

To pursue the path of erecting a sound political democratic life, as has been seen before (See p.254 above) "political parties have been banned in Egypt since early in 1953, ... the only officially approved political organizations since the July 1952 Revolution have been the Liberation Rally (Hay'at al-tahrir), succeeded c.1957 by the National Union (Ittihad al-qawmi)".<sup>2</sup>

#### THE NATIONAL CHARTER AND THE ARAB SOCIALIST UNION

In November 1961, President Gamal Abdel Nasser declared the beginning of a new stage of the Egyptian democratic task. A special committee was constituted in order to define the popular forces in the nation. On 19 December 1961, the committee recommended the summoning of the National Congress of Popular Powers comprising about 1,500 members, divided as follows: 25 per cent peasants, 20 per cent workers, 15 per cent professional syndicates, 10 per cent national

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1. M. Berger, op.cit., pp.95-96.

2. Thomas Hodgkin, African Political Parties (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1961), p.208.

capitalists, 9 per cent university staff, 7 per cent for each of civil servants, students and women per each category.<sup>1</sup>

The elections were held in February 1962 for candidates of this Congress. Members of Congress debated a draft 'National Charter' presented by the president of the Republic. On the basis of the Charter a new election provided for a General Congress of the National Union, to be the supreme popular authority.<sup>2</sup>

The National Charter comprises ten themes, dealing with the fundamentals of the national construction, organisation and aspiration. The ten themes of the Charter are as follows: I. General view; II. The necessity of the revolution; III. The roots of Egyptian struggle; IV. The moral of the setback; V. True Democracy; VI. On the inevitability of the socialist solution; VII. Production and society; VIII. The socialist application and its problems; IX. Arab unity; X. Foreign policy.<sup>3</sup>

According to the Charter women had complete independence and had a full contribution to the society. "Woman must be regarded as equal to man and must, therefore, shed the remaining shackles that impede her free movement so that she might take a constructive and profound part in shaping life."<sup>4</sup>

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1. The Scribe Periodical, December 1961 - January 1962, pp.4-10.

2. R. Segal, op.cit., p.342.

3. U.A.R., The Charter (Cairo: Information Department, 1962).

4. Ibid., p.72.

At the present time women occupy 250,000 governmental posts. There are, also, 561 doctors, 1,500 midwives, 5,980 nurses, 414 scientists, 232 agricultural experts, 19 engineers, 168 universities' staffs. This is in addition to approximately 20,000 factory workers and thousands of female teachers.<sup>1</sup>

The women's sector was represented by two candidates in the first National Assembly of 1957, and made 7 per cent of the National Congress of Popular Powers. Moreover, a lady professor was appointed as a Minister of social affairs in 1962.<sup>2</sup>

#### MAJOR FEATURES OF CONTEMPORARY ARAB IDEOLOGY

Arab ideology as a system of ideas affecting individual and social living is founded on concepts of:

(1) Arab Nationalism. (2) Neutralism and Afro-Asian solidarity. (3) Socialism. (4) Democracy.

##### I. ARAB NATIONALISM

Arab nationalism is not a new conception introduced in the twentieth century. It is a capital fact deep-rooted in the entity of the Arab nation, since the emergence of Islam. Arab nationalism passed through two different stages: First, the birth of Islam and the constitution of the Arab

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1. The Scribe Periodical, October-November, 1960, pp.74-79.  
2. The Scribe Periodical, September-October, 1962, pp.75-77.

Islamic States which were profoundly large influential in the development of Arab Nationalism. Secondly, today it has become a political, economic and social construction, so it has evolved into an idea different, to a great extent, from the first stage conception, when it was incorporated with Islam.

The fundamentals of any nationalism are a common language, homeland, history, interests, culture and destiny. Race and religion alone do not constitute a nationality, though both are considered among the factors that strengthen one. Applied to the Arab nationalism this well-established theory holds its own as all the factors it enumerates are essential bases for nationalism.

The common language prevailing "from Morocco through Iraq" is Arabic. Arabic is a semitic language. "The Mediterranean race is indigenous and the principle element in the Middle East."<sup>1</sup> So there is profound homogeneity concerning language and race not only in the Arab Middle East, but also, in the Maghrib the Arab west, i.e. Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco. Thus the assertion of Arab nationalism relies not only on the basis of language but is ethnically based as well.

The homeland of the Arabs covers a vast area stretching from the Atlantic Ocean on the west to the Arab Gulf on the

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1. Carleton Coon, Caravan The Story of the Middle East (London: Jonathan Cape, 1952), p.156.

east. With an unbroken coast line and land communications through the entire Arab world it is one single geographical entity. The Arab homeland comprises approximately 5 million square miles, with total population of some 85 millions.<sup>1</sup>

Language becomes one of the most paramount elements since it unifies thinking customs and traditions and becomes a medium of erecting new ties, propagating ideas and promoting other means of assimilation. Common history is considered as a strong base of the entity Arab nationalism. Since the emergence of Islam the entire Arab world has faced approximately the same episodes of history, this process continues up till the present era. The invaders of this area, composing the Arab world, in the past, as well as in the imperialistic period, considered the whole area as one region.<sup>2</sup>

The cummulation of the mentioned above factors express itself in a common pattern of traditions, customs, conceptions, values, way of life, thinking, aspirations, in other terms it has contributed a common culture.

The modern phase of Arab nationalism started nearly one hundred years ago with the 'Arab Awakening' assimilated among a particular category of intellectuals. Slowly but constantly, the conception and implementation were developed.<sup>3</sup>

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1. E.B.Childers, op.cit., p.11.

2. For a full discussion in this subject see Bernard Lewis, The Arabs in History (London: Grey Arrow Books, 1958).

3. George H. Gardner, "The Arab Middle East: Some Background Interpretations", The Journal of Social Issues, 1959, Vol.XV, No.3, p.27.

In March 1945,<sup>1</sup> the Arab League was established as a means of consolidating the Arab efforts towards a unified implication and work on the way towards the prospected unity. Cairo is the centre of this league.<sup>2</sup>

Nevertheless, the League failed to achieve full solidarity among Arab nations, owing to divisions inside this organisation.<sup>3</sup> Arab unity suffered from its adversaries and some reactionary leaders. Thus an issue raised on the horizon of Arab unity, which is the more important, unity of purpose or unity of alignment? In the light of the contemporary Arab history, it is obvious that unity of aim is more vital than unity of alignment.

The following passage quoted from a speech delivered by President of the U.A.R. in the U.N. General Assembly in September 1960, will demonstrate the conception of Arab Nationalism:

"We declare that we believe in one Arab nation which has always maintained a unity of language, which is the unity of thought; and a unity of history, which is the unity of conscience."<sup>4</sup>

## II. NEUTRALISM AND AFRO-ASIAN SOLIDARITY

The second major ideology adopted by the U.A.R. is neutralism. Since 1950 the Egyptian Government has sought to secure neutrality between the two hostile blocs. By 1954 Egypt and many Arab states fostered neutrality as integral

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1. T. Little, op.cit., p.176.

2. J. and S. Lacouture, op.cit., p.231.

3. T. Little, op.cit., p.257.

4. U.A.R., The Pocket Book, 1962.

item of nationalist thinking.<sup>1</sup>

Egypt attended the Bandung Conference in Indonesia, held between 18-24 April 1955.<sup>2</sup> It comprised 28 Afro-Asian states.<sup>3</sup>

President Nasser "Played an important part in developing the concept of dynamic neutralism expounded there."<sup>4</sup> The most important decision was the adoption of positive neutralism and non-alignment doctrines as the outstanding framework of the foreign policy. Thus "Arab Nationalism translated its aim of emancipation from Britain and France to neutralism."<sup>5</sup>

#### INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

The conception of non-alignment and peaceful co-existence is also agreed by the national deeds in the field of international affairs. In this concern the U.A.R. (Egypt) has participated in many international conferences, to serve the peace issue, foster non-alignment, promote positive neutralism, develop peaceful co-existence and mitigate the bloc tension.<sup>6</sup>

#### III. SOCIALISM

Extensive discussion has been made of this issue because of its underlying importance in respect of education.

1. T. Little, op.cit., p.258.
2. U.A.R., The Yearbook, 1959, pp.66-67. (In Arabic).
3. Florence Elliott and Michael Summerskill, A Dictionary of Politics (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1961), pp.9-10.
4. R. Segal, op.cit., p.335.
5. T. Little, op.cit., p.264.
6. U.A.R., Ten Years, op.cit., pp.15-16.



Now some attention must be given to the U.A.R. ideology concerning internal facets of the country. The pattern of a socialist, democratic, cooperative society was introduced to build up the new U.A.R. community.<sup>1</sup>

To illustrate the integration between Arab Nationalism and this pattern of society, it is interesting to quote part of a speech delivered by President Nasser which will throw light upon the whole issue.

"Arab nationalism is a deep-seated constructive idea, a progressive and changing idea. It represents the social revolution as well as a political revolution. We want to achieve a socialist, democratic, cooperative society. We shall transform this social revolution into material fact. We shall work in the future to prove to the whole world that Arab nationalism is a constructive movement, a social as well as a political revolution. The time has come for Arab nationalism to prove that it has a progressive creed." 2

In modern times the Arabs found themselves concerned with the selection of an appropriate ideology to serve the interests of their community. The process of selection was hard and crucial. "Secular nationalism, secular social democracy, liberal Islam, fundamentalist Islam, communism",<sup>3</sup> were offered as patterns or grounds to erect the new society. Ultimately, it was decided to sustain a society erected upon the grounds of socialist, democratic, co-operative ideology.

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1. M. Berger, op.cit., p.362.
  2. Quoted from a speech delivered by President Nasser at Port Said on 23 December 1959. See the text in Al-Gomhuriyah Daily Newspaper (Cairo), 24 December 1959, p.5. (In Arabic).
  3. A.Hourani, "Arabic Culture", Perspective of the Arab World, N.Y., International Publications, 1956, p.11.

President Gamal Abdel Nasser in his speech at the Cooperatives Conference, held in Cairo on 5 December 1957, interpreted this point clearly as follows: "We do not import our principles from abroad; we rather derive them from our society, circumstances and moral qualities .... We make the system which is suitable to our requirements, we do not copy any other nation."<sup>1</sup>

Socialism for example may be rendered to its deep rooted creed in Islam.<sup>2</sup> Democracy, also, is an outstanding precept of the faith. Finally, co-operation may be considered the medium of achieving the two ends.

According to the Charter of May 1962, the socialism was deliberately interpreted and means of implementation were suggested. The socialist procedure is promulgated to resolve the society's problems. In the Charter terms:

"The socialist solution to the problem of economic and social underdevelopment in Egypt - with a view to achieving progress in a revolutionary way - was never a question of free choice. The socialist solution was a historical inevitability imposed by reality, the broad aspirations of the masses and the changing nature of the world in the world in the second part of the 20th century." 3

#### IV. DEMOCRACY

Democracy is one of the outstanding principles of Islam. Individuals are all equal, respect for the human

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1. See Al-Gomhuriyah Daily Newspaper (Cairo), December 1957, (In Arabic).
  2. M. Berger, op.cit., pp.362-363.
  3. U.A.R., The Charter (Cairo: Information Department, 1962), p.49.

individual which is expressed by the Prophet in the following words: "The white man is not above the black above the yellow; all men are equal before their maker". Thus relation between the Creator and the man is direct, "Islam has no church, no priests, no sacrament ... ." <sup>1</sup>

In the economic field, a democratic opinion was formulated by Islam. It respects all sorts of human labour: Islamic law ... holds in great esteem agriculture, commerce and every kind of work ... requires every man to keep himself by the produce of his own labour, and does not despise any sort of work whereby man may make himself independent of others ... . Considering its spirit, therefore, we see that the tendency of Islamic law is to allow human action the widest limits, and we may agree with the Muslim jurists, when they teach that the fundamental rule of law is liberty." <sup>2</sup>

In the administration realm, the Prophet Mohammad had laid down the foundations of Islamic rule which were based upon democratic and consultative aspects. <sup>3</sup>

Human exploitation is completely eradicated by Islam. Moreover, human behaviour is to be within the right framework of life. Consequently, usury was strictly abrogated.

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1. Sir Thomas Arnold and Guillaume (editors), *The Legacy of Islam* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1933), See, David De Santillana, "Law and Society", pp.286-287.
  2. *Ibid.*, p.289.
  3. Ahmad Shalaby, *Al-Mogtama' Al-Islami* "The Islamic Society" (Cairo: Al-Mahda Al-Misriyah, 1958), p.81 et seq. (In Arabic).

Restriction of the individual's property is also to be limited. Taxes are levied on: commodities, land, income, in order to attain an equilibrium between the haves and the have nots, thereby achieving a degree of social justice among all citizens. Equality of people before the law is also among the fundamental Islamic precepts. Democratic values have manifested in the method of election of the people to the Prophet's successors.<sup>1</sup>

It is apparent that democratic feelings and values are deeply rooted in the Arabs. Some writers uphold this trend in the following sentences:

"The average Arab is in his own way an inborn democrat. The old form of Arab tradition, as well as the early Islamic tradition, is imbued with the ideals of equality among the members of the tribes or among Muslims, and matters are in the main decided not by individual autocratic methods but in council." 2

Nowadays, the same conception of democracy is cherished in the U.A.R. It is well illustrated within the framework of the people's socio-cultural attainment. The purpose of the people in this period of the historical evolution, is directed to the construction of a society based on the grounds of democracy, socialism and cooperation. The implication of democracy through the contemporary Egyptian society is illustrated by a passage of the National Charter which contributes to the interpretation and

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1. A.F.Radwan, op.cit., pp.51-53.

2. R.D.Matthews and M. Akrawi, op.cit., p.534.

demonstration of the implementation of the objectives. Under the fifth theme or chapter of the Charter which is entitled 'True Democracy'<sup>1</sup> the following quotation is cited:

"Democracy means the assertion of sovereignty of the people, the placing of all authority in their hands and the consecration of all powers to serve their ends.

"Similarly, socialism is the true sign of the progressive nature of a revolution.

"Socialism means the setting up a society on a basis of sufficiency and justice, of work and equal opportunity for all, and of production and services.

"Seen in the light, both democracy and socialism appear as one and the same extension of the revolutionary act.

"Democracy is political freedom while socialism is social freedom. The two cannot be separated since they are both indispensable to true freedom. They are, so to speak, its two wings without both of which it cannot soar to the horizons of the awaited tomorrow." 2

### CONCLUSION

To terminate this chapter it is sufficient to draw attention to the fact that the U.A.R. is part of three realms connected with each other strongly and vitally. These realms are the Arab Nation, the Continent of Africa and the Moslem World. Strong ties unite the nation with these sectors.<sup>3</sup>

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1. U.A.R., The Charter, May 1962. (Cairo: Information Department, 1962). See Chapter V., pp.35-48.
  2. Ibid., p.36.
  3. Gamal Abdel Nasser, The Philosophy of the Revolution (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1958), pp.49-70.

CHAPTER EIGHTSECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE 1952 REVOLUTION ERAImplications of Cultural Changes to the System of Education.

As has been pointed out in the preceding chapter, an outstanding feature in the field of cultural change is the accelerated rate of change that is taking place in the U.A.R. Changes are taking place in the ideas of the common people that reflect political, social, economic and cultural changes, before they receive considered attention in the school system. In other words, changing attitudes are reflected in public behaviour before they come incorporated into the formal educational process. This is generally true but there are exceptions to this rule. Where a political leader is in advance of public opinion in his thinking, he may occasionally impose changes in school system ahead of public opinion. The degree to which such development succeeds depends on the co-operation of the educationists.

It is accepted that education has an important part to play in the preparation of the youth to undertake their full share in the construction of their nation. The main issues to be examined in respect of this role of education are: (1) The system of education as an important agent of change, (2) The democratisation of education, (3) Education as a means of increasing national productivity, (4) Education as a means of social cohesion and (5) The new structure of

the system in the new social order.

1. The System of Education as an Important Agent of Change.

Education is not working in a vacuum, it is operating in a society which has its ideologies, values and experiences. Hence, the educational procedures should work in collaboration with the ideas and aspirations of the society in which it exists. Thus the educational process is fundamentally concerned with preparing the youth to live successfully under the particular circumstances and conditions of the society to which they belong.

For the objectives of the society to be translated into actual performance or behaviour the tools of change must be embodied within the framework of the curriculum. Planning for the foundation of a democratic, socialist and cooperative society has been attained. The implementation of what has already been designed or planned is the substantial role of the school.

Education for social change should take into consideration both the cultural and technical aspects. The school participates in the economic life of the society, as education is an important factor equal to capital and labour in the productive process. Malinowski, in this respect says: "Realism is safer than wishful thinking and the school must face squarely the end of the road on which it is leading the child and not impart hopes and illusions which are bound to be shattered. A sound society must be based on

the even distribution of occupational groups - manual, skilled and professional."<sup>1</sup>

## 2. Democratisation of Education.

The new conception of society embodied in the Revolution of 1952, namely the democratisation of education was implemented by the passing and application of the Primary Education Act or Law No.210 of 1953, which has stipulated a compulsory, free and unified primary education for all children between six and twelve years of age.<sup>2</sup>

In order to meet the urgent needs of education in an endeavour to implement the intentions of the Revolution in 1952 a Ten Year Plan, an organisation called 'The Schools Premises Foundation' was vested with the task of building 400 new schools each year.<sup>3</sup> At the present time all types of education from the primary upwards are providing free education. A glance at the educational budgetary illustrates the increasing allocations provisioned per annum. Table LV

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1. B. Malinowski, "The Pan-African Problem of Culture Contact" in the American Journal of Sociology, vol.XLIX, 1943, pp.651-652.
  2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.60. See also Abu Al-Futouh Radwan (editor), Al-Ta'lim Al-Ibtia'i, "Primary Education" (Cairo: Saad Misr Press, 1956), Part One, Chapter II, "Problem of Primary Education and the State's Policy towards it." By Abdel-Aziz El-Koussy, pp.15-22. (In Arabic).
  3. Ibid., p.18. See also The Middle East, 1961, Eighth Edition (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1961) p.406. See also Azmy Nawar, "A Brief Survey of Education in Post-Revolutionary Egypt" in Civilisations, Quarterly Periodical, International Institute of Differing Civilizations, 1957, vol.VII, No.1., pp.94-95.



demonstrates the budget of the State, the Ministry of Education budget and universities.

TABLE LV<sup>1</sup>

THE BUDGET OF THE STATE, THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION  
AND UNIVERSITIES FROM 1952-53 up to 1960-61

Year	Budget of the State	Budget of the Ministry of Education	%age	Budget of the Universities
1952-53	206,000,000 <sup>2</sup>	25,217,700 <sup>3</sup>	12.2	
1953-54	197,516,000	26,434,900	13.1	3,518,000
1954-55	227,785,000	28,731,100	12.4	3,701,000
1955-56	238,300,000	33,353,700	13.7	6,579,318
1956-57	280,500,000	36,173,000	12.0	6,163,502
1957-58	281,770,000	38,550,000	13.6	7,837,566
1958-59	357,615,000	39,326,000	11.0	7,224,900
1959-60	318,270,000	41,423,000	13.3	8,640,000
1960-61	370,088,000	57,881,026		13,214,000

It is obvious from the above Table that the budget of the Ministry of Education has approximately doubled through nearly a decade of time. It is also clear that the educational prospects for the children of the nation are good. No obstacles concerning parents' income or social position will handicap them from attending schools and

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, Comparative Statistics of Education 1953-1960. (Cairo: S.O.P. Press, 1961), Table 2, p.14.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Trabiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat "Education in Eight Years" 1952-1960, (Cairo: Ministry of Education Press, 1960), p.215. (In Arabic).
  3. Ibid., p.211.

pursuing the most adequate pattern of careers according to their own potentialities, tendencies, abilities and aptitudes.

### 3. Education as a Means of Increasing National Productivity.

As has been seen in Chapters One and Six, the U.A.R. economic problems can be solved partly by redistributing land and establishing cooperative farms. Industrialisation is considered the fundamental or radical solution to the nation's economic issues. To attain this end every effort should be exerted to develop other natural resources.

All projects planned or implemented in this domain are the consequences and means of increasing national productivity. It is of prime importance that education should play its required role in this respect. For without men and women capable of developing the requisite skills and social development will not be attained.

