

The influential of International trends on Egyptian higher education from Perspectives of Social Justice and Quality

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ABSTRACT: Egypt is one of the Arab developing countries that began establishing higher education earlier than most Arab countries. It used to be a source of educational, scientific, and culture diffusion to the Arab world. Thus, it is our expectation that Egypt should occupy a high status in higher education. However, the status of Egyptian higher education now is unsatisfactory, compared to Egypt's past and rapid, successive global developments. This status is based on lack of two basic elements- Equity and Quality.

So the researcher will begin with brief of the notions of social justice and quality in higher education. Then, I will introduce an overview of the developments in Egyptian higher education in relation to equity and quality.

In the third and fourth parts of this paper, the researcher will identify some trends of some international organizations about the equity and quality, which give us two essential aspects: First, to determine what we mean by equity and quality. Second, to explore and find out which of these global and international trends are more influential in the development of higher education decision-making and policy in Egypt.

Then, I will deal with and evaluate the developments of Egyptian higher education from the perspective of quality and equity. In the end, the researcher will present the conclusions that include some suggestions to improve equity and quality of Egyptian higher education, which includes:

- First: Inequality at Regional Level
- Second: Inequality in terms of Gender
- Third: Inequality in hiring and in the Egyptian Workplace

Given these findings, the policies of free higher education introduced in the early 1960s have been entirely undermined and new policies are needed. Thus, the paper has six suggestions to improve the quality and equity of higher education in Egypt. The government should:

- Look for new resources to provide quality free higher education to all those who need.
- Redistribute of private, foreign and public higher institutes on the all regions especially in Upper Egypt and Suez Canal.
- Push both public and private higher education institutes to assure the quality.
- Push private and foreign universities' to commitments by requiring them to make education available to more students.
- Offer new academic courses at public universities and bridge the quality gap with private and foreign universities
- Finally the government should benefit from the World Bank and GATS policies to achieve merit access in higher education

KEYWORDS: International trends, higher education, Social Justice, Quality, Egypt.

INTRODUCTION

Egypt is one of the Arab developing countries that began establishing higher education early, compared to most Arab countries. For example, in the early 1960s, while there were five prestigious universities in Egypt (Al-Azhar, Cairo, Alexandria, Ain Shams and Asuit); none of the other Arab countries had any universities at all (Ibrahim 1985).

Egypt used to be a source of educational, scientific, and cultural diffusion to the Arab world. In the past, Egyptian instructors, either in Egypt or in their own countries (Mina et al. 1999), educated the students of the Arab world. Therefore, we cannot deny this prestigious Egyptian role in the field of higher education. Thus, it is our expectation that Egypt should occupy a high status in higher education.

However, the condition of higher education now is unsatisfactory, and compatible neither with the status of higher education in Egypt, with its starting point in this field, nor with the rapid and successive global developments (National Specialized Councils 1994-1999; Egyptian Annual report 2012).

The vision about the status of Egyptian higher education, which will be discussed in this paper, is based on two basic elements - equity and quality and it built on these elements represent the cornerstones of any good higher educational system, namely: equal opportunities in higher education and the quality of higher education. The quality and equal opportunities are linked largely to the social and economic outcomes of higher education. Equal opportunities for higher education with a commitment to its quality are prerequisites for achieving significant societal and economic outcomes (Paul et al. 1987; Giroux 1990-1997; Lindsay 1998; Goldman 1977-1987; Wilson 1969; Kattz 1969; Ragui and Kraftt 2010).

This paper begins with a brief historical background of the notions of justice, equal opportunity and equity in higher education. Then, the researcher introduce a brief historical background of the development of the higher education system in Egypt and the relationship of this development with the elements under analysis in this paper, which are social justice and quality.