Concerning the education implications or functions it is well argued by John Vaizey who says:

"Education is usually given three initial roles. One is to supply skilled manpower and technicians without whom physical capital would be wasted. The second is to generate 'a climate for growth' by giving the masses a capacity for thinking beyond their immediate needs and troubles. The third is to teach the cultivators simple and elementary rural skills which will yield a small surplus over subsistence consumption and which can be the basis for physical accumulation." 1

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1. John Vaizey, *The Economics of Education* (London: Faber and Faber, 1962), p.127.

Interpretation of the present and the future agricultural and industrial development and its impact on education, the past low standard of living was a reflection of the failure to exploit the natural, and of neglecting the human resources. Thus, in order to secure adequate standards of living for all, the natural resources must be fully exploited, to accomplish this the fullest use must be made of the human potential, this depends upon a satisfactory education programme. Skilled workers are the backbone of industrialisation processes at operation today. Thus educational system should be envisaged as a part of a general economic programme of promoting the standard of living of the people.

Great attention should be laid upon technical education as the main road of economic growth. A new orientation of education in respect of manual work, will be necessary to modify the great attraction of 'white collar' occupations as opposed to manual skills. The emphasis upon education as a means of producing recruits for government employment which has been a characteristic feature of the traditional system has been commented upon in the following words. "The schools as they stand have outlived their function of producing government officials. The bureaucracy of the administrative machinery is already loaded."<sup>1</sup>

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1. Hamed Ammar, Growing Up in an Egyptian Village (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954), p.224.

The preparatory and secondary schools are now in charge of providing young people with the required skills in the various domains of vocations and practice. Attention has been given to technical faculties at the universities to contribute to this change in emphasis, and an Industrial Institute for Teachers to train highly qualified persons to meet the teaching needs of the new technical schools was established.

The curriculum of general education gives particular attention to practical aspects of knowledge. "Education in the preparatory and secondary schools too has put much emphasis on practical activities. Pupils in many schools organize themselves into societies for handicrafts and industrial work."<sup>1</sup>

In the light of the needs and requirements of the society, the State is concerned with definite and pragmatic projects which should be evaluated, designed and implemented.<sup>2</sup> Virtually this opinion is critical in its significance, and it is necessary from the educational point of view to assess the methods of upholding this trend.

#### 4. Education as a Means of Social Cohesion.

Education can also be an effective and decisive

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1. Moh. Khairy Harby and Moh. El-Hadi Affifi, Education in Modern Egypt (Cairo: Documentation Centre for Education, 1958), p.33.
2. Frank MacKinnon, The Politics of Education (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1962), p.136.

medium of social cohesion. This issue may be evaluated by discussing the forces at work in the contemporary society. According to the democratic and socialistic traditions of the present it is clear that all forces are combined to minimise the barriers between social classes, or rather to eradicate these limits.

The educational implications of this theme may be interpreted in the light of the intended pattern of society in which the barriers would be melted absolutely. True efforts have been exerted to bring this about. School fees were completely abolished throughout the whole educational ladder. Thus a full educational opportunity irrespective of any economical or social obstacles is now provided for all.

Implementation of the Socialist Laws of 1961 and the corresponding social measures had achieved a remarkable success in this domain. This legislation is the cornerstone in the erection of a socially integrated nation. In sociological terms there are now no social classes in the traditional sense of the conception, but there is potentially a common social status. Education as it is now available to all is the melting-pot for refining the old relics of class distinction. Schools are now attended by pupils who come from various creeds and breeds. As a result of constant contact among them a social cohesion will be attained. Hence education is providing the stimulus and fostering the objective of social integrity.

5. The New Structure of the Education System in the Light of the New Social Order.

In July 1952 Egypt embarked on the Revolution which has changed the character of the society and education for all related to economic potential has been recognised as a major factor of change. In the light of the six aims of the 1952 Revolution and its implementation to constitute a new society, it was obvious that a new system of education was demanded. The development of the education had led to the investigation by a group of experts representing various schools of educational thought of the system and its adjustment was based on reports presented in the Ministry of Education taking into consideration all research work executed in the domain of education prior to 1952.<sup>1</sup>

The basis of the adjustment of the education system to the new concept of the society lies in the two Laws promulgated in 1953.<sup>2</sup> The new aims, values, attitudes and aspirations were established particularly through these Laws. Chart I provides a picture of the educational ladder which is in operation now as a result of the implementation of the educational legislation of 1953.

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1. Azmy Nawar, "A Brief Survey of Education in Post-Revolutionary Egypt", in Civilisations, Quarterly Periodical, issued by International Institute of Differing Civilizations, 1957, vol.VII, No.1, p.94.
  2. UNESCO., World Survey of Education, vol.I, Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), p.220.

THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE U.A.R.

Chart I illustrates the two educational ladders in the U.A.R.: (1) secular or modern ladder and (2) religious ladder. Each one has its own organisation and entity, hence providing two channels which lead to alternative possibilities of careers. The secular or modern ladder is the development to which we now turn our attention.

I. The Primary School Stage: comprises a six-year course, it is free, compulsory and, in general, co-educational. At the termination of primary schooling pupils submit themselves to a local public examination held by the Educational Zone.<sup>1</sup>

II. The Preparatory School Stage: covers a three-year course:

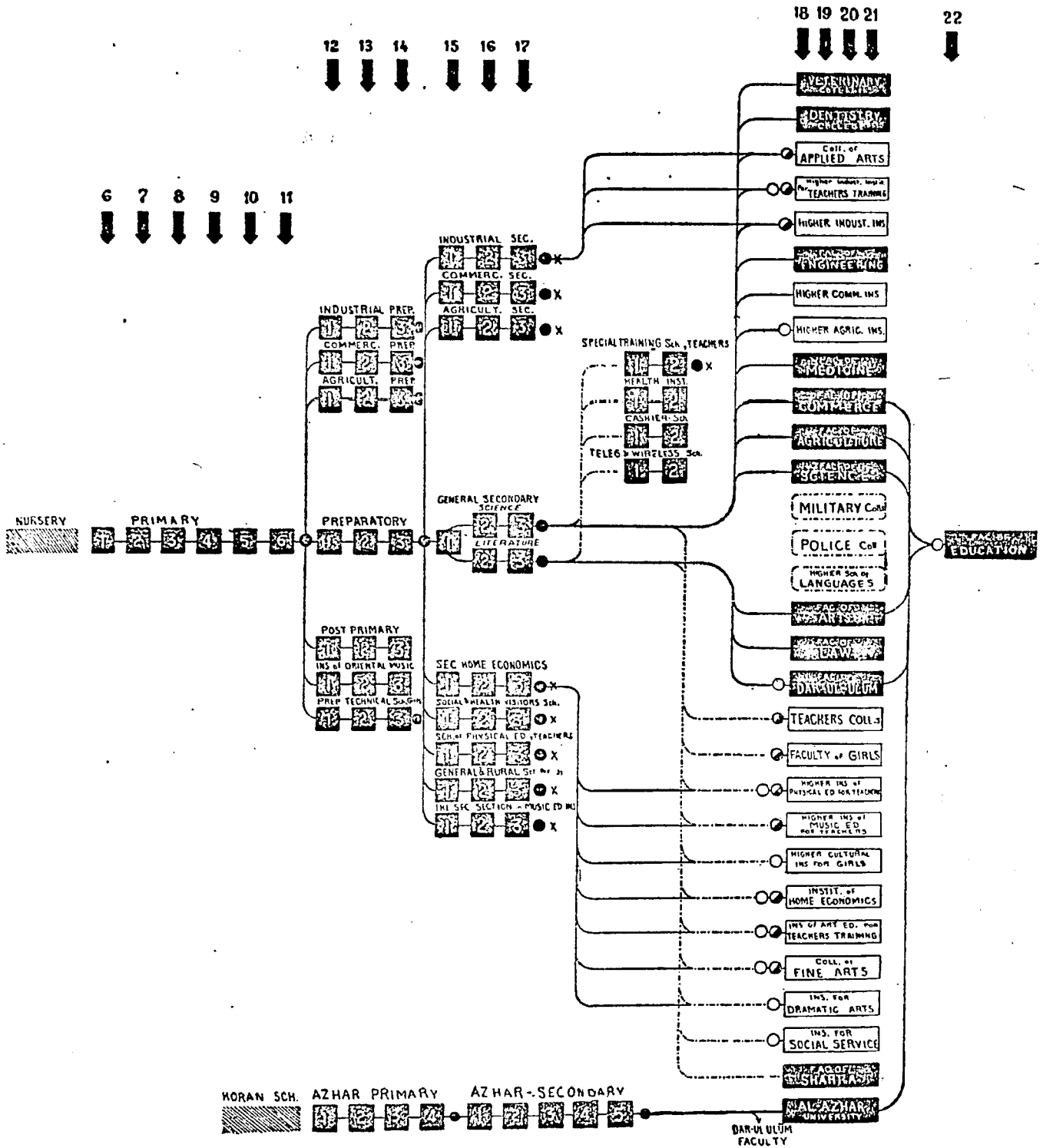
- (1) General Preparatory Schools.
- (2) Industrial Preparatory Schools.
- (3) Commercial Preparatory Schools.
- (4) Agricultural Preparatory Schools.

In addition to the above mentioned schools, there are also three types of schools recruiting from the primary school leavers, as follows: the Post-Primary Schools, the Institutes of Oriental Music, and lastly the Preparatory Technical Schools for Girls.

III. The Secondary School Stage: provides a three-year course divided into the following types:

THE EDUCATION LADDER  
IN  
THE UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

1958-1959



- interview
- ⊙ entrance exam
- ⊘ public exam.
- X success with distinction provides for faculties and higher institutes.

CHART I



- (1) General Secondary Schools.
- (2) Industrial Secondary Schools.
- (3) Commercial Secondary Schools.
- (4) Agricultural Secondary Schools.
- (5) Technical Secondary Schools for Domestic Sciences.

According to particular requirements, these schools recruit their pupils from among preparatory education leavers. There are other schools which also draw upon the products of the preparatory school graduates: (a) the Secondary Home Economics Schools, (b) the Social and Health Visitors Schools, (c) the Schools of Physical Education for Teachers, (d) the General and Rural Schools for Teachers, and finally (e) the Secondary Section in Music Institutes.<sup>2</sup>

IV. Higher Education introduced in the universities and higher institutes which recruit from among the secondary schools leavers. There are four universities in the U.A.R., providing various Faculties for higher education. There are also numerous higher institutes.

The immediate attention of this study will be concentrated on the preparatory and secondary levels of the education system. It is necessary to throw light on the principles of the educational ladder.

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1. UNESCO., World Survey of Education, vol.II, Primary Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1958), pp.335-342.
  2. UNESCO, World Survey of Education, vol.III, Secondary Education (Paris: UNESCO, 1961), p.1147.

The Philosophy Behind the New System of Education in all its Stages.<sup>1</sup>

Egypt considers education to be the basis of growth and the means of ensuring progress. The educational system therefore aims at

1. Developing an enlightened citizen who believes in his right for a free and decent life and who is aware of his obligations towards the society.
2. Raising the standard of living through education.
3. Ensuring social justice.
4. Setting up a sound basis for democratic life.
5. Promoting a spirit of co-operation for the welfare of the individual and the society.
6. Ensuring collective and individual security.
7. Ensuring the principles of equality.
8. Inculcating a firm belief in Egypt and Arabism.
9. Ensuring the right man for the right job and thus adopting different methods of selection for school orientation and vocational guidance.
10. Following up the individual after school and university by a developed system of adult education and public libraries represented by the People's University and its active branches throughout the country.

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1. Azmy Nawar, "A Brief Survey of Education in Post-Revolutionary Egypt", pp.98-99.

APPLIED CONCEPTION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THIS THEME

Post-primary and pre-higher education could be theoretically considered as an integrated level. Nevertheless this stage is divided into two stages, so educational laws provide for each stage to be developed independently.

Children enter the primary school at approximately six years of age and complete its course around twelve years of age. In consequence the preparatory and secondary stages are completed at approximately the age of eighteen years. The consequence of this educational system is that all children between the ages of 12 and 18 years have equal opportunity having due regard to the physical, mental and psychological variations of the individual. The current organisation of the education system at the preparatory and secondary levels provides the possibilities for the youth to be educated with due regard to their potentialities and the needs of the society.

Law No. 211 of 1953.

In order to organise the post-primary level of education to meet the needs of the individual in relation to the agreed objectives of the society, the Secondary Education Act, Law No.211 of 1953, was promulgated to achieve this end. Consequently, the previous Law No.142 of 1951 was abrogated. The new Law is composed of 52 articles. It stipulates that secondary education will consist of two stages: (1) preparatory

and (2) secondary (Article 1); and that the duration of studies in the preparatory stage will comprise four years (Article 2).<sup>1</sup>

Under the Act the secondary stage will provide the following types: (1) General Secondary Education; (2) Feminist Secondary Education; (3) Industrial Secondary Education; (4) Agricultural Secondary Education; (5) Commercial Secondary Education. (Article 19).

#### GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

In accordance with Article 20 of the above Law, the duration of schooling will be three years, the required provisions for admission will be as follows: (i) seventeen years as a maximum age for admission, (ii) obtaining the General Preparatory Education Certificate, (iii) priority of acceptance for the higher total marks of the applicants. (Article 21).<sup>2</sup>

#### TECHNICAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

The feminist, industrial, agricultural and commercial education will be organised in accordance with a Ministerial Decree (Article 41). Secondary education will be free within both stages, preparatory and secondary, supplementary fees which may be required from the pupils not to be more than

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1. Sati Al-Husary, Hawliyat Al-Thaqafah Al-Arabiyyah "Yearbook of Arab Culture", Fourth Year (Cairo: Lagnat Al-Talif Wa Al-Targamah Wa Al-Nashr, 1954), pp.218-219. (In Arabic).
  2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fourth Year, p.224.

£.E.3 per each pupil annually, will be fixed by the Minister of Education. Exemption from the supplementary fees will also be announced by a Ministerial Decree (Article 42).<sup>1</sup>

#### DEFINITION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

##### A. Preparatory Education.

The basic objective of the preparatory stage is to provide the pupils with opportunities for development in scholastic, practical and social realms. It is also to facilitate and stimulate the discovering of the pupils' aptitudes, potentialities and abilities, in order to orientate each pupil to the adequate type of secondary education suitable for him. Preparatory stage is also intended to contribute to the development of appreciation of the pupils sense of the national culture prior to their admission to various types of secondary schools. Thus it is intended to acquire a sound general culture before secondary studies are begun which required a sort of specialisation. Foreign language studies are provided at this stage. The pupils' acquirement of language knowledge at this stage provides competence for educational achievement at later stages, and provides a basis for international understanding. The attainment of the General Preparatory Education Certificate, which is granted to successful candidates on completion of the four-year preparatory course, is the

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fourth Year, p.230.

principal requirement for admission to the different types of secondary education.<sup>1</sup>

#### B. Secondary Education

In the Explanatory Memorandum it is stated that the main objective of the secondary stage of education is contributing an opportunity to the pupils in order to acquire broad fields of general culture, and to produce an equilibrium in attainment in the development of the individual so that he will fit satisfactorily into public life, and fit those with the necessary potentialities for the university and higher education to be able to do so. The content of the first year is common to all pupils. After the first year as has already been pointed out, the facilities provided allow for pupils to pursue either a literary or a science course.

An important provision of the Education Acts of 1953, is that the Primary Education Certificate and the Secondary Education Certificate (General Course) were both abolished. Thus pupils will be required to satisfy the requirements of only two general examinations throughout educational process. Thereby the burden on the pupils is reduced from four public examinations in six years to two, and the Primary Education Certificate is replaced by a local examination held at the termination of primary schooling.<sup>2</sup>

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1. See the text of the Explanatory Memorandum on Law No.211 of 1953, in S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fourth Year, pp.231-232.  
2. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fourth Year, pp.232-233.

SOCIAL FACTORS AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

The implementation of the Education Act No.211 of 1953, ensured free and public secondary education for all. A tremendous increase in the number of pupils for admission to the secondary schools ensured. This created a number of problems discussed briefly below.

First - Differentiation of the new pupils enrolled in secondary schools who came from different social and economic backgrounds required a curriculum to prepare them for future life.

Secondly - The number of pupils unable to gain admission to the universities, or other institutions of higher education made it necessary to increase the facilities for technical training.

Thirdly - The emphasis upon political independence put a premium on physical fitness to ensure that a sufficient body of persons could undertake the defence of the country<sup>and that</sup> put a premium upon physical education as a part of the total educational process.

Fourthly - The new socio-political objectives of education laid new emphasis upon preparation for admission to higher education, and upon education for citizenship in the new nation. Syllabuses were reorganised in accordance with these objectives. In order to attain the educational objectives new emphasis was placed upon the training of a

well-qualified teacher capable of implementing these objectives.

Secondary Education Conference, 1955.

Many educational committees were held to investigate the new requirements. The outstanding effort in this domain was contributed by the 'Secondary Education Conference' held in Cairo between 20-27 June, 1955, which was organised by the Ministry of Education, in collaboration with the American University at Cairo.

The Report of the General Policy Committee which emanated from the 'Conference' had pointed out the objective of secondary education in the following words: "The sole objective of secondary education, up till the few past years, was to produce government employees, who were submissive to the alien exploited elements. When the Egyptians started to be in charge of education planning, In the last twenty years many attempts were exerted to reform the situation. But the fingers of exploiters continued to play behind the scenes. Thus government post was the ultimate and exalted objective of education. Many of the university graduates secured occupations which were far away from their actual field of specialisation. After the success of the present Revolution which was launched to abolish the retrospective relics in the country, it was of supreme importance then to design for a new educational policy related to secondary education, which should keep pace with the new constructive



features. Hence it is substantial to prepare capable youth to build modern Egypt on solid foundations. To attain the foregoing aspects the 'Committee' will discriminate and define the objectives of secondary education."<sup>1</sup>

The conclusions of the Conference in respect of the future objectives of secondary education were:

1. Secondary education is a link in the educational ladder, consequently it should participate the general educational objectives with other educational levels and maintain them. In other terms it ought to provide the pupil with the opportunity for development related to his aptitudes and abilities in order to reach the maximum growth in this respect. In addition, it should help him to respond with his community and society.

2. Secondary education usually attended by a group of individuals in a particular stage of their growth. Thus it is necessary to provide a satisfactory environment for them. The pupils at this stage are on the threshold of adolescence, and are on the road to live independent lives, thus requiring special education and guidance leading to understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship.

3. Secondary education should prepare the individual to become a citizen who believes in freedom, and convinced of

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1. American University at Cairo, Mutamar Al-Ta'lim Al-Thanawi "Secondary Education Conference", Cairo, June 1955 (Cairo: Lagnat Al-Talif wa Al-Targamah wa Al-Nashr, 1955), p.28. (In Arabic).

the value of a true democratic spirit in work and in thinking can successfully lead or follow alike, and participate or co-operate, being sensitive to the needs and requirements of the society, appreciating his responsibility as a citizen.

4. One of the most important objectives of secondary education is to foster the national spirit among the pupils and also to acquaint them with current events, the pursuit of the nation's development and the need for the enhancement of the status of the nation, whilst developing love towards humanity as a whole, and cherishing the objective of ensuring understanding, security and peace between all men.

5. In addition to carrying out the task appropriate to the school within its walls, its activities should embrace the community in which it operates. It should be a centre of the locality or community in the expansion of culture and knowledge, and in the maintenance of social and health services.

6. The secondary school should make all possible efforts to foster the relationship between pupils and society and sustain loyalty not only through school life but also after graduating. It is also desirable that the school should provide guidance and orientation to the solving of the individual problems of the pupils and build strong attachments between the pupils and their school.

7. In preparing the pupil for life as an individual and as a member of the community the school must lay the

foundations of appreciation of a balanced, healthy, socially adjusted aesthetic and emotional outlook.

8. Preparing for admission to the universities and higher institutes is also one of the fundamental functions of the secondary school. It is necessary to ensure that the different abilities and aptitudes of the individual are allowed satisfactory growth. Furthermore, planning for expansion of secondary education should take into consideration the manpower needs of the country as well as the aptitudes of the pupils in relation to the university.

9. For those pupils whose aptitudes and abilities do not promise success at the tertiary level of education the secondary school should provide facilities which will fit them to take a positive career in public life as good citizens.

10. Secondary education should give great attention towards religious, ethnical and spiritual education. To develop personal consciousness, and to foster the respected ideals. It is also necessary to contribute considerable attention to athletic education, to create a well-built individual who will be able to defend himself and his country.<sup>1</sup>

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1. A.U.C., op.cit., pp.28-30.

## CHAPTER NINE

### IMPACT OF NEW TRENDS ON SECONDARY EDUCATION

It is unanimously agreed by educationists in the U.A.R. that six years duration of primary education is the minimum period for preparing enlightened citizens, who can earn their living in the society. Meanwhile the post-primary education in accordance with the recommendations of the Committee of General Education Policy,<sup>1</sup> should be provided at two levels, preparatory and secondary to ensure the relating of the education process to the physical and mental maturity of the pupils at the appropriate age levels. The 'Committee' also recommended the similar syllabus provisions for both sexes, with such differentiation as is required to meet differing interests.

#### I. DIVERSIFICATION OF THE PREPARATORY EDUCATION

##### 1. General Preparatory Stage.

The preparatory school level is laid down by the provisions of Law No.211 of 1953, which stipulates four-year duration for this type of education. As a result of the promulgation of Law No. 55 of 1957 consequent upon the Conference recommendations, already referred to, the lower general secondary education (preparatory education),<sup>2</sup> three-year course was intended to serve as an independent link

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1. A.U.C., op.cit., pp.30-31.

2. UNESCO., Education in Egypt, Education Abstracts, October 1957, vol.IX, No.8, p.9.

between primary and secondary education the fundamental objective of the preparatory stage is to discover the talents and abilities of the pupils in order to develop them, and hence to direct each pupil to the adequate type of secondary education. As an intermediate level it also aims at providing its pupils with the required skills in manual, artistic and intellectual fields. On the other hand, as an independent stage, it aims at preparing enlightened citizens, aware of their rights and duties in order to participate in the society as good members. To secure this end the syllabuses were designed to provide spiritual, moral, athletic, intellectual and physical education. In addition, the national language and culture were considered as chief means of developing the growth of good feelings and soundness of judgment.<sup>1</sup>

Great attention is given to provide a competent social climate for realisation of these ends,<sup>2</sup> and introducing a democratic foundation for the society. Table LVI illustrates the subjects allocated to the general preparatory stage.

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1. American University of Beirut, Al-Tarbiyah fi Al-Marhalah Al-Thanawiyah fi Al-Aqtar Al-Arabiyyah "Secondary Education in the Arab Countries" (Beirut: American University of Beirut, 1957), p.166. (In Arabic).
  2. Ministry of Education, Mashru' Ahdaf Al-Ta'lim Li Marahil Al-Ta'lim Al-Mokhtalifah "Project for Objectives of Education for Different Educational Levels" (Cairo: Central Ministry of Education, 1959), pp.8-12. (In Arabic). [Stencil].

TABLE LVI<sup>1</sup>PLAN OF STUDIES FOR THE GENERAL PREPARATORY STAGE, 1961

Subject	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	2	2	2
Arabic language, including handwriting	7	7	7
Foreign language	6	6	6
Mathematic, including arithmetic, algebra and geometry	5	5	5
Social subjects including history, geography and civics	4	4	4
General science and hygiene	4	4	4
Drawing	2	2	2
Practical subjects, including handicrafts, agricultural education (for boys) or needlework and housekeeping (for girls).	3	3	3
Songs and music	1	1	1
Physical education	2	2	2
Total	36	36	36

II. Technical Preparatory Stage.1. Industrial Preparatory Education.

The promulgation of Law No.22 of 1956<sup>2</sup> aimed at organising industrial education in two stages: (a) preparatory

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Preparatory Stage Syllabuses (Cairo: Société Orientale de Publicité, 1961), p.7.
  2. Sati Al-Husary, Mawliyat Al-Thaqafah Al-Arabiyyah "Yearbook of Arab Culture" Fifth Year (Cairo: Lagnat Al-Talif Wa Al-Targamah Wa Al-Nashr, 1957), pp.423-424. (In Arabic).

and (b) secondary. The objective of industrial preparatory stage is to provide the pupils with a reasonable degree of industrial knowledge and manual skill in order to help them to undertake production processes in industrial enterprises with adequate efficiency.

The pupil starts specialisation in the first year of schooling in one particular industry. This procedure is implemented to gain lucrative results in a competent acquaintance with one industry. This procedure is simultaneously implemented by learning a group of related industries all through the course with different proportions of the periods assigned to each, ending in allocating 80 per cent to one industry and 20 per cent to a supplementary industry. Those who obtain 75 per cent of the total marks in the Industrial Preparatory Education Certificate can attend the industrial secondary school, on condition that they should pass an entrance examination provided by the latter.<sup>1</sup> The subjects provided are: (1) Cultural subjects such as: religion, Arabic language, history, geography, civics, one foreign language, science, accountancy, arithmetic and geometry. (2) Technical subjects: drafting and technology.<sup>2</sup> Table LVII sets out the plan of study allocated to this type of schools.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fifth Year, p.429.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Education in the United Arab Republic (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1962), p.8.

TABLE LVII<sup>1</sup>

PLAN OF STUDY FOR INDUSTRIAL PREPARATORY SCHOOLS FOR BOYS,  
1961.

Subjects	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious Education	1	1	1
Arabic language	3	3	2
Foreign language	2	2	2
History and geography	2	2	-
Civics	-	-	2
General science and hygiene	3	2	-
Commercial procedures and Labour Laws	-	-	2
Arithmetic, geometry and algebra	2	1	-
Engineering and industrial drawing	6	4	4
Industrial arithmetic	-	2	2
Principles of industry	3	3	3
Workshop*	18	20	22
Physical education	2	2	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>42</b>

\* When available two lesson-periods per week in workshop practice are also provided throughout the year.

2. Commercial Preparatory Education.

This type of education is organised in accordance

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qararat Hai'at Al-Takh'tit "Collection of Orders of the Planning Authority" (August 1959-March 1961) (Cairo: Dar Al-Hana, 1961), p.207. (In Arabic).



with provisions of Law No.261 of 1956. This Law was promulgated in order to organise both stages of commercial education. The objective of the commercial preparatory education is to provide its pupils with subjects which enable them either to attend the commercial secondary school or to obtain posts in the small commercial enterprises or in firms in the field of salesmanship and accounting.<sup>1</sup>

The subjects for this type of education are: (1) Cultural subjects: religion, Arabic language, a foreign language, Arabic and European calligraphy, geography, history and physical education. (2) Technical subjects: Book-keeping, accountancy, salesmanship and typewriting. Table LVIII illustrates the allocated subjects to this type of education.

Since the promulgation of Law requiring the keeping of accounts books for all commercial houses possessing a capital of £.E.100 as a minimum, this legislation has created a demand for graduates with commercial qualifications and the consequent increase in enrolment for the commercial preparatory schools.<sup>2</sup>

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1. Education in the United Arab Republic, p.9.
  2. Conference on Technical and Vocational Education for the Arab States, 1957. Member States Reports/1, Egypt - Report on Commercial Education, p.10. (In Arabic).

TABLE LVIII<sup>1</sup>PLAN OF STUDIES FOR COMMERCIAL PREPARATORY SCHOOLS, 1961

Subjects	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	2	2	2
Arabic language and calligraphy	8	8	8
Foreign language and calligraphy	4	4	4
Geography	3	2	-
History and civics	3	2	-
General science and hygiene	4	-	-
Commercial arithmetic	3	3	3
Book-keeping	-	3	3
Commercial office	4	4	4
Salesmanship and cashiering	-	2	4
Arabic Typewriter	3	4	6
Physical education	2	2	2
House-keeping and needlework	4	4	4
Total	40	40	40

3. Agricultural Preparatory Education

The agricultural education Law No.262 of 1956 was issued with the objective of providing agricultural preparatory education to prepare the pupils in the methods of modern agriculture. The aim of the school is to meet the society's need for a cadre of skilled agricultural labourers.<sup>2</sup>

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qararat ..., op.cit., p.188.  
 2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.80.

The subjects provided in this category of education are: religion, Arabic, horticulture, stock breeding, agricultural manufactures, general knowledge, rural society, agriculture and sericulture.

Twenty-five per cent of the total schedule is assigned to theoretical subjects and 75 per cent is devoted to practical training. The latter embraces all the activities undertaken by the pupil in fields, gardens, laboratories, cattle and poultry pens, apiaries, workshops and the like. Table LIX demonstrates the subjects provided in this type of education and the distribution throughout the three-year duration.

TABLE LIX<sup>1</sup>

PLAN OF STUDY OF AGRICULTURAL PREPARATORY SCHOOLS, 1961.

Subjects	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	2	2	2
Arabic language	3	3	3
Social subjects (history, geography, civics and rural community)	2	2	-
Mathematics (arithmetic and geometry)	2	2	-
General science and hygiene	2	2	-
Agriculture	2	2	2
Horticulture	2	2	2
Animal production	1	1	2
Food industries (dairy)	2	2	2
Plants protecting, bees and silk-worm breeding	-	-	2
Cooperation and agricultural book-keeping	-	-	2
Rural engineering and survey	-	-	2
Physical education	2	2	2
Practical and vocational training	20	20	20
Total	40	40	40

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qararat ..., op.cit., p.198.

#### 4. Multi-Purpose Preparatory Education.

In the scholastic year 1958-1959 two multi-purpose preparatory schools were established. This type of education provides a multi-technical course, encompassing industrial and agricultural training in one institution.<sup>1</sup> This type of schooling was intended to be co-educational, but since 1960-1961 enrolment is confined to boys only.

Courses of studies in agricultural and industrial courses are similar to those of the proper agricultural and industrial schools to a great extent. Meanwhile girls' studies embrace: (1) domestic science, (2) needlework, (3) farming, (4) nursing, (5) fine art (pottery and toys), and (6) secretarial work and typing.<sup>2</sup>

#### 5. Technical Preparatory Education for Girls.

This type of education was introduced in the scholastic year 1957-1958. Its objectives are to provide girls who have ended their primary schooling with an adequate proportion of culture, theoretical and practical in order to develop their aptitudes and abilities satisfactorily. This type of schools may be considered as a substitute for the school of embroidery arts which was abolished in August 1957.<sup>3</sup>

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1. Mohammad Khayri Harbi and Zeinab Mahmoud Mehrez, Al-Morshed fi Nuzum Al-Ta'lim bi Al-Iqlim Al-Misri "Guide for Systems of Education in the Egyptian Region" (Cairo: Madkour and Sons Press, 1959) pp.39-41. (In Arabic).
  2. Ibid., pp.45-46.
  3. M.K.Harby and Z.M.Mehrez, Education for Women in the United Arab Republic (Cairo: General Organization for Government Printing Offices, 1961), p.5.

There are commercial preparatory schools, technical preparatory and domestic preparatory schools parallel to the technical preparatory schools for boys but appropriately different from these. Courses of studies in the two kinds are: Cultural subjects (as in general preparatory schools); general technical subjects and special technical subjects. Much emphasis is laid on teaching domestic subjects in these schools. The technical preparatory studies for girls are divided into different sections as follows:

(1) Home economics and domestic science. (2) Salesmanship and cashiering. (3) A section for laboratory skills. (4) A section for knitting and carpet-making. (5) Electronic-work. (6) Metalwork (mechanical). (7) Metalwork (decorative). (8) Agriculture-work. (9) Drawing on leather. (10) Decoration.<sup>1</sup>

Table LX sets out the subjects provided in the technical preparatory schools for girls.

In 1960-1961, 10 schools were in operation with 91 classes accommodating 2,355 girls, with 224 teachers. The corresponding number for 1957-1958 were as follows: 4 schools comprising 14 classes, enrolment figure was 498, the staff number was 27.<sup>2</sup>

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1. M.K.Harby and Z.M. Mehrez, op.cit., p.13.

2. Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.43.

TABLE LX<sup>1</sup>

PLAN OF STUDY, TECHNICAL PREPARATORY SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS,  
1961

	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	1	1	1
Arabic language	3	3	2
Foreign language	2	2	2
History and geography	2	2	-
Civics	-	-	2
General science and hygiene	3	2	-
Commercial procedures and labour laws	-	-	2
Arithmetic, geometry and algebra	2	1	-
Practical and vocational special subjects*	24	26	28
Physical education	1	1	1
Music	1	1	1
Feminist subjects*	3	3	3
Total	42	42	42

\* Where facilities are available one additional practical period a week in each subject is included.

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qara'rat ...,  
op.cit., p.203.

TABLE LXI<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF GOVERNMENT GENERAL PREPARATORY  
EDUCATION FROM 1953-54 TO 1961-62.

Schol- astic Year	Sch- ools	Ad- join- ed Sec.	Classes	Pupils			Teachers
				Male	Female	Total	
1953-54	258	410	5,632	162,458	45,591	208,049	7,275
1954-55	396	260	6,074	165,860	48,773	214,633	9,522
1955-56	482	103	6,214	155,741	51,238	206,979	10,769
1956-57	470	79	6,276	155,864	55,702	211,566	10,876
1957-58	458	80	6,125	135,530	52,455	187,985	10,828
1958-59	463	65	5,690	116,033	47,606	163,639	10,946
1959-60	476	70	5,290	113,964	48,134	162,098	10,237
1960-61	493	85	4,678	108,440	46,224	154,664	9,287
1961-62	511	84	5,088	126,385	53,984	180,369	9,415 <sup>2</sup>

From Table LXI it is apparent that the number of pupils attending general preparatory schools underwent decreased 27,380. This decrease may be reflects the new trend of giving priority to technical education.

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, Comparative Statistics of Education 1953-1960 (Cairo: S.O.P. Press, 1961), p.25.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, A Guide for Educational Statistics 1961-1962 (Cairo: S.O.P. Press, 1962), p.10.

TABLE LXII<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF TECHNICAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION  
[INDUSTRIAL, MULTI-PURPOSE, COMMERCIAL, AGRICULTURAL AND  
TECHNICAL PREPARATORY FOR GIRLS],  
FROM 1952-53 TO 1961-62

Schol- astic Year	Scho- ols & Adjoined Section	Classes	Pupils			Teachers
			Male	Female	Total	
1952-53	42	180	2,663	74	2,737	
1953-54	41	148	3,133	127	3,260	383
1954-55	45	196	4,156	148	4,304	448
1955-56	52	298	7,778	440	8,218	564
1956-57	61	461	11,580	1,345	12,925	644
1957-58	93	773	18,719	4,099	22,818	1,147
1958-59	125	1,041	23,325	6,428	29,753	1,860
1959-60	124	1,221	26,439	7,561	34,000	2,162
1960-61	136	1,418	31,446	7,887	39,333	2,872 <sup>2</sup>
1961-62	137	1,529	33,880	8,188	42,068	3,300 <sup>3</sup>

It is clear from Table LXII that enrolment for technical education is growing and is a direct response to the manpower needs of the expanding economic conditions.

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat, "Education in Eight Years", 1952-1960 (Cairo: Ministry of Education Press, 1960), p.46.
2. See Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.44.
3. See, A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1960-1961, p.12.



## II. DIVERSIFICATION OF THE SECONDARY EDUCATION

### 1. General Secondary Education.

Academic or general secondary education is organised in accordance with the provisions of Law No.211 of 1953. A three-year course is provided. The first year is a general-culture year, in the remaining two years pupils specialise either in literary or scientific subjects. The general secondary school is the main avenue for entry into higher education. Table LXIII illustrates the plan for this type of schooling.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fourth Year, pp.247-248.

TABLE LXIII<sup>1</sup>

PLAN OF STUDY, FOR GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, U.A.R.,  
1961-1962

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year		3rd Year	
		Lit-erary	Scien-tific	Lit-erary	Scien-tific
Religious education	2	2	2	2	2
Arabic language	7	7	7	7	7
First foreign language and translation*	6	7	6	6	5
Second foreign language	-	5	-	5	-
The Arab society	1	1	1	1	1
History	2	3	-	3	-
Geography and geology	2	3	-	4	-
Philosophy, sociology and economics	-	2	-	3	-
Social culture	-	-	1	-	-
Mathematics	4	-	7	-	8
Physics	2	-	3	-	4
Chemistry	2	-	3	-	3
Natural history	2	-	3	-	3
Art education	1	1	-	-	-
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2
Military training	2	2	2	2	2
Practical studies*	1	1	1	1	1
Total	36	36	36	36	36

\* One lesson-period should be added to First foreign language and practical studies, where facilities are available.

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, The Syllabuses of the General Secondary School 1961-1962 (Cairo: General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, 1962), p.3. See also Magmu'at Qararat ..., p.59.

To satisfy the need for developing the maximum talents of the pupils a Gifted Children School has been founded. The top five general preparatory school pupils from each education zone throughout the U.A.R. are enrolled as boarders and are exempt from all fee charges.

In 1955-1956 certain schools in Cairo, Giza and Alexandria were organised to provide special facilities for the teaching of modern European languages, German, Italian, in addition to the traditional French and English to furnish secondary school pupils with new concepts of international understanding. Since then the experiment has been extended to schools in Mansura, Tanta, Suez and Port Said.<sup>1</sup>

## 2. Industrial Secondary Education.

The industrial secondary schools prepare specialised workmen for industrial work.<sup>2</sup> The length of industrial secondary school syllabus is three years. It accepts the General Preparatory Education Certificate holders. Passing successfully a group of vocational aptitudes tests prepared by the school is a prerequisite for admission. It also admits the Industrial Preparatory Education Certificate holders, provided that they (i) obtained 75 per cent of the total marks in the written subjects test, (ii) passed successfully a special entrance examination prepared by the school. Maximum age for admission is 17 years. In addition

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1. M.K. Harby and E.M.El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.71.

2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Education in the United Arab Republic, p.12.

a medical examination must be passed. Seventy per cent of the places allocated to the general preparatory education applicants, and 30 per cent to the industrial preparatory education leavers. Priority is given to the youngest applicants other things being equal. (Article 16).<sup>1</sup>

According to the provisions of the Industrial Education Act, Law No.22 of 1956, the Diploma of Industrial Schools is to be conferred to successful pupils on completion of general examination for this type of education (Article 22).<sup>2</sup> Both stages of industrial education are free, but pupils are required to pay a small supplementary fee of £.E.3 per annum to cover cost of breakage in the laboratory and the workshops. The exemption from these tuition will be stipulated by a Ministerial decree (Article 29).<sup>3</sup>

In August 1957, a Conference on Industrial Education was held to investigate the conditions of this type of education and to make recommendations. The Conference suggested priority of geographical locality studies in advance of establishing any sort of industrial training, attaching the industrial schools to large factories to ensure a competent degree of theoretical and practical training, and emphasised the importance of preparing the teachers for industrial education.

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1. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fifth Year, p.429.

2. Ibid., p.430. See also, UNESCO, World Survey of Education, vol.III, p.1153.

3. S. Al-Husary, op.cit., Fifth Year, p.432.

In order to discover his interests and tendencies in the first year the pupil has to study six branches of work provided at school. In the second year he can specialise in the branch of industry he desires. This procedure was found to be wasteful, so in October 1957, a modification of the system was made requiring the study of the related studies needed by the pupil in his final specialisation. It is probable that this procedure was the outcome of the foregoing Conference proposals.<sup>1</sup> Table LXIV reveals the plan of studies allocated for the industrial secondary schools.

TABLE LXIV<sup>2</sup>

PLAN OF STUDY, FOR INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, U.A.R., 1961

Subjects	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	1	1	-
Arabic language	2	2	-
Foreign language	2	2	-
Social subjects	2	-	-
Science	2	2	-
Hygiene	1	-	-
Commercial procedures and labour laws	-	2	-
Pure mathematics	4	2	2
Engineering and industrial drawing	4	4	6
Estimate	-	2	2
Mechanics and decoration	-	2	2
Principles of industry	4	4	6
Workshop	10	19	24
Military training	2	2	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>44</b>

1. M.K. Harby and E.M.El-Azzawi, op.cit., pp.77-78.

2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qararat ..., p.210.