Where and what is happening to higher education in Egypt cannot be isolated from global trends and international developments. Therefore, it is necessary to identify the trends and visions of these concepts of quality and equity in higher education in the third and fourth parts of this paper. This knowledge will give us benefits in two essential aspects:

First: to determine what we mean by quality, equal opportunities, equity and justice to determine suitable conceptions of our vision in this paper.

Second: to explore and find out which of these global visions and international trends are the most influential in the development of higher education decision-making and policy in Egypt.

Then, in the fifth part, the researcher will deal with and evaluate the developments in the Egyptian higher education system and its policies, which have profound impacts on elements of quality and justice. This will be evident in the following sections.

The paper ends with a finding and conclusion that include the Forecasting of the some requirements to improve equity in Egyptian higher education in the future and some findings and conclusion.

The Problem

Egypt does not occupy a high status in education especially in higher education in spite of some of its achievements, particularly with regard to quantitative expansion and diversity of educational institutions. The conditions of higher education now, as everyone including those responsible for the education themselves agrees, are unsatisfactory and suit neither the status of Egypt nor the rapid and successive global educational developments (National Specialized Councils 1994-1999; Egyptian Annual report 2012).

This is the starting point of this paper. In the context of Egyptian higher education, there is a strong significant correlation between a student's social class and the attending higher education institutions especially in private higher education institutions (El-Shikhaby 1983; The World Bank, 2002).

When we look at the higher education system in Egypt, we see many kinds of higher education institutes, which follow the Ministry of Higher Education.

Table 1. The numbers of students in several kind of Higher education institutes

Institutes	Number of institutes in 2010/2011	The number of Students in 2010/2011
Public universities	27	1,649,986
technical institutes	32	47,328
higher institutes and academic	96	90,989
privet universities	20	10,726

Sources:

- Ministry of Higher Education: Private universities Graduates students 2010/2011, Egypt in figures 2013, Ministry of Higher Education, intermediate technical institutes graduates following 2011/2012, Ministry of Higher Education: higher institutes and academic graduates following for Ministry of Higher Education 2010/2011

This diversity of Egyptian higher education institutes has not been a good policy for achieving equal opportunities; this is reflected in divergences of the quality of the educational process and graduates. We need therefore to determine and analyze these divergences in equal opportunities within Egyptian higher education, particularly from the perspective of the quality aspect. Thus, **the problem of the study** can be stated **through the following questions:**

- What are the developments in the notions of justice and equity in the world?
- How are these notions of justice and equity reflected in Egyptian higher education?
- What are the recent developments in Egyptian higher education in terms of justice, equity, and quality?
- Who are the main international actors in these developments? Moreover, who are the most important trends for these international actors?
- How are these trends reflected on Egyptian higher from perspectives of social Justice and quality?
- What are the findings and results that can guide the work of policy and decision-making processes in the future?

Date Sources:

This paper depends on analyzing of the quantitative data that includes official statistics published by the Government of Egypt, UNESCO and The World Bank. Where available, we report the data on all regions in Egypt to gauge higher educational inequality associated among these regions. In this analysis we include the seven regions, these are Delta region, Greater Cairo region, Alex. region, Assiut region, South of Upper Egypt region, North of Upper Egypt region and Suez Canal region. In addition, the researcher focused on the differences between the public higher education and private higher education in Egypt.

Additional sources of quantitative data include publications by International population council on the analyses of Survey of Young People in Egypt, focusing on Education and Job Market.

The quantitative and qualitative data presented in the fourth part of my study are taken from NAQAAE - National Authority for quality assurance and accreditation of Education, which include some reports about the quality of Egyptian higher education in both public and private institutions.

1 SOCIAL JUSTICE AND QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The concept of social justice is at the center of many contemporary public policy debates in Egypt and elsewhere in the world. It developed from the ancient Greeks and Romans, beginning in the Fifth century B.C. There were many concepts, which grew to organize political and social life by treating equals all citizens as equals and empowering them to succeed in achieving their goals (Theophanous 1994).