### 3. Commercial Secondary Education.

This type of education provides its pupils with knowledge and practice to undertake various occupations in the commercial and financial sectors of the life. It prepares the pupils for secretarial and office work. There are girls' commercial secondary schools in operation. Directing pupils to various studies is based upon interviews results.<sup>1</sup> It is organised in accordance with terms of Law No.261 of 1956.

A glance at the weekly time-table which appears in Table LXV gives a clear picture of the subjects provided throughout the three-year course. The Arabic language is the medium of teaching for technical subjects, but there are two sections in Cairo where subjects are taught in English in one and through the medium of French in the other.<sup>2</sup> In accordance with the implementation of the Five-Year Plan, the number of pupils attending this type of education is gradually increasing.<sup>3</sup>

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Education in the United Arab Republic, p.14.
  2. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.79.
  3. Conference on Technical and Vocational Education in the Arab States, 1957. Member States Reports -1, Egypt, Report on Commercial Education, p.15. (In Arabic).

TABLE LXV<sup>1</sup>

## PLAN OF STUDY FOR COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, U.A.R., 1961.

Subjects	Periods per Week		
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Religious education	2	2	2
Arabic language	5	5	5
First foreign language and translation	6	6	5
Second foreign language	4	4	4
Economic history	2	-	-
Economic geography	2	2	-
Arab society	2	-	-
Accounting and book-keeping	3	3	4
Financial and commercial mathematic	3	3	3
Secretarial and commercial office (in Arabic)	3	2	2
Correspondence (in first foreign language)	-	-	2
General knowledge in economic, commercial and labour laws, and social insurance	-	2	3
Arabic typewriting	3	3	3
European typewriting	-	2	2
Optional technical subject	-	1	-
Physical education	1	1	1
Military training	2	2	2
Total	38	38	38

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Magmu'at Qararat ..., p.192.

#### 4. Agricultural Secondary Education.

This type of education aims at furnishing its pupils with theoretical and practical knowledge to become skilled workers on farms and rural guidance,<sup>1</sup> and to prepare teachers for agricultural teaching. It is organised by Law No.262 of 1956.<sup>2</sup>

Table LXVI provides details of subjects dealt within the three-year course of the agricultural secondary schools. Seventy-five per cent of the total weekly lesson-periods is allocated to practical training in farms, pens, apiaries, gardens and workshops, and 25 per cent to theoretical studies.<sup>3</sup>

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Education in the United Arab Republic, p.13.
  2. Ibid., p.viii.
  3. M.K. Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, op.cit., p.82.



TABLE LXVI<sup>1</sup>

## PLAN OF STUDY FOR AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, U.A.R., 1961.

T = Theoretical

P = Practical

Subjects	Periods per Week					
	1st Year		2nd Year		3rd Year	
	T	P	T	P	T	P
Religious education	2		2		2	
Arabic language	3		3		2	
Foreign language	3		2		2	
Social subjects (economics, geography, economic history and Arab society).	2		2		-	
Agriculture	2		2		2	
Horticulture	2		2		2	
Biology (plants, animals, and insects)	2	2	1	2		
Physics and agricultural chemistry	2	2	1	2		
Animal production (poultry and cattle breeding and veterinary medicine)			2		2	
Food industries	-		-		2	
Dairy	-		-		2	
Protection of plants	-		-		2	
Agricultural engineering (agricultural drawing survey and workshop)	1		2			
Bees and silkworms breeding	-		-		1	
Economics of agriculture (Economics, co-operation, administration and accountancy)	-		1		1	
Hygiene	1		-		-	
Military training		2		2		2
Practical and vocational studies		14		14		18
Total	40		40		40	

In the third year a considerable proportion of the practical lesson-periods should be directed towards fields of activities which have not been acquired in the first and second years.

##### 5. Technical Secondary Schools for Domestic Sciences.

This type of schooling is solely confined to girls' education. It is parallel to general and commercial secondary schools for girls. It aims at furnishing girls with competent subjects to prepare them in order to organise their homes appropriately. It also prepares them for admission to a Higher Technical Institute.<sup>1</sup>

A three-year course is provided throughout this type of schools. Education is free. Holding the Preparatory Education Certificate, and passing a special entrance examination are the fundamental provisions for admission.<sup>2</sup>

To terminate this chapter it is necessary to give some statistics which will throw light on the educational growth in the present time. Table LXVII provides a clear picture of the Budget of the Ministry of Education and secondary education allocations.

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1. See M.K. Harby and Z.M. Mehrez, *Al-Morshed fi Nuzum Al-Ta'lim ...*, pp.81-82.

2. M.K.Harby and Z.M. Mehrez, *Education for Women ...*, p.13.  
See also M.K.Harby and E.M. El-Azzawi, *op.cit.*, pp.82-83.

TABLE LXVII<sup>1</sup>

BUDGET OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, AND SECONDARY EDUCATION  
ALLOCATIONS

Year	Budget of the Ministry of Education	Secondary Education Allocations	Percentage
1952-53	25,217,700	4,043,412 <sup>2</sup>	-
1953-54	26,434,900	6,945,000	26.3
1954-55	28,731,100	8,311,700	28.9
1955-56	23,352,700	6,571,000	28.1
1956-57	36,137,000	4,000,000	11.1
1957-58	38,500,000	3,647,000	9.5
1958-59	41,423,000	3,881,439 <sup>3</sup>	-

Examination of the figures provided in the above Table show that there was an apparent decline in the budgetary provision for secondary education from 1955-56 onwards. This was in fact due to the new educational policy which made separate provision for the preparatory education; and for the technical and vocational instruction at the secondary level.

Table LXVIII provides the figures of preparatory education budgetary allocations. Prior to 1955-56 separate budget provision was not made for preparatory education. It

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Ashr Sanawat "Education in Ten Years" From 1954-1955 to 1964-1965 (Cairo: Al-Istiqlal Press, 1960), p.26, p.33.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim, fi Thamani Sanawat, p.216.
  3. Ibid., p.216.

will be clear from Table LXVIII that a gradual and steady increase regarding this type of education has occurred.

TABLE LXVIII<sup>1</sup>

BUDGET OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND PREPARATORY EDUCATION  
ALLOWANCES

Year	Budget of the Ministry of Education	Preparatory Education Allowances	Percentage
1952-53	25,217,700	-	-
1953-54	26,434,900	-	-
1954-55	28,731,100	-	-
1955-56	33,352,700	4,733,716	14.2
1956-57	36,173,000	4,840,894	13.3
1957-58	38,500,000	5,025,204	13.1
1958-59	41,423,000	5,279,345 <sup>2</sup>	13.1

Regarding technical education, Table LXIX illustrates the statistics of its allocations from the Ministry of Education budgetary allowances.

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Ashr Sanawat, p.26.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat, p.216.

TABLE LXIX

BUDGET OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION  
ALLOCATIONS

Year	Budget of the Ministry of Education	Technical Education Allocations	Percentage
1952-53	25,217,700	1,304,438 <sup>2</sup>	
1953-54	26,434,900	1,294,467	4.9
1954-55	28,731,100	1,399,858	4.9
1955-56	33,352,700	1,568,720	6.7
1956-57	36,173,000	1,748,302	5.0
1957-58	38,500,000	2,204,485	6.0
1958-59	41,423,000	3,496,669 <sup>3</sup>	

In accordance with the expansion of technical education, preparatory and secondary, the allocations show a gradual increase. This is the logical consequence of the increased demand for trained individuals in the field of industry, commerce and agriculture all over the U.A.R.

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1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Ashr Sanawat, p.58.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fo Thamani Sanawat, p.216.
  3. Ibid., p.216.

TABLE LXX<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF GOVERNMENT GENERAL SECONDARY  
EDUCATION FROM 1953-54 UP TO 1961-62

Schol- astic Year	Sch- ools	Ad- joined Sec.	Classes	Pupils			Teachers
				Male	Female	Total	
1952-53	138	160	3,963	123,713	22,867	146,580	6,523 <sup>2</sup>
1953-54	120	74	2,209	64,922	11,253	76,175	5,804
1954-55	130	76	2,702	75,362	14,652	90,014	5,820
1955-56	139	73	2,903	74,092	15,110	89,202	6,630
1956-57	147	56	2,948	75,341	16,105	91,446	6,628
1957-58	145	58	2,938	73,626	16,373	89,999	6,684
1958-59	146	65	2,994	77,790	18,048	95,838	7,110
1959-60	150	67	2,983	79,246	20,439	99,685	7,095
1960-61	155	89	3,219	24,935	24,935	108,024	7,732
1961-62	156	100	3,230	24,972	24,972	102,737	7,917 <sup>3</sup>

Table LXX shows the enrolment figures for general secondary education witnessed a decrease throughout the decade under examination amounting to nearly 43,843. This may be due to two factors: expansion of technical secondary education, and restriction of admission to general secondary schools to the advanced pupils. The sharp drop in 1953-54 was due to the emergence of preparatory education as an independent level.

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1. Comparative Statistics of Education 1953-1960, p.31.
  2. Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat, 1952-1960, p.33.
  3. A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1961-1962, p.11.

TABLE LXXI<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION  
FROM 1952-53 TO 1961-62

Scholastic Year	Schools	Adjoined Section	Classes	Pupils	Teachers
1952-53	29	-	432	11,141	-
1953-54	29	-	326	9,007	1,342
1954-55	28	-	237	6,846	932
1955-56	28	-	200	7,192	1,203
1956-57	24	3	273	9,719	923
1957-58	24	2	370	11,594	1,068
1958-59	25	3	433	13,735	1,238
1959-60	25	19	479	15,722	1,386
1960-61	25	25	624	19,968	1,768 <sup>2</sup>
1961-62	26	24	745	22,626	3,032 <sup>3</sup>

Examination of Table LXXI shows a doubling of enrolment in response to industrial expansion by the educational authorities to meet the new needs.

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1. Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat, 1952-1960, p.55.
  2. Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.45.
  3. A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1960-1961, p.13.

TABLE LXXII<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION  
FROM 1952-53 TO 1961-1962

Schol- astic Year	Sch- ools	Ad- joined Sec.	Classes	Pupils			Teachers
				Male	Female	Total	
1952-53	60	-	329	8,332	1,031	9,363	
1953-54	20	-	183	3,886	495	4,381	569
1954-55	20	-	199	3,965	546	4,511	557
1955-56	25	-	300	6,612	819	7,431	605
1956-57	28	3	412	9,372	1,391	10,763	744
1957-58	31	3	592	14,630	2,256	16,886	1,158
1958-59	33	46	761	18,753	3,744	22,497	1,458
1959-60	37	49	957	22,958	5,172	28,130	1,691
1960-61	44	52	1,203	28,270	7,956	36,226	2,208 <sup>2</sup>
1961-62	48	62	1,339	29,733	10,042	39,775	2,457 <sup>3</sup>

Table LXXII illustrates a tremendous increase in the number attending commercial secondary schools. During the decade 1952-53/1961-62 fourfold increase occurred. Thus it is the most outstanding increase in all types of technical secondary education. This also reflects the new policy adopted by the educational authorities, and the new opportunities of work available to the school leavers with commercial qualifications.

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1. Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thmanai Sanawat, 1952-1960, p.62.
  2. Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.48.
  3. A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1960-1961, p.13.



TABLE LXXIII<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION  
FROM 1952-53 TO 1961-62

Scholastic Year	Schools	Adjoined Section	Classes	Pupils	Teachers
1952-53	12	-	167	4,855	-
1953-54	12	-	97	2,302	362
1954-55	12	-	99	2,669	352
1955-56	12	-	143	3,738	311
1956-57	12	-	175	4,370	305
1957-58	14	-	213	6,119	458
1958-59	15	3	247	7,443	584
1959-60	16	5	287	9,001	632
1960-61	19	2	337	10,533	763 <sup>2</sup>
1961-62	20	1	357	11,049	795 <sup>3</sup>

It is clear from Table LXXIII that agricultural secondary education has also shown an increase of approximately three-fold during a decade of time under examination and is related to the agricultural expansion and the increased demand for skilled workers.

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1. Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi 'Thmanai Sanawat, 1952-1960, p.67.
  2. Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.47.
  3. A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1960-1961, p.13.

TABLE LXXIV<sup>1</sup>

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF DOMESTIC SECONDARY EDUCATION  
BETWEEN 1952-53 AND 1961-62

Scholastic Year	Schools	Adjoined Section	Classes	Pupils	Teachers
1952-53	32	-	338	7,989	-
1953-54	25	6	157	3,148	208
1954-55	20	8	148	3,616	634
1955-56	22	11	176	4,112	638
1956-57	20	11	184	4,586	590
1957-58	18	12	216	5,636	635
1958-59	16	14	230	6,237	673
1959-60	14	17	260	7,326	724
1960-61	14	27	293	8,363	803 <sup>2</sup>
1961-62	14	28	296	7,278	892 <sup>3</sup>

From Table LXXIV it is apparent that this type of education underwent a sharp decline on the enrolment figure in 1953-54. Afterwards it began to increase gradually and steadily. Nevertheless, in 1961-62 approximately 700 girl pupils is under the number of the 1952-53.

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1. Al-Tarbiyah Wa Al-Ta'lim fi Thamani Sanawat, 1952-1960, p.37.
  2. Comparative Statistics of Education, 1953-1960, p.49.
  3. A Guide for Educational Statistics, 1960-1961, p.11.

CHAPTER TEN

SOME PROBLEMS AND TRENDS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. SCHOOL AGE POPULATION AND SCHOOL ENROLMENT

According to the 1953 bulletin issued by the Egyptian Bureau of Statistics, on population statistics by age groups in a period which encompassed four decades from 1917 up to 1947, estimates were made of the population of school-age children for 1957. Table LXXV illustrates the statistics of population trends.

TABLE LXXV<sup>1</sup>

POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS FROM 1917 UP TO 1957

Year	Age Groups (Thousands of People)							
	-1	1-5	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30
1917	185	1,569	1,754	1,802	1,400*	1,181*	920*	1,979
					(2,581)			
1927	493	1,538	2,031	1,859	1,580	1,295	1,100*	2,326
1937	490	1,618	2,108	2,209	1,909	1,346	1,300	2,414
1947	508	2,077	2,585	2,400	2,214	1,901	1,800	2,856
1957*	500*	2,500*	3,000*	2,500*	2,500*	2,200*	2,000*	3,700*

\* Estimated from population trends: 1917-1947

The correlation between population age and school enrolment is illustrated by Table LXXVI in terms of school enrolment and population by age groups.

1. Egyptian-American Joint Committee for Education, A Brief Summary of Education in Egypt at Mid-Century. (Cairo, May 1956), p.9. (Stencil).

TABLE LXXVI<sup>1</sup>SCHOOL ENROLMENT AND POPULATION BY AGE GROUP

Year	Popula- tion* 1957	In School 1956	Percentage of Age Groups - School			Percentage of Population Levels of Education
			Total	Male	Female	
5-10	2,500,000	1,436,899	57.48	26.11	21.37	Primary : 58
10-15	2,500,000	745,224	29.81	32.31	6.50	Preparatory : 30
15-20	2,200,000	195,270	8.88	7.44	1.44	} Secondary : 10
20-25	2,000,000	25,670	1.28	1.07	.21	
		68,128	3.41	2.93	.48	University : 3½
Total	9,200,000	2,471,191	26.86	17.91	8.95	All Educ. : 27

\* Estimated from population trends: 1917-1957.

From the above Table it is obvious that nearly 58 per cent of the children of primary school age are enrolled in school in a sex ratio of 12 boys to 10 girls. Approximately 30 per cent of preparatory school age children are enrolled in a sex ratio of 36 boys to 10 girls. About 10 per cent of secondary school age group are attending secondary schools or teachers' institutes in a sex ratio of 52 boys to 10 girls. The universities are enrolling about 3.5 per cent of the 20-25 year group in sex ratio of 61 males to 10 females. In the composite of all groups ranging in age from 5 to 25 years, approximately 26 per cent are enrolled in school in sex ratio of 20 males to 10 females.

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1. Ibid., p.9.

## II. A STUDY FOR THE EGYPTIAN EDUCATIONAL LADDER.

### General Survey.

The present provision of education in the U.A.R., despite the recent plans for relating it to the social, economic and political needs leaves much to be desired.

1. Approximately 25 per cent of the children in the age of 6-12 are at present without opportunities of schooling; plans for meeting this need within ten years have been desired.

2. Nearly 70 per cent of the primary school leavers have no opportunity for post-primary education due to past policy of considering each level of education as independent in itself and admission being controlled solely by examination grading and aptitude tests.

3. In the past parents assumed that the sole object of schooling admission for their children to general preparatory and secondary education was to provide automatic admission to university education.<sup>1</sup>

4. The general despisement of manual activity by educated people has resulted in inadequate enrolment in technical and thereby inhibited the supply of skilled persons for industry, commerce and agriculture.

### Post-Primary Education

The ratio of preparatory and secondary schools' population to the primary total schools population is

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1. UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol.III, p.1148.

approximately 16 per cent. This is a reasonable proportion as a whole. On the other hand the proportion of enrolment for technical education is about 3.9 per cent. Thus, it is essential to direct attention and interest towards technical education if the development of the country is to be accelerated.

Approximately 30 per cent of the primary schools leavers enrol in the post-primary level (general, technical and teachers' training schools). Meanwhile about 70 per cent do not pursue any education on completion of the primary level. The proportions of enrolment at the various levels are summarised in the following Table.

TABLE LXXVII<sup>1</sup>

RATIO OF ALL EDUCATIONAL LEVELS TO THE PRIMARY EDUCATION

Level	Enrolment Figure	Per Cent Age
Primary Education	2,505,263	
General Education (Preparatory and Secondary)	391,650	15.6
Technical Education	99,129	3.9
Teachers' Training Education	14,546	0.6
Higher Education	101,716	4.1

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, Dirasat Wa Buhouth Ehsaiyah "Statistical Studies and Researches" Book Two (Cairo: Mikhamar Press, 1960), p.74. (In Arabic).

III. THE FUTURE OF THE LITERARY SECTION IN THE GENERAL  
SECONDARY EDUCATION

As has already been indicated the period of secondary schooling is three years. The first year is General for all the pupils, and the remaining two years are given either to the scientific or the literary section. Table LXXVIII illustrates the number of pupils attending each section.

TABLE LXXVIII<sup>1</sup>  
PROPORTION OF ENROLMENT BETWEEN LITERARY  
AND SCIENTIFIC SECTION  
(1955-56 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Literary Section	Scientific Section	Total
1955-56	26,429	45,295	71,724
Percentage	36.8	63.2	100
1956-57	24,794	50,457	75,251
Percentage	32.9	67.1	100
1957-58	19,909	51,652	71,561
Percentage	27.8	72.2	100
1958-59	19,196	58,425	77,621
Percentage	24.7	75.3	100
1959-60	16,718	65,955	82,673
Percentage	20.2	79.8	100

1. Dirasat Wa Buhouth Ehsaiyah, op.cit., Book Two, p.39.

It is clear from the above Table that the percentage of literary section enrolment is declining in proportion to the scientific one. In 1955-56 the percentage of enrolment in the literary section was 37 per cent, in 1959-60 this declined to approximately 20 per cent.

Table LXXIX illustrates enrolment figures for both sections and it will be obvious that the enrolment to the second year of literary section is gradually decreasing.

TABLE LXXIX<sup>1</sup>

ENROLMENT FIGURES IN SECOND YEAR LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SECTIONS (1955-56 / 1959-50)

Scholastic Year	Second Year		Total
	Literary Section	Scientific Section	
1955-56	13,128	23,632	36,760
Percentage	36	64	100
1956-57	9,284	22,897	32,181
Percentage	29	71	100
1957-58	8,818	23,163	31,981
Percentage	27.5	72.5	100
1958-59	7,911	25,704	33,615
Percentage	23.5	76.5	100
1959-60	6,173	28,487	34,624
Percentage	18	82	100

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., p.40.



The ratio of attendance between boys and girls differs. It will be seen from Table LXXX that the decline in both sexes is mutual. But it is more apparent among boys than girls.