Many theorists agree that equal opportunity is a requirement of a democratic/ just society. However, some others cannot determine the importance of this requirement and how it is balanced against other requirements for justice (Paul et al. 1987)

There are many trends that define the concept of equal opportunity and justice from many perspectives. Therefore, there is no single definition of equal opportunity and justice. However, the literature suggests that we can use the notions of human rights, fairness, equality, and equity. Now, we have found more theorizing writers about justice and equal opportunities discussing the difference between equity and equality (Moor 2004; Bates 2007; Nelson et al. 2009, 1997; Paul 1999). They determined that equity often replaces politically motivated conceptions of equality and justice, which are deemed as necessary for democratic life (Theophanous 1994).

Paul noted that the concept of equity depends on two principles. The first principle is liberty and the second is equality, which are very important to achieve a democratic society (Paul 1999). Miller agreed with Paul that equality is one of equity's principles, in relation to two keywords -- desires and needs. Desires are the limit of quests for equality in distributions of goods and in opportunities because there are some persons that may deserve more than equal shares of certain goods or services (Franklin 1993). From this idea, the moral demand here is not really to create fair competitions for positions interpreted as equal chances, but rather to create fair competitions (Goldman 1977).

On the other hand, there are some theorists who focused on the institutional context of justice and emphasized the comparative merits of different societies, which are very important to consider before we ask about access, distribution of resources, and equal opportunity (Fraser and Gale 2000; Singh 2011). In this context, Goldman considered a possible justification for an attempt to ensure equal opportunity. He found that the attempt to defend equal opportunity in the terms of some broader concepts of equal opportunity is inadequate because what effect equal opportunity will have on the prospects and conditions of different individuals and segments of society is unclear (Goldman 1977).

When we do not have equal conditions, we cannot make socially related opportunities equal. "It is not simply that emphasis upon equality of opportunities without equality of conditions is a mask for continual injustice." (Goldman 1977 quoted by Frankel et al. 1987, 102).

Many writers asserted that higher education is the key social institution in a democratic society (Meyer 1977; Carnoy 1992; Giroux 1990; Lindsay 1989, 1997). They asserted that the critical purpose of the higher educational system in a democratic society is to prepare the citizens for their roles as participants in their society. According to Lipkin, education "must prepare individuals for the full and equal citizenship that is required by the liberal democracy" (Lipkin 1994, 77). Giroux argued that universities should have a strong moral and ethical responsibility. He believed that "the institutions of higher education regardless of their academic status represent places that affirm and legitimate existing views of the world produce new ones, and authorize and shape particular social relations" (Giroux 1990, 114). As a result, academics view the curtailment of equity policies as a threat to democracy and they argue that "it is not enough to open the gates of opportunity." We must create the conditions for students to have the ability to go through those gates (Paul 1987, 82). John Hope Franklin explained that without legislation, judicial decisions, and executive orders, individuals and groups of individuals are incapable of sustaining actions that would make the country a better place in which to live (Franklin 1993).

In short, in Egypt we need to look at the legislative policy in higher education systems and the socioeconomic conditions of previous historical periods. Governmental action is needed to guide the higher education system in both private and public institutions to erase inequality gaps.

2 JUSTICE AND QUALITY IN EGYPTIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Egypt began establishing its higher education system in 1908, with Fouad I National University (a not-for-profit institution which became a governmental university in 1925, bearing the name of the Egyptian University, and later became Cairo University) (Hamid 1995). The period that followed World War II in the forties was a period of growing national consciousness and the founding of more state-owned universities and higher education institutes. It was also a period of increasing expectations of community groups and the middle class, especially regarding the importance of university education. These aspirations were part and parcel of the intellectual climate of freedom of thought which prevailed in the Egyptian society during that era.

In 1942, the University of Farouk I was established in Alexandria, followed by the University of Ibrahim Pasha in 1950, which is currently Ain Shams University (Ibrahim 1985).

However, most researchers believe that secondary and university education was limited to the students of the upper classes and relied primarily on the financial capacity of families, so the considerations of justice and the availability of opportunities were not a priority during that period (Ammar 2000).

After the July 1952 Revolution, in the light of socialist orientation and the consideration of social justice as a priority and final target, school fees in secondary education were abolished and there were increased numbers of students enrolled at this stage. Assiut University, established in 1957, was the first integrated university in Upper Egypt in one of the most suffering regions in terms of economic aspects.

In 1961, a new phase of higher education began by adopting free education and fees were abolished. This opened the doors to higher education for the underprivileged citizens who did not even dream to enroll their children in universities (Elsaid 2002).

The opening of the universities' doors, and higher education institutions in general, for large segments of Egyptian society at this stage was parallel with the expansion of governmental activities and the role of the government in developing the public sectors. This overall economic activity was able to accommodate the increasing number of higher education graduates. Then, a law was enacted to ensure the appointment of those high school and university education graduates in governmental and public sectors. It was a tacit admission that participation in higher education (despite its importance) by different social groups would not be sufficient--job opportunities should be made available to suitable job seekers among those graduates (Kandil 1987; El-Asawy 2000).

As for the 1970s, it was most distinguished by the major expansion of existing universities and the rapid establishment of additional regional universities outside greater Cairo. From 1972 – 1976, seven new governmental universities were established and all of them were located outside Cairo, except for the University of Helwan (Ibrahim 1985).

There is no doubt that the investment in these regional universities achieved a significant benefit for the residents of these areas. It also contributed to the achievement of social justice at the regional level, and brought advantages for female students in particular for whom the relocation to Cairo was a major obstacle to their enrollment in university (Elsaftei 1991, quoted by Kandil n.d.). However, those universities operated without adequate staffing and sufficient material requirements, even the most basic infrastructure (Elsaftei 1991 quoted by Kandil n.d.; National Specialized Councils 1994-1999).

From 1925 to 1969, the first and second phases of establishing higher education in Egypt, we can say there was no separation between the expansion of university education and the means to present a high quality education.

In other words, a university education was necessarily meant to give a quality higher education to students in which all resources for this target were available. Upon the establishment of the Universities of Alexandria and Ain Shams University before the revolution in 1952, the availability of the possibilities that suited the status of university education was taken into account.

The establishment of the University of Assiut coincided with the program of sending a large numbers of researchers to study abroad and get PhD Degrees. In addition, lands were allocated and the necessary facilities were established. Campuses, laboratories, libraries and other requirements necessary for the modern university were established (Kandil 1991; El-Baradei 2009; National Specialized Councils 1994-1999).

In the seventies, the third phase of development of Egyptian higher education appeared, targeted to achieve the geographical spread of higher education. However, the weak preparation for the establishment of these universities and the speed of setting them up led to the disengagement of the link between the expansion of university education and the availability of human and material resources appropriate for this level of education. This failure continued for many years and contributed greatly to the decline in the level and quality of higher education in Egypt (Elsaid 2002).

Finally, during the nineties and until the present time, we witnessed radical changes in the features and characteristics of the system of higher education. This has happened in the context of the changing economic and social circumstances, which were the result of the shift in the pattern of development and the adoption of globalization and a free market economy approach. Higher education had always played a social and national function.

However, the positive role of the government declined sharply, while the private sector, which provided educational services in order to make profits, emerged clearly. Material values and the interests of domestic and foreign entities started to influence Egyptian higher education. This governmental higher education became more vulnerable to injustice and inequality. This appeared in the misunderstanding of equality and equal opportunity, which did not provide good educational opportunities to those who have outstanding abilities, regardless of their socioeconomic status.