TABLE LXXX<sup>1</sup>  
NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS ENROLLED INTO THE SECOND  
YEAR OF LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SECTIONS  
(1955-56 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Girls			Boys		
	Second Year			Second Year		
	Lit-erary Section	Scien-tific Section	Total	Lit-erary Section	Scien-tific Section	Total
1955-56	2,898	2,966	5,864	10,230	20,666	30,896
Percentage	49	51	100	33	67	100
1956-57	2,219	2,842	5,061	7,065	20,055	27,120
Percentage	44	56	100	26	74	100
1957-58	2,287	3,022	5,309	6,531	20,141	26,672
Percentage	43	57	100	24	76	100
1958-59	2,365	3,900	6,265	5,546	21,804	27,350
Percentage	38	62	100	20	80	100
1959-60	2,163	4,738	6,901	3,974	23,749	27,723
Percentage	31	69	100	14	86	100

The pattern of the pupil participation in the literary and the scientific sections of the general secondary education can be summarised as follows:

1. The percentage of second year literary section, in general secondary schools in 1959-60 was 18 per cent. The

1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., p.40.

percentage for girls was 31 per cent. The corresponding percentage for boys was 14 per cent.

2. The proportions in the second year was 23 per cent literary and 67 per cent scientific. The average density of the classes was 32 pupils for the second year scientific section and 23 for the literary section.

3. It must be noted that in a considerable number of secondary schools there is no provision for literary studies.

It is clear that the literary section is suffering from decreasing enrolments. It is also obvious that those pupils who join the scientific section prepare themselves for admission to higher education. The 'faculty' requirements in the majority of the cases do not permit the admission of graduates from the literary section of the secondary schools. This is specially true in respect of admission to the faculties of: Medicine; Pharmacy; Dental Surgery; Veterinary Medicine; Engineering; Science; and Agriculture. Meanwhile, some of the literary faculties, in particular circumstances, accept both sections' graduates.

The enrolment in the scientific section is not merely an individual trend from the pupil's point of view. It is also a reflection of the tendency of the society towards scientific interests and of the present development in technological fields, which the country is in great need of at the present time. It also points to the need for establishing the extent of the continued expansion of

scientific education and to reaching the appropriate equilibrium between literary and scientific interests.<sup>1</sup>

IV. ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS TO THE UNIVERSITIES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH THE SPECIALISED COURSES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

As has been mentioned above the objectives of general secondary education are the preparing pupils for life and simultaneously preparing brilliant pupils for admission to the universities and higher institutions. Thus the programmes provided at secondary education is designed to serve both objectives, namely development of integrated character for a citizen and providing him with appropriate attainments alike.

The pattern of subjects for the secondary school course calls for some review in relation to university admission because the relevance of selection of large proportion the course is made with reference to parents' wishes rather than the aptitude of the children. Social status or economic return being the criteria most often used.

In other cases the fundamental factor of choice may be the school's capacity which restricts enrolment for each section. In some cases the choice may be established on a wrong convention that some courses are easier in knowledge achievement than others such as literary section.

The classification into either literary or scientific sections is not specifically related to 'faculty' requirements.

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1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., p.49.

In consequence pupils may be required to study some subjects for which they have neither aptitude nor interest. A more feasible choice of subjects is required. This is emphasised by 'faculty' requirements. Some 'faculty' admission requirements call for a combination of literary and scientific subjects alike. Faculty of Commerce, for example, required a preparation in literary subjects such as: geography and history, and at the same time, a preparation into mathematics.

The problem of specialisation in some fields such as Arabic language, English language, history and geography in the literary section, in addition to mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology in the scientific section aggravate the school's problems and it leads to complications in the provision of specialist teachers.

There is a tendency for pupils to select what are presumed to be easy subjects, such as biology in the scientific section; and history in the literary section. The pupil may also choose a particular subject on the grounds that it is stipulated for admission to a particular 'faculty' which he desires to enter regardless of the potentialities and aptitudes of the pupil.

To give a clear picture concerning this issue, it is appropriate to allocate the following Table showing the supplementary specialised subjects in the third year of literary and scientific sections, and the number of pupils pursuing each in four scholastic years.

TABLE LXXXI<sup>1</sup>

SUPPLEMENTARY SPECIALISED SUBJECTS IN LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC COURSES, AND THE NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTENDING EACH, AND THE PERCENTAGE FROM 1956-57 UP TILL 1959-60

Scholastic Year	Literary Section					
	Arabic	English	French	Geography	History	Total
1956-57	1,315	1,692	191	2,065	9,837	15,100
Percentage	9	11	1	14	65	100
1957-58	728	957	91	1,721	7,594	11,009
Percentage	6.6	8.6	0.8	15.5	68.5	100
1958-59	807	811	35	2,058	7,574	11,581
Percentage	7.7	6.3	5	21.9	63.6	100
1959-60	816	666	50	2,321	6,728	10,581
Percentage	7.7	6.3	5	21.9	63.6	100
Scholastic Year	Scientific Section					
	Biology	Chemistry	Physics	Mathematics	Total	
1956-57	15,724	5,669	279	5,645	27,317	
Percentage	57	21	1	21	100	
1957-58	16,242	5,838	215	6,194	28,489	
Percentage	57	20.5	.57	21.75	100	
1958-59	18,680	7,286	614	6,114	32,721	
Percentage	57	22	2	19	100	
1959-60	22,653	7,831	1,731	5,259	37,468	
Percentage	60.5	20.87	4.60	14.03	100	

1. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, Dirasat Wa Buhouth Ehsaiyah, Book One, p.162 (In Arabic). Quoted in Book Two, Ibid., p.79.

It is clear from Table LXXXI that a large proportion of the pupils pursue the major scientific studies. It is generally agreed that those who attain high intelligence and scientific ability are a small number of the pupils. So it is advisable to give special attention to this gifted minority. To do this will require radical changes in the provision of courses and the selection system for admission to advanced or higher studies.

In an attempt to meet these needs, the Supreme Council of Universities, made the following rules of admission in its session on 11 June, 1959:-

1. The following system will be, provide for admission to the 'faculties', in general, meanwhile the distribution of students among various sections in any faculty will be in accordance with its own provisions.

2. The total marks will be the base of selecting candidates for admission to different 'faculties'. This requirement of enrolment ignores completely the marks of the supplementary specialised subjects attained by the pupil.

The actual status of the General Secondary Education Certificate is considered as a State examination to assure the completion by the candidate of general secondary schooling to a satisfactory standard of achievement. Thus it provides a qualification for attaining a post, and in addition can be considered as a competitive examination for entrance to the university because acceptance by the university depends on the

total marks attained by the candidate. It is thus of the utmost importance to establish a degree of appropriateness between the prescribed syllabuses for secondary education and the requirements for university admission.<sup>1</sup>

V. NEW TRENDS IN PREPARATORY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION FROM 1953-54 UP TILL 1959-60.

Great attention was given towards preparatory education in order to discover and discriminate the pupils' abilities so as to distribute them into the appropriate type of secondary education. The consequence was an expansion of the technical education. In 1959-60 they reached approximately 94,500 pupils, against some 19,000 pupils in 1953-54. It means that in a period of about seven years a five-fold increase occurred in the field of technical education. This trend reveals an increase of interest by the pupils to pursue this type of education. Table LXXXII illustrates the steady growth in this type of education constantly year after another. It also displays the gradual increase of the ratio of enrolment in technical education in comparison with the enrolment in general education on the same level.

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1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., Book Two, pp.77-82.

TABLE LXXXII<sup>1</sup>

NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTENDING TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND THEIR  
PERCENTAGE TO GENERAL EDUCATION PUPILS  
FROM 1953-54 TO 1959-60

Scholastic Year	Technical Pupils (Prep. and Sec.)	Total Pupils in Prep. and Sec.	Percentage of Technical to Total
1953-54	18,950	459,589	4.1
1954-55	18,330	470,801	3.9
1955-56	26,579	452,661	5.9
1956-57	37,777	465,173	8.1
1957-58	63,053	450,672	14.0
1958-59	79,858	442,860	18.0
1959-60	94,445	463,886	20.3

It is apparent from the foregoing Table that the percentage of technical preparatory and secondary enrolment rose from 4.1 per cent in 1953-54 to 20.3 per cent in 1959-60, of the total percentage of both general and technical preparatory and secondary levels. It will be interesting to follow up the increase in both preparatory and secondary stages separately.

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1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., Book Two, p.123.



TABLE LXXXIII<sup>1</sup>  
NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PREPARATORY STAGE  
FROM 1953-54 UP TO 1959-60

Scholastic Year	Pupils in Technical Prep. Stage	Pupils in Technical and General Prep. Stages	Percentage of Technical Preparatory Pupils
1953-54	3,260	351,834	0.9
1954-55	4,304	350,680	1.2
1955-56	8,218	336,688	2.4
1956-57	12,925	331,168	3.9
1957-58	22,818	301,042	7.5
1958-59	29,846	277,240	10.7
1959-60	34,098	283,061	12.0

It is obvious from Table LXXXIII that the number of pupils attending technical preparatory stage in 1959-60 were ten-fold the number 1953-54. Meanwhile the percentage in the same period has increased approximately thirteen-fold. It is also clear that the decline in the numbers of general preparatory pupils was maintained throughout the period. This trend may be attributed to the general policy of expansion of the technical preparatory education in order to produce more skilled workers.

Table LXXXIV shows the enrolment trend in technical secondary education.

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1. Ibid., p.123.

TABLE LXXXIV<sup>1</sup>NUMBER OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY STAGE

(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Technical Secondary	Technical and General-Secondary Pupils	Percentage of Technical Secondary Pupils
1953-54	15,690	107,752	14.5
1954-55	14,026	120,121	11.6
1955-56	18,361	125,973	14.5
1956-57	24,852	134,005	18.5
1957-58	20,225	149,630	26.9
1958-59	50,012	165,620	30.2
1959-60	60,347	180,825	33.4

It is clear from the above Table that in 1959-60 the enrolment number in technical secondary stage was four-fold the corresponding figure for 1953-54. Meanwhile the percentage of the technical secondary stage enrolment number increased by two and one-fourth fold in 1959-60 comparing with 1953-54. This trend reflects the new conception of the importance of technical skill in relation to social and economic progress.

VI. GROWTH OF THE TECHNICAL EDUCATION FROM 1953-54 UP TILL 1959-60.

It is necessary to pursue the growth of technical education, in detail, after the outline survey provided in the previous pages. In 1953-54 the preparatory stage was innovated to operate as a link stage between primary and

1. Ibid., p.124.

secondary stages.

(i) PREPARATORY EDUCATION

Table LXXXV shows the enrolment distribution in categories of technical preparatory education.

TABLE LXXXV<sup>1</sup>

NUMBER OF CLASSES AND PUPILS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF  
THE TECHNICAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION

Scholastic Year	Industrial		Agricultural		Commercial	
	Classes	Pupils	Classes	Pupils	Classes	Pupils
1953-54	104	2,127	34	952	10	181
1959-60	630	18,131	288	7,729	213	5,716
Increase	526	16,004	254	6,777	203	5,535

The above Table brings out the following facts:

(1) Industrial preparatory education increased by 526 classes, and in the same period some 16,000 pupils; (2) Agricultural preparatory education increased by 254 classes, and approximately 6,770 pupils; (3) Commercial preparatory education increased by 203 classes and nearly 5,530 pupils, in the same period from 1953-54 to 1959-60.

The conclusion to be drawn from the preceding data is that the increase in industrial preparatory education was greater than the increase in both agricultural and commercial together. This reflects the industrial expansion which will

1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., Book Two, p.127.

be achieved on the completion of the construction of the High Dam, and the present demand for increased numbers of skilled technical workers.

A. INDUSTRIAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION

This type of education is designed to provide skilled workers equipped with a competent standard of technical knowledge and vocational skill to undertake appropriate work in factories. Table LXXXVI will show the growth of the industrial preparatory education.

TABLE LXXXVI<sup>1</sup>

GROWTH OF INDUSTRIAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION  
(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	104	-	2,127	-
1954-55	143	39	2,723	596
1955-56	211	68	5,804	3,081
1956-57	309	98	8,736	2,932
1957-58	461	152	12,736	4,000
1958-59	541	80	15,988	3,252
1959-60	630	89	18,131	2,143

From the above Table it is obvious that the gradual increase of the enrolment in industrial preparatory education has been maintained steadily. In 1955-56 particularly the

1. Ibid., p.128.

number of pupils was approximately double that of the preceding year. In a period of seven years a nine-fold increase was achieved.

B. AGRICULTURAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION

This type of education aims at creating a new generation of qualified agriculturalists with adequate agricultural knowledge for modern methods in agriculture and to provide a nucleus of enlightened farmers whose methods will be imitated by others. Table LXXXVII shows the development of this type of education.

TABLE LXXXVII<sup>1</sup>

DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION

(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	34	-	652	-
1954-55	42	8	1,256	604
1955-56	67	25	1,875	619
1956-57	97	30	2,628	753
1957-58	169	72	4,827	2,199
1958-59	144	75	6,687	1,860
1959-60	288	44	7,729	1,042

Thus steady and gradual increase has been demonstrated throughout the above Table.

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1. Ibid., p.128.

C. COMMERCIAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION

This type of education has been established in order to provide training for commercial and clerical careers in commerce and industry. Table LXXXVIII shows the growth of this type of schooling.

TABLE LXXXVIII<sup>1</sup>  
GROWTH OF COMMERCIAL PREPARATORY EDUCATION  
(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	10	-	181	-
1954-55	11	1	235	54
1955-56	20	9	539	304
1956-57	55	35	1,551	1,012
1957-58	129	74	2,747	1,196
1958-59	191	62	5,208	2,461
1959-60	213	22	5,716	508

From the above Table it is clear that enrolment figures are gradually increasing year by year.

ii. SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

Reference has already been made to general secondary education in connection with the increase in enrolment in the scientific course (See pp. 344-352 above).

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1. Ibid., p.129.

## II. TECHNICAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

The provision of a scientific section in the general secondary education programme has provided for recruitment to technical training institutions as well as for admission to science faculties in the universities.

This trend is exemplified in numbers of the General Preparatory Education Certificate holders admitted to the different types of the technical secondary education as illustrated by the following figures in Table LXXXIX.

TABLE LXXXIX<sup>1</sup>

A COMPARISON PERCENTAGE OF GENERAL AND TECHNICAL  
SECONDARY EDUCATION NEW INTAKE NUMBERS  
(1954-55 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Percentage of Intake in Gen. Secondary	Percentage of Intake in Technical Sec.				
		Industrial	Agricultural	Commercial	Feminist	Total
1954-55	87.2	2.1	2.9	4.2	3.6	12.8
1955-56	73.8	9.1	3.9	9.1	4.1	26.2
1956-57	70.7	9.8	3.6	11.7	4.2	29.3
1957-58	67.2	7.5	5.6	14.9	4.8	32.8
1958-59	65.9	8.7	5.3	15.7	4.4	34.1
1959-60	61.1	11.5	5.8	16.4	5.2	38.9

1. Ibid., p.131.

Table XC illustrates the rate of growth of technical secondary education and the comparable decrease in general secondary education is clearly shown. The actual enrolment figures for technical secondary education are given in the following Table.

TABLE XC<sup>1</sup>

NUMBER OF CLASSES AND PUPILS IN TECHNICAL SECONDARY  
EDUCATION

C = CLASSES

P = PUPILS

Scholastic Year	Industrial		Agricultural		Commercial		Feminine	
	C	P	C	P	C	P	C	P
1953-54	326	9,007	97	2,302	183	3,481	157	3,148
1959-60	497	15,722	287	9,001	958	28,130	260	7,326
Increase	171	6,715	190	6,699	775	23,749	103	4,178

From the above Table it is clear that the increases in class provision and actual enrolments were industrial 171 classes; agricultural 190 classes; commercial 775 classes; feminine 103 classes. The corresponding increases in enrolment figures were 6,715; 6,699; 23,749; and 4,178 respectively.

Adopting the same comparative techniques in dealing the following Tables and comments summarise the picture in respect of technical secondary education.

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1. Ibid., p.131.



(i) INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

This type of education aims at providing a category of qualified workers who will be able to fill posts of foremen and technicians required for industry and for the execution of economic projects and enterprises. It also qualifies young men to run their private enterprises. In addition, it provides the required teacher for the industrial preparatory schools. Table XCI shows the development of industrial secondary schools.

TABLE XCI<sup>1</sup>GROWTH OF INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	326	-	6,780	-
1954-55	237	- 89	6,848	66
1955-56	200	- 37	7,192	346
1956-57	273	+ 77	9,719	2,527
1957-58	370	+ 97	11,594	1,875
1958-59	433	+ 63	13,735	2,141
1959-60	497	+ 64	15,722	1,987

From the above Table it is clear that the average increase in enrolment in the last four years was approximately 2,000 pupils per annum.

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1. Ibid., p.132.

(ii) AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

The aim of this type of schools is to train a class of educated youth who will acquire both practical and theoretical agricultural skills which will enable them to manage farms and guide farmers in the various domains of agricultural activity, and to provide agricultural teachers for general and agricultural preparatory schools. Table XCII sums up the growth of this type of education.

TABLE XCII<sup>1</sup>

GROWTH OF AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION  
(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	97	-	2,302	-
1954-55	99	2	2,669	367
1955-56	143	44	3,738	1,069
1956-57	175	32	4,370	632
1957-58	213	38	6,119	1,749
1958-59	247	34	7,443	1,324
1959-60	287	40	9,001	1,558

It is clear from the above Table that the average increase for the last three years was approximately 1,500 pupils. This gradually increased enrolment figure is specifically related to the growth in agriculture. The nation will require more and more of the agricultural secondary

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1. Ibid., p.132.

schools graduates to participate in the expansion and promotion of agrarian development particularly after the completion of the High Dam which will produce an expansion of two million feddans in the cultivated land area, will require even greater expansion of this sector of education.

(iii) COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

This type of education aims to provide its pupils with a technical training to qualify them to undertake various jobs in financial and clerical careers for both private enterprise and governmental administration. Table XCIII indicates the growth of this type of education.

TABLE XCIII<sup>1</sup>

GROWTH OF COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

(1953-54 / 1959-60)

Scholastic Year	Classes	Annual Increase	Pupils	Annual Increase
1953-54	183	-	4,381	-
1954-55	199	16	4,511	130
1955-56	300	101	7,431	2,920
1956-57	412	112	10,763	2,332
1957-58	592	180	16,886	6,123
1958-59	761	169	22,497	5,611
1959-60	958	197	28,130	5,633

It is obvious from the above Table that the gradual increase of the commercial secondary enrolment figures has

1. Ibid., p.133.

been a steady one. A comparison between this type with the parallel industrial and agricultural types, shows a preponderance of the former. Regarding the average annual increase in the commercial secondary schools it amounts, in the last three years, to approximately 6,000 pupils. This may be attributed to the participation of girls in this type of education, whereas no girls are enrolled in industrial and agricultural secondary education.

## VII. EMPLOYMENTS OF TECHNICAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

### I. INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

In studies carried out by the Department of Statistics, Ministry of Education, Cairo, based upon the results of the 'Statistics of Working Power',<sup>1</sup> it has been shown that about 28.2 per cent of the industrial secondary schools leavers worked as draughtsmen or technical-assistants. Approximately 21.2 per cent occupy other posts in the industrial sector. About 4.3 per cent were self-employed. Nearly 14.1 per cent attained teaching posts in industrial preparatory and primary schools.

Those who attained occupations which were not directly relevant to the nature of their educational qualifications amounted to approximately 13.6 per cent. The majority of this

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1. In May 1959 the Central Department of Statistics issued a book entitled "The Statistics of Working Power by Sample in the Egyptian Region in the Year 1957-1958". This is the first research implemented in accordance with the statistical sample method.

percentage, or rather 10 per cent occupied clerical posts. Approximately 5.7 per cent of the graduates were unemployed.<sup>1</sup>

## II. COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

Approximately 40.1 per cent of the graduates from commercial secondary education occupied clerical and accounting posts. Nearly 24.5 per cent obtained different employment related to the nature of their qualifications. Meanwhile about 5.4 per cent were engaged in commercial business. Nearly 4.9 per cent of the graduates were unemployed.

## III. AGRICULTURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

About 85.2 per cent occupied posts relevant to their qualifications. For instance, 36 per cent occupied the posts of agriculturists and 27 per cent secured teaching posts in agricultural preparatory schools, and primary schools. The proportion of those who secured posts irrelevant to their previous studies were about 9.2 per cent, mostly worked as clerks. Approximately 5.6 per cent of the graduates were unemployed.

## IV. FEMININE SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

Nearly 26.7 per cent of the products of feminine secondary education graduates occupied teaching posts of feminine subjects in girls' schools. Approximately 4.9 per cent occupied clerical jobs. About 65.6 per cent remained

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1. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., Book Two, p.195.

at home.<sup>1</sup>

Approximately 65 per cent of the graduates return to their homes and do not enter into productive employment, and indeed this type of education "... aims at providing pupils with culture and knowledge to enable them eventually to run a home efficiently."<sup>2</sup> The majority of the applicants for entrance to this type of education are those who attained low standards in the General Preparatory Certificate Examination. Nevertheless, about 35 per cent of these girls enter into some kind of employment.

This educational provision would appear at the present time to be a luxury in that there is little apparent economic return on account of the products staying at home on completion of their studies. This suggests that the planning and organisation of this sector of education requires re-assessment in terms of social and economic needs.<sup>3</sup>

#### FUTURE OF GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION LEAVERS

The universities and higher institutions absorb a particular number of the secondary education leavers per annum. Those who find no place in the higher education attain a job. Actually not all of them usually find an occupation. Consequently unemployment occurred. Unemployment of the

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1. Ibid., pp.196-198.

2. M.K. Harby and Z.M.Mehrez, Education for Women ..., p.13.

3. See, Dirasat Wa Buhouth ..., Book Two, p.203.

secondary education graduates may be attributed to the following:

Increasing number of the secondary school leavers annually. Higher education institutions are incapable of absorbing them completely. Solution to this problem was taken by restricting the enrolments in the secondary schools as an initial remedy to the problem.

Nevertheless the sincere endeavours exerted to develop the relationship between school and society, throughout the curricula provision, the secondary schools required more adaptation of the curricula contents to the practical and social activities of the society.<sup>1</sup>

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1. American University of Beirut, Al-Tarbiyah fi Al-Marhalah Al-Tanawiyah . . . , p.182.

CHAPTER ELEVENQUESTIONNAIRE ON EGYPTIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

(Addressed to Secondary School Teachers in  
the United Arab Republic)

GENERAL NOTE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to provide some insight into the opinion of teachers at present engaged in secondary education in the U.A.R. concerning the degree to which the existing provision is satisfying the function of providing education appropriate to the needs of the individual and the Egyptian society as a whole in the pursuit of political, social and economic well-being.

The questionnaire consists of 57 items, with a total of 160 alternative responses. The last three items are open-ended. In all the other questions 2 to 4 alternative responses are possible. The question dealing with language has 5 alternative responses.

The arrangement of items is random, and the sample of responders was also a random selection in distribution, general secondary schools and types of subject interest. In all 600 teachers replied to the questionnaire.

The teacher is the critical figure in the interpretation of policy in practice, and whatever degree of comprehensiveness there may be in the legislation and regulation of education in terms of the pursuit of national political, economic and social objectives the effectiveness of the teacher as



interpreter can make all the difference to the educational results. The reactions to the questionnaire provide pointers to the areas of action in secondary school sector of the education system rather than offering a comprehensive critical assessment.

#### THE SAMPLE

Six hundred teachers answered the questionnaire. The sample consisted of teachers who were responsible both for teaching a particular subject at the General Secondary Certificate level and for participating in the examination in the same year. The whole range of subject teaching was represented in the sample.

The questionnaire was implemented by the investigator in the U.A.R. in July 1962 at the four centres where the committees responsible met to carry out their examination responsibilities in Cairo at: (1) Al-Khedieviah Secondary School; (2) Al-Ibrahimiya Secondary School; (3) Khedive Ismail Secondary School; (4) Kasr Al-Aini Commercial Secondary School.

#### RESPONSES AND COMMENTS

1. What is the major weakness in the general secondary school?	No.	%
(1) Weakness of attainment of pupils on entering.	379	63.17
(2) Inadequateness of secondary school facilities.	59	9.83
(3) Limited length of course.	22	3.67
(4) Methods of examination and promotion.	140	23.33

The responses reveal a preponderance of dissatisfaction with the level of attainment on admission, very few teachers are dissatisfied with the content or the length of the secondary school course, and approximately 23 per cent were dissatisfied with the examination and promotion methods.

2. Which type of secondary education ought to have priority of expansion?

	No.	%
(1) General secondary education	210	35.0
(2) Agricultural secondary education.	29	4.83
(3) Industrial secondary education.	352	58.67
(4) Commercial secondary education.	9	1.50

Industrial secondary education was given priority by a majority of teachers, with considerable support also for general secondary education, agricultural and commercial secondary education secured little support.

3. Are three years of secondary education sufficient preparation for admission to the university?

(1) Yes.	291	48.5
(2) No.	309	51.5

Opinion is practically evenly balanced over this question.

4. If your answer to question 3 is in the negative would you increase the secondary school programme by

	No.	%
(1) One year?	249	80.6
(2) Two years?	60	19.4
<p>The majority of dissentients would increase the course by one year.</p>		
5. What is the main cause of low standards of achievement?		
(1) Previous education of pupils.	384	64.33
(2) Difficulty of the secondary school courses.	36	5.67
(3) Indifference of pupils.	69	11.5
(4) Methods of examination and promotion.	111	18.5
<p>The previous preparation of the pupils was agreed to be the major cause of poor progress in the secondary schools, with a considerable minority blaming the examination procedures. This was a confirmation of the opinions given in answer to the first question.</p>		
6. What is the objective of general secondary education in your opinion?		
(1) Preparing for life.	288	48.0
(2) Preparing for entrance to the university.	285	47.5
(3) Preparing for employment.	27	4.5
<p>The consensus of opinion was evenly divided between preparation for life and preparation for university admission. A negligible proportion regarded vocational</p>		

preparation important.

7. Should the State provide free general secondary education for all youth?

(1) Yes.

346 57.67

(2) No.

254 42.33

A small majority were in favour of State provision of secondary education for all youth. Interpretation of this reaction will be related to item 22.

8. Do you think that teaching foreign languages necessary in general secondary schools?

(1) Yes.

587 97.83

(2) No.

13 2.17

Only a small minority did not think foreign language study necessary.

9. Which foreign language would you give priority to in the secondary school?

(1) English.

525 88.33

(2) French

45 6.67

(3) Italian.

nil 0.0

(4) German

30 5.0

(5) Other language (please, state it).

nil 0.0

An overwhelming majority favoured English as the choice of foreign language. The almost equal but negligible support for French and German is difficult to explain in view of

difference in past contact of the two languages. No other foreign languages were regarded of any significance.

10. The U.A.R. needs skilled persons, in all sectors of life; in particular the technological fields. Which of the following procedures would you give preference to as a way of the secondary schools continuity to supply of skilled form?

(1) Giving some technological subjects in general secondary school.

383 63.83

(2) Continuing the existing curriculum teaching.

42 7.0

(3) Providing technological teaching in technical secondary schools.

175 29.17

A majority favour inclusion of some technological material in the general secondary course, and a significant minority favoured the provision being made solely in technical secondary schools. An insignificant minority favoured no change being made in the content of the curriculum. What is clear is that the majority favour a change in the curriculum towards a technological interest. This may be assumed to reflect a general appreciation of the new needs in terms of economic, social and political development.

11. What is your opinion about the present examination system?

	No.	%
(1) It ought to be changed.	489	81.5
(2) It ought to be carried on.	57	9.5
(3) It ought to be completely neglected.	54	9.0

Only 9.5 per cent of the sample is satisfied with the existing examination provision, approximately the same proportion would drop the examination procedure altogether. The great majority would modify the existing examinations, a viewpoint that undoubtedly would have general support.

12. What is your opinion about the present system of compensation in promotion examinations?

(1) It should be maintained.	34	5.67
(2) It should be modified.	128	21.33
(3) It should be dropped.	436	72.67
(4) It should be broadened.	2	0.33

Whilst the greater majority of teachers in the sample would drop the compensating technique from the promotion examinations, a significant number would react to it in a modified form.

13. If you would accept examination system, which form of examination would you prefer?

(1) Objective tests.	170	28.33
(2) Essay type questions.	22	3.67
(3) Combination of objectives tests and essay type questions.	408	68.0

A combination of objective and essay type examinations would be favoured by the great majority of the sample. A significant minority would prefer to limit the examinations to objective tests only.

14. What criterion would you recommend for selection for admission to general secondary education?

	No.	%
(1) Pupils' attainment in the Preparatory Certificate,	122	20.33
(2) Results of intelligence tests.	76	12.67
(3) Combination of attainment and intelligence tests.	402	67.0

From these responses it can be assumed that the existing preparatory certificate examination is not regarded as providing sufficient evidence of ability to pursue further studies, and the majority would support a combination of attainment and intelligence tests as the most satisfactory criterion.

15. Do you agree with the present form of specialised courses, literary and scientific?

(1) Yes.	483	80.5
(2) No.	117	19.5

The majority find the present diversification satisfactory, but a significant proportion expressed dissatisfaction with the system.

	No.	%
16. Do you think that the length of the secondary school programme is sufficient to complete specialised courses?		
(1) The course is satisfactory in length.	272	45.33
(2) The course needs to be increased by one year.	204	34.0
(3) The course ought to be cancelled completely.	124	20.67
<p>The majority of the sample regarded the present duration of the course satisfactory, approximately a third of the sample were of the opinion that a further year of specialisation is desirable, whilst one fifth were of the opinion that the specialised courses should be dropped. This viewpoint represents a confirmation of the opinion expressed by a similar proportion in response to item 15. (2).</p>		
17. Do you agree to transfer of pupils from general secondary education to technical secondary education, or vice-versa, if lack of aptitude or progress occurred?		
(1) Yes	452	75.33
(2) No.	148	24.67
<p>Three-quarters of the sample agreed that facilities for transfer from one type to another within the secondary education level is desirable.</p>		
18. Do you agree on co-education in the general secondary education?		
(1) Yes.	324	54.0
(2) No.	276	46.0



The responses to this question which touches closely upon a traditional attitude shows a slight balance in favour of a progressive rather than the traditional attitude.

19. If you are agreed on co-education, what do you think the most important reason?

- |  | No. | %    |
|--|-----|------|
| (1) To help meet the needs of an industrial society.         | 21  | 6.0  |
| (2) To satisfy the changes in social ideas.                  | 48  | 15.0 |
| (3) To provide equal educational opportunity for both sexes. | 30  | 9.0  |
| (4) To overcome the youth problems that appear in this age.  | 225 | 70.0 |

The majority of teachers offer the provision of overcoming the youth problems as the reason why they support co-education. This together with those who support co-education for reasons of changing social conditions indicate a general agreement that social and human relations are the major reasons for adopting co-education.

20. If you disagree with co-education, which is the most important reason for your view?

- |  |     |       |
|--|-----|-------|
| (1) To satisfy religious tradition.  | 18  | 6.50  |
| (2) Because of the danger of the sexes mixing during adolescence.            | 198 | 71.75 |
| (3) Because during adolescence the sexes have different needs and interests. | 60  | 21.75 |

Approximately 72 per cent of the teachers against co-education were fearful of the consequences during adolescence, the variant of differing needs of both sexes was offered by about 22 per cent of the teachers against co-education and nearly 6 per cent adopted their attitude on religious grounds.

21. What do you regard as the optimum qualifications for secondary school teachers?

	No.	%
(1) A university degree and an educational degree.	392	65.33
(2) A university degree.	30	5.0
(3) College of Teachers degree.	178	29.67
(4) Special Teachers' Institution Diploma.	nil	0.0

A majority favour a degree plus professional qualification as the desirable qualifications, few regard a degree by itself as satisfactory, and approximately a third would be satisfied with a College Teachers' degree.

22. How should the expense of secondary schooling be met?

(1) Pupils' fathers or guardians should share some of the cost.	133	22.17
(2) The Government should meet all the cost.	227	37.83
(3) Supplementary fees ought to be cancelled.	60	10.0
(4) Free education ought to be provisioned for gifted and poor pupils only.	180	30.0

In view of the government decision in 1953 to make education free, the variations in

the opinion of teachers as shown by these responses suggests that there are issues of some complexity involved in this question.

23. Do you agree on decentralisation of education?

(1) Yes.

522 87.0

(2) No.

78 13.0

The overwhelming majority of the sample desire a decentralised system. This probably reflects dissatisfaction with the existing organisation and also sensitivity about individual prestige, status and initiative.

24. What priority would you give in decentralisation to

(1) Curricula.

105 20.1

(2) Examinations.

21 4.0

(3) Administration.

69 13.2

(4) All the above issues.

327 62.7

The majority favoured decentralisation of all elements of the work, whilst approximately 20 per cent favoured first alternative to decentralisation of the curriculum.

25. If you agree with decentralisation, how would you deal with university admission?

(1) A competitive entrance examination.

244 47.0

(2) A percentage proportion of admission for each educational zone.

125 24.0

(3) A common preliminary year before admission to the university.

153 29.0

A majority favoured a competitive examination, whilst the rest were almost evenly divided over the other measures for selection.

26. Do you think special provision should be made for gifted pupils?

(1) Yes.

580 96.67

(2) No.

20 3.33

The great majority favoured special provision for gifted pupils a dimension that can be interpreted as reflecting general appreciation of the need for making the fullest use of the ablest people in the reconstruction of the country.

27. Do you think that the secondary school fulfils its duties towards the local community?

(1) Yes.

199 33.2

(2) No.

401 66.8

The majority is dissatisfied with the secondary schools in respect of their effectiveness in fitting the pupils for living in their communities to which they belong.

28. What is the outstanding difficulty facing you in your job at the school?

(1) Dealing with colleagues.

75 12.5

(2) Dealing with pupils.

99 16.5

(3) Dealing with administration.

318 53.0

Relations with the administration are the most serious handicap for the vast majority of the teachers. This raises an issue of great importance in the situation that calls for the most effective contribution by the teachers in preparing the young to serve the community to the best of their ability. It is necessary to indicate that 108 teachers gave no response at all. Thus about 18 per cent neglect this item completely.

29. How can the secondary school help in accelerating social change?

(1) Anti-illiteracy campaigns.

115 19.17

(2) Social activity towards the local community.

296 49.33

(3) Fulfilment of its obligations towards its pupils.

189 31.5

Social activity towards the community is regarded by the majority of the sample to be of the first importance, a considerable proportion sees the responsibilities to the pupils as of most importance, and a lesser proportion regarded anti-<sup>il</sup>literacy campaigns as a sphere of action for the secondary schools in promoting social change.

	No.	%
30. The U.A.R. is undergoing a tremendous phase of development. In view of this how would you prefer to see your pupils occupied during the summer holidays?		
(1) Constructing roads and cutting canals?	57	9.5
(2) Teaching illiterate people.	189	31.5
(3) Sharing in other productive projects, agricultural, industrial and commercial.	288	48.0
(4) Spending holidays in complete leisure.	66	11.0
<p>The majority of teachers would want their pupils to be engaged in productive economic projects during the vacations, whilst a large proportion would approve of participation in literary work. Few regard complete leisure as satisfactory.</p>		
31. Do you think that your school has satisfactory laboratory, library and recreational facilities, and a satisfactory number of classes?		
(1) Yes.	226	37.67
(2) No.	374	62.33
<p>If there were any defect, state please: Approximately two-thirds of the sample regarded the present buildings and equipment as inadequate.</p>		
32. Do you think that a single form of teachers' training would produce an improvement in educational results?		
(1) Yes.	365	60.83
(2) No.	235	39.17

Approximately 60 per cent favour a common professional qualification for all teachers.

33. Are you satisfied with the time-table provision for the subject or subjects you teach?

(1) Yes.

113 18.83

(2) No.

487 81.17

Nearly 19 per cent were satisfied with the present time-table provision for their subjects. This attitude is likely to be expected.

To what extent it arises from an overloaded curriculum or to ineffective methods would have to be determined. But such a weight of dissatisfaction calls for attention.

34. Are you satisfied with the sizes of the classes?

(1) Yes.

98 16.33

(2) No.

502 83.67

The overwhelming majority regard the present class numbers as unsatisfactory.

35. Which stage of education should have priority in an expansion programme?

(1) Primary stage.

466 77.67

(2) Preparatory stage.

59 9.83

(3) Secondary stage.

46 7.67

(4) Universities.

29 4.83

The pattern of response confirms the different levels of need, and shows an appreciation of the dependence of the latter upon the earlier stages in the system. A rate of gradient occurred in responses primary stage is regarded by approximately 77 per cent of the sample as the prerequisite.

36. Do you think that the School Community Council and Students' Union attained their goals?

(1) Yes.

147 24.5

(2) No.

453 75.5

The majority of the teachers are of the opinion that the objectives of the School Community Council and the Students' Union have not been attained. In view of the importance placed upon these activities by the Ministerial Decrees Nos. 35 and 37 of 1959 it would appear to be necessary to examine chiefly the working of these activities in the schools.

37. There are various modern methods of teaching. Do you think that such methods as: units, problems, and the like are applicable throughout the secondary schools?

(1) Specialised courses.

209 34.83

(2) General course.

91 15.17

(3) Unsuitable to any course.

300 50.0



Half the sample regarded modern methods as applicable to secondary school courses and half the sample thought them inappropriate to any course. The reactions suggest that the issue needs more specific examination subject by subject.

38. How would you deal with a difficulty of pupil indiscipline?

- |   | No. | %     |
|---|-----|-------|
| (1) Send him to the headmaster.   | 11  | 1.83  |
| (2) Punish him in front of his companions.                                | 19  | 3.17  |
| (3) Beat him.   | 16  | 2.67  |
| (4) Study his case in order to find the reasons for his apparent conduct. | 554 | 92.33 |

The overwhelming majority recognise the teachers responsibility for establishing individual motivation and remedy for indiscipline.

39. Are you of the opinion that radio and television education programmes are of value to teaching in the secondary school?

- |          |     |       |
|----------|-----|-------|
| (1) Yes. | 556 | 92.67 |
| (2) No.  | 44  | 7.33  |

The overwhelming majority of the opinion that radio and television having nothing to offer suggests either ignorance of the media or an ultra-conservative outlook.

40. If you agree that radio and television lessons are of value, to what extent would you use them?

	No.	%
(1) Every day.	209	37.6
(2) At weekly intervals.	289	51.9
(3) At monthly intervals.	22	4.0
(4) Seasonally (as it is now).	36	6.5

It is difficult to see what significance these responses have in the light of the previous question. Nevertheless approximately 37.6 per cent were in favour of applying these media daily. Nearly 51.9 per cent were of the opinion of using the radio and television lessons at weekly intervals. About 4.0 per cent preferred the monthly usage. Finally nearly 6.5 per cent approved the seasonal use of these media, or rather as it is in use at the present time.

41. Do you think that teaching religious doctrine directly affects the moral attitudes of pupils?

(1) Yes.	360	60.0
(2) No.	240	40.0

The answers were divided approximately 3 : 2 for and against a state of response which probably reflects the ambiguity of a period of social change in which values other than religion are impinging judgements.

42. What in your opinion can most contribute to the improvement of moral attitudes of youth?

(1) Teaching religion at school.	66	11.0
(2) Importance of good example at school.	150	25.0

	No.	%
(3) Controlling the cinema, publications and other mass media.	24	4.0
(4) Effects of the family atmosphere.	360	60.0
<p>Family training and example in school are accepted as the major contributions to development of the moral attitudes of youth. Religious instruction is seen to be of minor importance, and the control of mass media not significant.</p>		
43. How can the best results be obtained from the secondary education?		
(1) Expansion of secondary education (quantity).	26	4.33
(2) Giving the best education to the most able pupil (quality).	229	38.17
(3) A balance expansion of facilities for quantity and quality.	345	57.5
<p>The majority appreciate the need for balanced development of the quality and the quantity of the provision of secondary education.</p>		
44. What criterion would you advocate for pupil enrolment in scientific and literary sections?		
(1) According to his own tendencies, interests and aptitudes.	569	94.83
(2) According to his parents' wishes.	7	1.17
(3) According to the available vacancies at school in scientific or literary sections.	24	4.0

The teachers in the sample overwhelmingly favour the pupils exercising their own choice of course.