3 QUALITY AND JUSTICE IN LIGHT OF THE PERSPECTIVE OF INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL CONVENTIONS

We will focus in this part on social justice and quality in higher education, and what governs the national and international conventions regarding quality and justice. Egypt has participated in these international and regional conventions, which relate directly or indirectly to education and involve standards that necessitate achieving justice in education opportunities and emphasizing quality. Our focus will start with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and then the International Conference on Higher Education of the twenty-first century, held at the headquarters of UNESCO in Paris from 5 - 9 October 1998. This conference was followed by other conferences, meetings, and sub-regional preparations. Moreover, the importance of fair access and the quality of higher education were not absent from the periodic meetings of the Arab Ministers of Higher Education and Scientific Research. They always received a high priority in their agendas. The recommendations of these conferences and the strategies for reforming higher education were set out in order to develop Arab higher education (UNESCO 2010).

The World Conference of Higher Education has acknowledged that education reform must be in line with what came in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNESCO 1998; HEA 2008). The declaration emphasizes the equal opportunities of education by making it available to all on the basis of merit, and not accepting the exclusion of any person from obtaining higher education on the basis of race, gender, language, religion, or physical disability.

Consequently, the rapid growth in demand for higher education requires that all the policies must assure access to higher education, depending on the merit of the person (HEA 2008).

The Ninth Conference of the Arab Ministers of Higher Education in 2003 confirmed the concept of justice. It stated that "providing education opportunities for all who are able to take advantage of higher education is the responsibility of the government, and that poverty, geographical remoteness, or discrimination of any kind must not be a justification to deprive any one of this opportunity" (ALECSO 2003, 63).

Recently, the element of quality is more difficult and complicated than the concept of justice (UNICEF 2000). Quality is not a static concept; the elements of a good education may vary from time to time. A good education, for example, in this era of amazing technological progress and in the field of information and communication, is different from the same concept before this progress. In addition, assessments of the quality of education may vary according to the standards or the target you are looking for. Is the quality of higher education evaluation in accordance with the conditions prevailing in society and the needs of the current economy, whatever the humility of these needs? Is a good higher education to be seen via a narrow look at the needs of the market and the business sector in the short-term? Alternatively, should it be seen as a mechanism for change, and consequently be assessed as a drive to a targeted pattern of development, and not just a responsive factor to the market conditions? Then, to what extent does the evaluation of the education system within the limits of the privacy of the community have to be taken into account? To what extent will this influence regional or global systems? All of these questions are essential background to evaluate the higher education system (UNESCO 1995).

According to the policy paper for change and development in the higher education and the international report on Global Universities Network for Innovation, the concept of the quality of education is multi-dimensional and deals with all the functions of education (UNESCO 1995; GUNI, 2007). These elements are the academic programs, academic curricula, scientific research, professors, students, buildings, facilities, equipment, and other community services.

The mechanism that is used to enhance the quality of education based on internal self-assessment and external assessment must be implemented by independent national and international experts, with the importance of taking into account the idiosyncrasies of the community, and the diversity of society that can avoid stereotypes in the evaluation criteria on the national and regional levels (NAQAAE 2009).

We cannot judge the quality and relevance of higher education institutions and their programs and certificates, according to a specific global basis, whatever the degree of perfection of these models. Special emphasis must be given to the role of stakeholders have to be an integral part of the evaluation process, led by faculty members and students (UNESCO 2010).

4 QUALITY AND JUSTICE: GLOBALIZATION INSTITUTIONS PERSPECTIVE

In this part, the focus is given to the most important globalization organizations, which had strong influential activity in the field of education, in general, and higher education, in particular. These organizations are the World Bank and the World Trade Organization. It is well known that such organizations have their policies and conditions, which are targeting a particular strategy for higher education involving the concept of privacy in both fair opportunity and quality, by loans and financial pressure.