45. Suppose a pupil asks you to advise him how to study your subject-matter, which method will you advise him to follow?

(1) The prescribed book.

211 35.17

(2) Summarised book.

14 2.33

(3) Broad reading.

375 62.5

The majority favour broad reading, but one-third would place greatest relevance upon the prescribed book.

46. Do you allocate any time for external reading?

(1) Yes.

573 95.5

(2) No.

18 3.0

The answers to this question are as would be expected. Nevertheless 9 teachers ignored the answer to this item, approximately 1.5 per cent of the sample. The significance of answers is more clearly indicated by the responses to question 47.

47. If your answer to the previous item is in the affirmative, which books do you prefer?

(1) Books dealing with further reading concerning the school subjects.

360 63.0

(2) Educational and method books.

75 13.0

(3) Books on arts; music; literature.

No.	%
87	15.0

(4) Others.

51	9.0
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The majority of the teachers are evidently dominated in their attitudes towards reading time by concern for the pupils getting thoroughly acquainted with their text book materials.

48. How many lesson-periods should a teacher, in secondary school, provide per week?

(1) 14 lesson-periods per week.

179	29.83
-----	-------

(2) 16 lesson-periods per week.

226	37.67
-----	-------

(3) 18 lesson-periods per week.

181	30.17
-----	-------

(4) 20 lesson-periods per week.

14	2.33
----	------

The distribution of responses is much as to be expected, though the high proportion who favour a 14 lesson teaching weekly suggests that the teachers personal inclination rather than the economies of the teaching load motivated the response.

49. Do you think, from your experience, that the pupils' make satisfactory use of the school library?

(1) Yes.

148	24.67
-----	-------

(2) No.

452	75.33
-----	-------

Nearly three-quarters of the responses were negative, which suggests a general inadequacy of facilities or of motivation.

50. If your answer to the previous item is in the negative, what is the main reason for lack of satisfactory use of the school library?

(1) Lack of interesting books.

No.      %

103    22.8

(2) Contradiction between lessons-time and times when the library is open to pupils.

299    66.2

(3) Other reasons (Please state).

50    11.0

The responses such as administrative weakness as the greatest source of failure, with a significant proportion doubtful about worth of the books available. Approximately 50 teachers or 11 per cent of the sample state other reasons.

51. Which of the following words best describes the atmosphere of your school?

(1) Democratic.

386    64.33

(2) Authoritarian.

177    29.5

(3) Free-discipline.

37    6.17

The majority appear to regard the school organisation as democratic, but a significant proportion interpret their school organisation as being authoritarian.

52. Are you satisfied with your profession?

(1) Yes.

246    41.0

(2) No.

342    57.0

This response suggests that the morale of the teaching profession is not such

as to encourage the adjustment of the school system to meet the new needs. A dissatisfied teaching profession is not likely to think constructively about its responsibilities. Approximately 2 per cent or rather 12 teachers ignored this item.

53. If you are dissatisfied, why?

	No.	%
(1) The work is too wearing.	99	28.9
(2) Lack of security in case of illness, retirement or death.	210	61.4
(3) Disagreement with some colleagues.	15	4.4
(4) A particular reason, that is:	18	5.3

Approximately two-thirds are dissatisfied on monetary grounds and one third as what must be attributed to more personal and temperamental grounds. The dimension of the latter suggests the need for investigation into the methods of recruitment and selection.

54. Do you think that the syllabuses which you teach meet the needs of the pupils?

(1) Yes.	329	54.83
(2) No.	253	42.17

The proportion of the responses that think syllabuses do not meet the pupils' needs suggests the necessity for a major exercise in curriculum revision. Nearly 18 teachers, or 3 per cent of the sample gave no response.

55. If the pupils' needs are not met, what would you recommend should be done.

56. Summarise the society-service project, which was undertaken by your school this year:

Name of the Project:

Procedures:

57. If you have other recommendations concerning secondary education, please summarise them briefly:

The responses to questions 55-57 were not sufficient to justify inclusion in the commentary.

The full text of the questionnaire in Arabic is included in Appendix I at the end of this thesis. See pp. 411-418 .



CHAPTER TWELVECONCLUSION

In this discussion a survey has been made of the development of education in Egypt (U.A.R.) with special reference to provision for secondary education against the background of social, economic and political circumstances of the country from the beginning of the eighteenth century up till 1960.

The individual contributions in the early stages were mentioned by individuals or rulers who considered it necessary to develop an élite class to safeguard the control and government of the country. This resulted in the establishment of secondary education biased in favour of training for administration and military purposes. The same interests led to emphasis upon technical training to meet administrative and security requirements. The first step in industrial development was also very largely related to meeting the needs of the armed forces. And as has been pointed out this influenced the educational system.

Following the imposition of French and later British influence we have seen that the educational programme was given a new direction. Technical and commercial aspects of secondary education were completely neglected. The content of the secondary education was limited to subjects that generally related to the humanities. This reflected the dominating

interest of the intrusive powers and the absence of representation of the general interests of the society in the curriculum.

Modifications of the secondary education programme that were attempted in the period between the two World Wars and prior to the Revolution of 1952, lacked the direction of an established political, economic and social policy.

The ideological, political, sociological and economic changes resulting from the Revolution of 1952 have given specific direction to the development of policy for secondary education both in its quantity and its quality.

The legislative changes that have been promulgated and implemented, and the attention given to certain aspects of secondary education in various studies, investigations and reports have served to raise new issues many of which are touched upon directly or indirectly in the responses to the questionnaire provided by the secondary school teachers consulted.

The U.A.R. at the present time is undergoing a process of rapid social change, this aspect will transform the society into a new form. In Professor L.J. Lewis terms: "A transformation occurs when human societies change from a rural form to an urban form because people previously living in isolated circumstances, or belonging to societies with extremely stable tradition, suddenly enter into the mainstream of world activity and seek the material benefits

of modern technology."<sup>1</sup>

Education should play its complete part in maintaining various aspects of change. Because as we have seen before education is the keypoint to all desirable attitudes, which should be disseminate in the society. "Education is not a commodity to be received from the hands of a benevolent community and passively received. Education, in fact, is not possible unless there is a living response and co-operation from the recipient."<sup>2</sup> The role of education in economic growth is undeniable. It is considered that "no lasting economic progress is possible unless it is preceded or accompanied by a general improvement in educational levels."<sup>3</sup>

It is necessary to specify the actual role of primary and secondary education in the U.A.R. Primary education is compulsory and considered the minimum level of education to all children of the nation. Active steps should be taken in order to absorb all the children in the compulsory age range into this type of education. A radical reform in the provision of primary education ought to be attained. It seems that the weakness of the attainment of pupils enrolling in secondary

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1. L.J. Lewis, *Education and Political Independence in Africa and Other Essays* (Edinburgh: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd., 1962), p.113.
  2. L.J.Lewis, *op.cit.*, p.102.
  3. UNESCO, *Final Report, Conference of African States ...*, Annexes/Annex IV, p.61.

schools could be attributed to the primary stage defects.

Whilst secondary education should provide the general education for those who will develop specialist skills by training in industry and commerce and those persons who by responding to university training will be able to undertake the intellectual leadership of the society in the various walks of life. The "Secondary school is the all-important institution for training almost every type of leader required in Africa. It is therefore essential that activities of the secondary school be determined with the utmost regard for the needs of such leadership. The type of secondary education should vary with the needs of the community."<sup>1</sup> This is equally true of the function of secondary education in the U.A.R.

The secondary school stage is actually the backbone of the educational structure. This statement may be interpreted in the light of the following issues:

1. It accepts youth passing through a particular stage of the development process of their growth, i.e. adolescence. Thus it guides the pupils into two dimensions, developing their intellectual abilities and social interests; and leading to the discrimination and development of individual special aptitudes. Consequently and simultaneously it is involved into two-fold educational process, it develops the

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1. L.J. Lewis (editor), Phelps-Stokes Reports on Education in Africa (London: Oxford University Press, 1962), p.150.

general culture of the pupils, and it facilitates discovering, developing and orientating of the pupils' interests, aptitudes and potentialities, in order to enable them to respond most appropriately to their opportunities and capacities, on admission to higher education.

2. It may be considered as a channel for producing individuals capable of earning their living satisfactorily. This could be interpreted according to the universities' vacancies, or to the pupil's financial or social circumstances, which may handicap the admission to higher education. Thus, secondary education has another function, namely preparing for life.<sup>1</sup>

3. As a result of the two points raised above, it is clear that secondary education reflects the actual requirements imposed by the society's and individual's needs alike.<sup>2</sup> Consequently, throughout the present study of secondary education system, it is obvious that the above two poles, society and pupil, are the imperative and fundamental

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1. W.O. Lester Smith, Education (Harmondsworth, Middlesex, Penguin Books Ltd., 1962), p.206. See also, Board of Education, Report of the Consultative Committee on Secondary Education (London: H.M.S.O. 1938: Reprinted, 1959), p.415.
  2. George Shahla, Abdel-Sam'I Horbli and Almas Shihla Hanania, Al-Wa'i Al-Tarbawi wa Mustaqbal Al-Bilad Al-Arabiyyah "Educational Consciousness and the Future of the Arab Countries" (Beirut: Al-Ghandour Press, 1961), pp.56-62 (In Arabic). See also Abu Al-Futouh Radwan (editor), Al-Ahdaf wa Al-Mustawaiyat fi Al-Tarbiyah wa Al-Ta'lim "Objectives and Levels of Education" (Cairo: Al-Nagah Press, 1956), pp.60-82. (In Arabic).

alternatives of the whole situation. Educational aims, procedures, acts, etc., along the period discussed in the thesis, were virtually the outcome of the circumstances in action during a given time.

The exclusive prestige of secondary school should be modified. The traditional outlook of the pupils, parents, educational planners and executors should be reorientated to accept equality of status between general secondary and technical secondary education. The past acceptance of the Certificate conferred on the leavers of academic secondary education as a passport to office employment, in the view of many parents, pupils and teachers, this has been thought to be the function and justification of secondary education.

Two suggestions may be applicable in this respect:

1. Giving equal considerations to academic and technical education, and the same opportunity for the graduates from both types.
2. Encouraging technical education by means of wage and salary weighting in favour of technical employments against the white collar occupations.

Restricting admission to the academic secondary school to the best pupils from among preparatory stage leavers. This procedure is based upon the total marks attained by the pupil in the General Preparatory Certificate Examination. In my opinion this provision is not sufficient. The pupil's record card should also be taken into consideration. Furthermore,

results of various psychological tests concerning intelligence and aptitudes should be implemented.<sup>1</sup> Thus enrolment in general secondary stage would be more selective method based upon a combination of reliable criteria.

Reflection on the content and treatment of the curriculum at the secondary school level can be summarised up in the following terms: "In many quarters the aim of secondary education has been, and still is, interpreted in a narrow and almost exclusively materialist sense. One result of this is that one type of curriculum is almost exclusively followed. This curriculum is, in general, limited to academic subjects, most of which are chosen not for their educational value, nor for their contribution towards the pupils' future service to the community, but because the staff and the training can be easily provided for them. The concentration on only one aspect of a complete education, usually accompanied by a narrow interpretation of the purpose of that education, has an adverse effect on the work of the schools and on the whole character and outlook of the pupils who attend them. A narrow and selfish attitude may be encouraged in the pupils, and a type produced which has no interest in the community, little sympathy with its needs and problems, and little sense of responsibility towards it." <sup>2</sup>

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1. A.U.B., Al-Tarbiyah fi Al-Marhalah Al-Tanawiyah ..., p.176.  
2. L.J. Lewis, Educational Policy and Practice (Edinburgh: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd., 1956), p.28.

The above opinion is in general terms valid of the secondary school curriculum in Egypt prior to the promulgation of Law No.211 of 1953. Following the promulgation of this law many endeavours were exerted to modify the previous curriculum provided at the secondary school level. Practical subjects such as technical subjects, "radio, carpentry, rug-making, sculpture, painting, photography, chemical and agricultural industries, typewriting and domestic sciences."<sup>1</sup>

Thus by the introduction of new subjects, practical in their nature, the educationists sought to realise a balance between pure academic subjects of general cultural value and practical studies which may be of importance for the pupil in dealing satisfactory occupation on completion of the secondary school career. In this respect we find recognition that "What is urgently needed is a secondary education which will meet the needs of the people and which related to the rest of the educational system. The curriculum should be decided upon an organisation created which will facilitate the development of secondary education as an integral part of the whole educational structure."<sup>2</sup>

Concerning the curriculum of secondary education it should be permanently flexible and sensitive to the changing nature of the society. Furthermore the new ideologies which have been discussed in Chapter Seven should be imbodyed within

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1. U.A.R., Central Ministry of Education, Report on the Planning of General Secondary Education Curriculum in the U.A.R. (Cairo: S.O.P. Press, 1960), p.11.
  2. L.J.Lewis, op.cit., p.99.



the framework of the curriculum, namely within the content of various syllabuses and throughout all activities carried out under the supervision of the school. New subjects, such as, economics and geology are the medium for expanding the pupil's appreciation of the various potentialities of their country. Social studies and in particular sociology and society syllabuses should contribute towards providing the pupils with the solutions to the actual problems of their society.

Religious education is fundamental to contribute to understanding and appreciation of spiritual values. The study of the Arabic language should be provided for in order to give the pupil a wide and deep appreciation of the Arab heritage. Foreign languages are the medium for developing the international understanding and cooperation, so more consideration ought to be given in the curriculum. Optional selection should be provided in this area of study.

The school in practice, within the framework of the human relationship between the administration and the staff; the staff and the pupils; etc., should foster, maintain and develop the democratic, socialist and cooperative way of life. To sustain this end School Society Councils and Students' Federations were established in order "to provide pupils with practical training in cooperative democratic system by exchanging views on matters of interest to them and benefit

to their societies."<sup>1</sup> Both organisations should undertake their responsibilities to consolidate the relationship between local bodies, schools and the local governments.

Practical studies should also be given more attention and consideration. The provision for a particular vocation related to the nature of the community is necessary to facilitate the pupils doing and sort of handwork and to assimilate the respect of manual work among pupils.

No one can deny or ignore the importance of science and mathematics especially in the nineteen-sixties onwards. The secondary school should play its full role in providing the pupils at this stage, the competent knowledge of the meaning of science and the foundations of scientific knowledge for future specialisation.

In connection with the issue of the distribution of the pupils between scientific and literary sections, it was stated that "relative plans were based on extended specialisation in the scientific section, and its limitation in the literary section until a ratio of 3 : 1 between the two sections has been reached."<sup>2</sup> The admission to either

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1. U.A.R., Central Ministry of Education, Report on Education Progress, Presented at the XXIIIrd International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1960. (Cairo: Education Documentation Centre, 1960), p.20. See also, U.A.R. Ministry of Education, Education in the Egyptian Region and the Five-Year Plan (Cairo: S.O.P. Press, 1960), p.9.
  2. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Education Planning in the United Arab Republic (Cairo: Documentation and Research Centre for Education, 1962), p.16.

scientific or literary section, in my opinion, should be a matter of free choice exercised by the pupil himself. Selection in respect of such a ratio may prove very unsatisfactory, because the responses of the pupils who are drafted to either branch may prove unsatisfactory if the studies fail to appeal to the natural aptitudes and interests of the pupils.

The examination issue is undoubtedly considered one of the outstanding and stubborn aspects causing dissatisfaction among the educationists, teachers, parents and pupils. To overcome this problem, the second session examination was abolished in accordance with the items of the Ministerial Decree No.399 of 1956.<sup>1</sup> The Decree has recognised the feasibility of a pupil being promoted who failed in one<sup>2</sup> or two subjects and obtained at least 25 per cent of their total marks, "provided he was successfully passed the test of the Arabic language."<sup>3</sup> Another procedure was implemented to mitigate the situation, the current practice is to add 25 per cent of the pupil's scholastic-year achievement marks to 75 per cent which represents the marks of the final year promotion examination. The total of both marks constitute the criterion of the pupil's educational

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1. Al-Tarbiyah wa Al-Ta'lim fi Ashr Sanawat ... , p.35.  
 2. M.K. Harby and Z.M. Mehrez, Al-Morshed fi Nozum Al-Ta'lim..., p.231. See also, Circulation No.144, issued on 20 May 1957.  
 3. U.A.R., Ministry of Education, Report on Development of Education in the U.A.R., during the year 1960-1961 (Cairo: Documentation and Research Centre for Education, 1960), p.16.

achievement. In my opinion two alternatives in this domain could be suggested: either (1) Extending the pupil's scholastic year achievement marks to 50 per cent, and 50 per cent for the final year examination, or (2) Assessment of the pupil's efficiency for promotion to a succeeding grade should solely be based upon the pupil's record card which shows his growth in all dimensions, with the addition of the staff opinion. Applying this proposal means attainment of the actual evaluation of the pupil's development not only in educational achievement but in social, cultural, athletic and aesthetic activities also.

The extension of general secondary education by a supplementary year is suggested here in order to select the best candidate for admission to the university. This proposed year is of supreme importance to attain a high standard of achievement and specialisation among those who intend to pursue the tertiary level of education.

The subjects provided in this supplementary year should be fundamentally related to the future specialisation of the candidates for the university. Attaining high marks in the General Secondary Education Certificate may be considered the enrolment requirement for admission to this year. This proposal ensures the goal of providing the institutions of higher education with capable and appropriate individuals.

Regarding the inquiry into the growth of the scientific section in secondary schools, all evidences refer

to its development at the expense of literary section. It is indispensable to take into consideration the necessity of the latter. This observation is substantial at the present time. Equilibrium between both sides of human knowledge should be occurred. "In planning the curriculum of general education in the secondary schools a balance must be sought between the claims of humanities, social studies, and science and mathematics. This balance can be maintained only by remembering that the function of the secondary school is to produce not various types of specialists but young men and women capable of exercising an intelligent and constructive influence in society no matter what their mode of livelihood may be."<sup>1</sup>

The fulfilling of this objective in the U.A.R. suggests the establishment of a new pattern of secondary school. This type of school should be similar in character to the Secondary Comprehensive Schools of the United Kingdom. It is necessary to throw some light on this school, in order to understand its main function. "An official definition of the comprehensive school is that it is 'one which is intended to cater for all the secondary education of all the children in a given area without an organisation into three sides [Grammar, Technical and Secondary Modern Schools]'.<sup>2</sup> Thus, as the Comprehensive Secondary School

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1. L.J.Lewis, op.cit., p.101.

2. Edward Blishen (editor), op.cit., p.75.

considers the developing special interests and aptitudes of the growing-ups, the school should "offer a wide range of possible courses to meet the different needs of different pupils."<sup>1</sup> It is also necessary to know the conception of this education system, "as a concept the comprehensive school is above all a school for the community."<sup>2</sup>

The provision for such a pattern of schools may be experimental in the initial stages. Achieving success in their careers, and satisfactory results, throughout their products, may stimulate to the foundation of more schools of this type.

The Secondary Modern School <sup>3</sup> is another new type in the British education system. It was established in order to prepare its pupils to undertake their future responsibilities in their society. "The role and purpose of the Modern School need to be considered with reference both to the economic and technological changes."<sup>4</sup>

Nowadays in the U.A.R., there is a similar type to the Secondary Modern School.

The Practical Preparatory Schools in operation at the present time in the U.A.R. are similar in character to the

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1. Robin Pedley, *The Comprehensive School* (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1963), p.87.
  2. *Ibid.*, p.132.
  3. Chester W. Harris (editor), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), p.1239.
  4. William Taylor, *The Secondary Modern School* (London: Faber and Faber, 1963), p.29.

Secondary Modern Schools of the United Kingdom. They absorb approximately 70 per cent of the primary education leavers. "These experimental schools are known as 'Practical' since they have a general practical bias which is not purely technical."<sup>1</sup>

Considerable attention was given to technical education as an agent of developing the U.A.R. by applying people with the skills acquired in the industrialisation drive, thereby ensuring the raising of national income, creating more opportunities for employment and raising the general standards of living.

The syllabuses provided in the technical secondary education with its main three branches: industrial, commercial and agricultural have been discussed in Chapter Nine. In Chapter Ten we have investigated particular problems which confront some leavers of the technical secondary education. In order to overcome the obstacle of unemployment, it is of great importance to take into consideration the actual manpower requirements. Thus it seems that the labour market, to some extent, does not contribute sufficient employment opportunities. Hence we must bear in mind that "any change in educational policies should be very carefully synchronized with economic growth, for what is the use of turning out large numbers of technicians if the economy is

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1. U.A.R., Report on the Planning of General Secondary Education Curricula in the U.A.R., p.10.

unable to absorb them? Vocational guidance and planning must therefore go very closely hand in hand and while arbitrary direction is to be eschewed, every effort should be made to avoid failures and breakdowns in the economic machine."<sup>1</sup>

The provision of feminine technical secondary education as we have referred to in Chapter Ten, may be considered at the present time a luxury rather than an essential type of schooling. To remedy the situation, it is indispensable to add some productive subjects to the curriculum in order to bestow opportunities for the leavers from this type of schools to participate satisfactorily in the reconstruction of the nation.

Some of the teachers are fully appreciative of the need to modify the existing provision of secondary education if it is to contribute successfully to the development of the welfare of the nation in general and to fit young people to undertake their part in the future social, economic and political development of the nation. It is equally clear from some responses of the teachers that they themselves will need in-service training of a systematic nature in order that they may be better adjusted to their teaching both in content and in methods to meet the needs demanded by the social, economic and political changes envisaged in the development of the country. Virtually it is well known among educationists that

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1. UNESCO, Final Report, Annexes/Annex IV, p.59.



"curriculum and school are a mere façade if they are without intelligent, enthusiastic and persevering teachers."<sup>1</sup>

Answers to many items of the questionnaire indicate that a great deal more information is necessary before it will be possible to provide the teachers with the knowledge and understanding to successfully modify the content of the secondary school curriculum and organisation in the light of the new needs. No legislative reform of the content of education, in general secondary or in technical secondary education, in particular, can have any chance of success unless the teaching staff is equipped to undertake the revolution in attitudes and to meet the new demands in terms of knowledge and methodology required.

Nevertheless, the questionnaire applied in connection with secondary education and the teacher's opinion on the contemporary provision for this type of education may furnish us with a considerable guidance of the direction of reform necessary. The responses in themselves, in many cases, may be regarded as suggestions, proposals and recommendations for a desirable system of secondary education, moreover, they manifest the majority opinion, reorganise the need for a re-appraisal of the secondary education system in relation to the new objectives of the U.A.R. to ensure the political, social and economic development.

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1. Michael Hutchinson and Christopher Young, *Educating the Intelligent* (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1962), p.231.

استفتاء

عن

التعليم الثانوى المصرى

وضوح

محمد سمير حسنين

طالب بقسم الدراسات العليا

معهد التربية • جامعة لندن

الاسم :

المؤهلات :

مدرس ( اذكر اسم المادة التى تدرسها ) :

بمدرسة : ( بنين - بنات )

المدة التى قضيتها مدرسا فى التعليم الثانوى :

يهدف هذا الاستفتاء الى جمع معلومات لدراسة حالة التعليم الثانوى المصرى

فيما يتعلق بالأهداف ، المناهج ، مدة الدراسة ، مستوى الطلبة العلمى أو التحصيلى ،

المواد المختلفة وأهميتها ، وما الى ذلك .

ولما كان المدرسون هم محور العملية التربوية ، وعصب أى اصلاح تربوى منشود ،

ولما كان لهم من الدراية فى فهم المشكلات التربوية نتيجة لخبرتهم الشخصية والمهنية

والفنية ، لذا فهم أول الناس لتباين الدايق ولامدادنا بأرائهم ومقترحاتهم وتوصياتهم

للقاء الضوء على التنويرات المرغوب فيها .

والمرجو الاجابة عن أسئلة هذا الاستفتاء بالدقة التى تحقق الأهداف المنشودة .

ملحوظة : المبرر ونجح علامة ( x ) على يمين العبارة التى تختارونها وتعبّر عن رأيكم

علما بأن يجب اختيار اجابة واحدة فقط .

## استفتاء

عن  
التعليم الثانوى المصرى

وضع

محمد سمسمير حسنين  
طالب بتسم الدراسات العليا  
معهد التربية • جامعة لندن

الأسم :

المؤهلات :

مدرس ( اذكر اسم المادة التى تدرسها ) :

بمدرسة : ( بنين - بنات )

المدة التى قضيتها مدرسا فى التعليم الثانوى :

يهدف هذا الاستفتاء الى جمع معلومات لدراسة حالة التعليم الثانوى المصرى  
فيما يتعلق بالأهداف ، المناهج ، مدة الدراسة ، مستوى الطلبة العلمى أو التحصيلى ،  
المواد المختلفة وأهميتها ، وما الى ذلك .

ولما كان المدرسون هم محور العملية التربوية ، ونصب أى اصلاح تربوى مشهود ،  
ولما كان لهم من الدراية فى فهم المشكلات التربوية نتيجة لخبرتهم الشخصية والمهنية  
والفنية ، لذا فهم أول الناس لتباين الدريق ولإمدادنا بأرائهم وبتجرباتهم وتوصياتهم  
لإلتناء الضوء على التغيرات المرغوب فيها .

والدرجو الاجابة عن أسئلة هذا الاستفتاء بالدقة التى تحقق الأهداف المنشودة .

ملحوظة : الرجوع وضح علامة ( x ) على يمين العبارة التى تختارونها وتعبّر عن رأيكم  
علما بأننى يجب اختيار اجابة واحدة فقط .

\* \* \*

- ٢ -

١ - ما هو أهم عيب لمدرسي المدرسة الثانوية العامة ؟

- أ - ضعف المستوى التحصيلي للطلبة الذين يلتحقون بالمدرسة الثانوية •  
 ب - قصور بعض المناهج •  
 ج - قصر فترة الدراسة •  
 د - نظم الامتحانات والنقل •

٢ - ما هو نوع التعليم الثانوي الذي يجب أن تكون له الأسبقية في التوسع ؟

- أ - التعليم الثانوي العام •  
 ب - التعليم الثانوي الزراعي •  
 ج - التعليم الثانوي الصناعي •  
 د - التعليم الثانوي التجاري •

٣ - هل تعتقد أن ثلاث سنوات كافية لاعداد الطالب الثانوي للالتحاق بالجامعات ؟

- أ - نعم •  
 ب - لا •

٤ - اذا كنت تعتقد أن المدة غير كافية فكم سنة تتترحاضاعتها ؟

- أ - سنة •  
 ب - سنتان •

٥ - اذا كان مستوى الطلبة التحصيلي ضعيفا ، فما أهم سبب في رأيك ، لهذا الضعف ؟

- أ - التعليم السابق في المرحلتين الابتدائية والاعدادية •  
 ب - صعوبة مناهج التعليم الثانوي •  
 ج - عدم مثابرة الطلبة على الدراسة •  
 د - نظام الامتحانات والنقل •

٦ - ما هو أهم علة للتعليم الثانوي في نطارك ؟

- أ - الاعداد للحياة •  
 ب - الاعداد للالتحاق بالجامعات •  
 ج - الاعداد للوظائف السابعة •

٧ - هل ينبغي على الدولة أن تجعل التعليم الثانوي العام مجانيا وللجميع ؟

- أ - نعم •  
 ب - لا •

٨ - هل تعتقد بأن أهمية تدريس اللغات الأجنبية في المدارس الثانوية العامة ؟

- أ - نعم •  
 ب - لا •

- ٣ -

٩ - ما هي لغة تفضلها لطلبة التعليم الثانوي ؟

- أ - الانجليزية
- ب - الفرنسية
- ج - الايطالية
- د - الألمانية
- هـ - لغة أخرى ( المرجو ذكرها ) :

١٠ - تحتاج الجمهورية العربية المتحدة الى فنيين في اانة قطاعات الحياة

وبخاصة في المجالات التكنولوجية . ماذا تقترح لتقيد هذا الاتجاه ؟

- أ - اعطاء بعض المواد التكنولوجية في المدرسة الثانوية العامة .
- ب - ابقاء حال التعليم الثانوي النظري كما هو عليه الآن .
- ج - ترك هذه العلوم التكنولوجية للمدارس الفنية الثانوية .

١١ - ما رأيك في نظام الامتحانات الحالي ؟

- أ - نظام يجب تعديله .
- ب - نظام يجب ابقاء عليه .
- ج - نظام يجب التاؤه تماما .

١٢ - ما رأيك في نظام التمويض الموجود الآن في امتحانات النقل ؟

- أ - نظام يجب ابقاء عليه .
- ب - نظام يجب تعديله .
- ج - نظام يجب التاؤه .
- د - نظام يجب التوسع نيه .

١٣ - اذا كنت توافر، على الامتحانات ، وطلب منك وضع امتحان ، فما هي الطريقة

التي تفضلها ؟

- أ - الاختبارات الموضوعية .
- ب - اختبارات البتال .
- ج - المزاوجة بين النظامين .

١٤ - ما هو المعيار الذي تقترحه لقبول الدلبة في التعليم الثانوي العام ؟

- أ - درجات الدلبة في امتحان شهادة الدراسة الاعدادية .
- ب - نتائج الاختبارات المنفسية المختلفة ( ذكاء ، ميول ، قدرات الخ ) .
- ج - المزاوجة بين النظامين السابقين .

١٥ - هل أنت موافق على نظام التخصص الحالي ( علمي وأدبي ) ؟

- أ - نعم .
- ب - لا .

١٦ - هل تظن أن المدة الحالية كافية للتخصص ؟

- أ - ينبغي زيادتها سنة أخرى .
- ب - ينبغي تركها كما هي الآن .
- ج - ينبغي التاؤها كلية .

١٧ - هل توافق على نقل الطالب من التعليم الثانوى العام الى التعليم الثانوى  
اللقى ، فى حالة عدم نجاحه والعكس بالعكس؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

١٨ - هل توافق على التعليم المشترك فى المرحلة الثانوية ؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

١٩ - اذا كنت موافقا على فكرة التعليم المشترك ، فما هو أهم سبب دفعك لذلك ؟

- أ - لمجابهة مطالب المجتمع الصناعى  
ب - لمسايرة الاتجاه الاشتراكى الحاضر  
ج - لاجاد التناهنس العلمى بين الطالبة والطالبات  
د - للقضاء على مشاكل الشباب التى تظهر فى هذه المرحلة

٢٠ - اذا كنت غير موافق على فكرة التعليم المشترك ، فما هو أهم سبب دفعك لذلك ؟

- أ - لمسايرة التقاليد الدينية  
ب - لخطورة الاختلاط فى مرحلة المراهقة  
ج - لاختلاف مطالب كل من الجنسين فى هذه المرحلة

٢١ - ما هو أنسب المؤهلات التى يجب أن تتوفر فى مدرس المدرسة الثانوية النظرية ؟

- أ - مؤهل جامعى بالإضافة الى مؤهل تربوى  
ب - مؤهل جامعى فقط  
ج - ليسانس او بكالوريوس كلية المعلمين  
د - دبلوم معاهد المعلمين الخاصة

٢٢ - تتفق الدولة ملايين الجنيهات سنويا على التعليم الثانوى . ما رأيك فى هذا  
الصدق ؟

- أ - ينبغي أن يتحمل آباء وأولياء أمور الطلبة بعض هذا العبء  
ب - ينبغي على الحكومة مواصلة الانفاق على التعليم  
ج - ينبغي التناء المصروفات الاضافية  
د - ينبغي أن تقتصر مجانية التعليم على الطالبة الموهوبين او الفقراء فقط
- ٢٣ - هل توافق على اللامركزية فى التعليم ؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

٢٤ - اذا كنت موافقا على اللامركزية فى التعليم فأى المجالات تظن أنها أولسى  
بالاهتمام ؟

- أ - المناهج  
ب - الامتحانات  
ج - الادارة التعليمية  
د - جميع النواحي السابقة

- ٥ -

- ٢٥ - إذا كنت موافقا على اللا مركزية ، فما هو الحل الذي تقترحه للقبول في الجامعة ؟
- أ - امتحان مسابقة للدخول الى الجامعة .  
 ب - تخصيص نسبة مئوية لكل منطقة تعليمية .  
 ج - تخصيص سنة اضافية للطلبة الراغبين في الدخول الى الجامعة .
- ٢٦ - هل تعتقد أنه من الواجب الاهتمام بالطلبة الموهوبين ؟
- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .
- ٢٧ - هل أدت المدرسة الثانوية نصيبها في خدمة البيئة المحلية ؟
- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .
- ٢٨ - ما هي أهم صعوبة تواجهك في عمالك في المدرسة الثانوية ؟
- أ - التعامل مع الزملاء .  
 ب - التعامل مع الطلبة .  
 ج - التعامل مع الادارة .
- ٢٩ - كيف تستطيع المدرسة الثانوية المساعدة في الاسراع في التضخيم الاجتماعي ؟
- أ - القيام بحملات محو الأمية .  
 ب - القيام بالنشاط الاجتماعي في البيئة التي توجد فيها .  
 ج - الرأى بالتزامات الثقافية والحلمية نحو الطلبة .
- ٣٠ - تقوم الجمهورية العربية المتحدة بحركة تطوير هائلة . في ضوء ما سبق  
 ماذا تحب لدليلك أن يستغلوا فيه وقت فراغهم في الأجازة الصيفية ؟
- أ - قيام الطلبة بإنشاء الطرق وشرق الترع .  
 ب - قيام الطلبة بتعليم الأيمن في مناطقهم .  
 ج - قيام الطلبة بالمساهمة في المشاريع الانتاجية : الزراعية والصناعية والتجارية .  
 د - قيام الطلبة بالاستعداد للاستعداد للامام الدراسي المقبل .
- ٣١ - هل تظن أن المدرسة التي تقوم بالتدريس فيها بمستوى الشروط من حيث  
 المعامل والمكتبة واجهزة الرياضة البدنية . والفصول وغيرها ؟
- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .
- إذا كان هناك نقصا حده :
- ٣٢ - هل تظن أن تخري المدرسين من معهد واحد يساعد على تحسين النتائج  
 التربوية ؟
- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .
- ٣٣ - هل أنت راضٍ من عدد الحصص الذي تقوم بتدريسه ؟
- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .

٣٤ - هل تعتقد أن عدد الطلبة في الفصول التي تقوم بالتدريس فيها مناسب للقيام بالصلية التربوية كما ينبغي؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

٣٥ - أي أنواع التعليم تعتقد أن له الأسبقية في التوسع؟

أ - التعليم الابتدائي  
ب - التعليم الإعدادي  
ج - التعليم الثانوي  
د - التعليم الجامعي

٣٦ - هل حققت تشكيلات مجلس المجتمع المدرسي واتحادات الطلاب الاهداف التي شكلت من اجلها؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

٣٧ - هناك طرز تدريس حديثة كالوحدات والمشكلات وغيرها • هل تعتقد انه من الممكن تطبيقها في التعليم الثانوي؟

- أ - من الممكن تطبيقها في قسمي التخصص  
ب - من الممكن تطبيقها في القسم العام  
ج - لا يمكن تطبيقها في التعليم الثانوي

٣٨ - كيف تتصرف ازاء طالب مشكل اعتاد أن يتحدى النظام المدرسي في الفصل؟

- أ - ترسله الى الناظر  
ب - تؤتبه أمام زملائه  
ج - توقع عليه عقابا بدنيا  
د - تدرس حالته لتعرف الأسباب المؤدية لذلك

٣٩ - هل تعتقد في فائدة البرامج الثقافية التي تداع عن طريق الراديو والتلفزيون بالنسبة للتعليم الثانوي؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا

٤٠ - اذا كنت ترى فائدة في البرامج الثقافية المذاعة عن طريق الراديو والتلفزيون فالى اى مدى تفضل استخدامها؟

- أ - يوميا ( برامج تداع يوميا )  
ب - اسبوعيا ( برامج تداع عدد من المرات في الاسبوع )  
ج - شهريا ( برامج تداع عدد من المرات في الشهر )  
د - نعليا ( كما هو متبع حاليا )

٤١ - هل تعتقد أن تلقين الدين في المدرسة الثانوية كفيل للتأثير في الاتجاهات الأخلاقية للطلاب؟

- أ - نعم  
ب - لا



- ٧ -

٤٢ - ما هي خير الوسائل التي تمتد لها أكثر تأثيراً في رفع المستوى الخلقى

عند الشباب ؟

- أ - تلقين مادة الدين في المدرسة .
  - ب - الاهتمام بالقراءة الحسنة في المدرسة .
  - ج - الاشراف على السينما والمطبخات وغيرها .
  - د - تأثيرات الجور الحائلي والتربية المنزلية .
- ٤٣ - أي السبل تفضلها للحصول على أفضل النتائج التربوية المرجوة من التعليم

الثانوي ؟

- أ - التوسع في نشر التعليم الثانوي ( الاهتمام بالكم ) .
  - ب - الاهتمام باعطاء الطالب الكفة التعليم الأفضل ( الاهتمام بالكيف ) .
  - ج - الموازنة بين كلا من الكم والكيف .
- ٤٤ - ما هو الأسس الذي تقترحه لتوزيع الطلبة بين شصيتي العلوم والآداب ؟
- أ - على أساس رغباتهم وحيولهم وتدرات الطالب .
  - ب - على أساس رغبة وألد الطالب .
  - ج - على أساس امكانيات المدرسة الموجود فيها .
- ٤٥ - نفرض أن طالبا ما سألك النصيحة في كيفية دراسة المادة التي تدرسها له فأى الطرق تنصحه باتباعها ؟

- أ - الاعتقاد على الكتاب المقرر .
  - ب - الاعتماد على الملخصات .
  - ج - الاعتماد على الاطلاع الخارجي .
- ٤٦ - هل تخصص وقتاً للقراءة الخارجية ؟

- أ - نعم .
- ب - لا .

٤٧ - اذا كانت اجابتك على السؤال السابق بالايجاب ه فأى الكتب تفضلها ؟

- أ - المادة التي اقوم بتدريسها .
- ب - المواد التربوية وطرق التدريس .
- ج - الكتب الأدبية او الموسيقية أو اللغوية .
- د - كتب أخرى .

٤٨ - ما هو عدد الحصص الذي تتخرج أن يقوم بتدريس الدرس الثانوي في الاسبوع ؟

- أ - ١٤ حصة اسبوعياً .
- ب - ١٦ حصة اسبوعياً .
- ج - ١٨ حصة اسبوعياً .
- د - ٢٠ حصة اسبوعياً .

٤٩ - هل تعتقد ه نتيجة لغيرتك الشخصية ه أن اقبال الطلبة على المكتبة

الدرسية عرض ؟

- أ - نعم .
- ب - لا .

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٥٠ - إذا كانت اجابتك على السؤال السابق بالنفي ، فما هو أهم أسباب انصراف الطلبة على القراءة في المكتبة المدرسية ؟

- أ - عدم وجود كتب مشوقة للطلبة .  
 ب - التضارب بين اوقات الدراسة وأوقات فتح المكتبة .  
 ج - اسباب أخرى ( الرجاء ذكرها ) :  
 ٥١ - ما هي الكلمة التي يمكن ان تصف بها الجو المدرسي في مدرستك ؟

- أ - ديمقراطي .  
 ب - تسلطي أو حازم .  
 ج - مطلق الحرية .

٥٢ - هل أنت راض عن مهنتك كمدرس ؟

- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .

٥٣ - إذا كنت غير راض ، فلماذا ؟

- أ - المجهود الشاق الذي يتطلبه التدريس .  
 ب - قلة المرتب .

- ج - قلة الضمانات في حالة المرض أو العجز أو الوفاة .  
 د - سبب آخر وهو :

٥٤ - هل تعتقد أن المنهج الذي تتروم بتدريسه مناسب بمطالب الطلبة ؟

- أ - نعم .  
 ب - لا .

٥٥ - إذا كان المنهج لا يتقابل حاجات ومطالب الطلبة ، اكتب ما تقترحه لاصلاح هذا المنهج .

٥٦ - اذكر باختصار احد مشروعات الخدمة الاجتماعية التي قامت بها مدرستك في المجال البيئي هذا العام .

اسم المشروع :  
 خيارات التنفيذ :

٥٧ - إذا كانت لديك مقترحات أخرى ، فاجابة بالتعليم الثانوي . الرجاء ذكرها بايجاز :

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