4.1 THE WORLD BANK

Although, UNESCO is a major international organization entrusted with the conditions of education, science, and culture in the world, global interest in education began to take a new turn after the World Bank began playing an increasing role in the field of education on all stages. It believes in the importance of the expansion of higher education in the light of developments in the knowledge-based economy globally and the urgent need--in this context--to influence broad segments of population by providing them the opportunity for higher education. The target will not be possible without higher education of high quality.

However, the concepts of work force economy and market orientation were prevailing in higher education in developing countries. This is a concept which the World Bank and its experts consider the most effective mechanism to promote the expansion of higher education (Zaiton 1998). This approach with all of its contents can be developed from the perspective of a certain quality and fair opportunity perspective as follows:

- Since the upper social classes in most developing countries more significantly benefit from free higher education, the ratio is not commensurate with their numerical representation in the total population; the achievement of social justice requires reducing public spending for this education
- So the reducing public spending directed to higher education, to spur higher education institutions to strive towards creating new financial sources

In this context, the World Bank and its experts recommended three additional policies to compensate reduced public spending allocated for higher education (World Bank 2002, 2007, 2010) which are:

- Introducing cost recovery or tuition fees in governmental higher education institutions.
- Encouraging the government to establish private universities and other forms of private higher education institutions.
- Introducing liberalization of the national system of higher education that allows the contribution of foreign education providers to the "market" of higher education.

According to the approach based on privatization and market mechanisms, the development of local private education institutions and foreign education providers is expected to ease the burden of the demand for public universities, reducing the burden of financing higher education through the governance budget. In addition, the competition between the private and the public higher education institutions will improve the quality of education in all institutions.

4.2 THE WTO/ GATS

After the GATT agreement resulted in the liberalization of trade only, services became a part of the trade agreements through the GATS for the first time in 1995. Education with all its stages is one of the twelve sectors contained in this agreement. Perhaps the most serious terms included in the agreement are those relating to MFN (Most Favored Nation) status because it is, on the one hand, a general obligation in the sense that they apply to all forms of liberalizing trade in services, whether the government concerned has provided a commitment to provide them or not (Varghese 2007). On the other hand, if the government allows a single foreign country to enter the market of higher education, it becomes committed to provide similar opportunities for service providers of any other foreign country which is a member of the World Trade Organization, applying the same rule to the cases of exclusion (Knight 2002).

Really, some people promote the GATS, as it will provide benefits to the higher education systems in developing countries. It will push them to raise their quality and will make higher education available to a larger number of students. Foreign service providers will offer new methods to provide services of higher education.

On the other hand, the liberalization and the competition will push the higher education institutions in general to improve their services and management style, increase the enrollment of students and reduce the knowledge gap between the developing and developed countries (CHEPSL/UT 2006). However, many have expressed their deep concern over the situations of higher education in the convention.

In addition, many academic organizations concerned with higher education in countries like the United States of America and Britain expressed their great concern about what they considered as a threat to the government's role in higher education by this convention and the threat of higher education as a commodity (GUNI 2007; UNESCO 2010; Varghese 2007).

Moreover, the foreign competition, particularly in developing countries, and its transformation into a source of profit, may be unfair -- it may be at the expense of national systems of higher education. Besides, it may hurt in achieving the national goals and interests of these countries.

This has motivated the developed countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to ensure extreme care; in this regard, they have developed a guide, presented to UNESCO, to monitor the quality of cross-border higher education. The goal of this guide is to protect students and other stakeholders of higher education from the unwanted influence of Foreign Service providers (UNESCO 1998).

5 THE EFFECTS OF THE PREVIOUS NOTIONS AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS ON EGYPTIAN HIGHER EDUCATION POLICIES

From the above-mentioned concepts, the relation of both sides of quality and equal opportunities with higher education in the international context has two completely different perspectives. One of them depends on the market approach adopted by the organizations of globalization, especially the World Bank and the World Trade Organization. This approach considers that the private and open higher education systems can promote quality of education. It also views that free education is not concerned with justice or equality of opportunity, but it means that eligible individuals should obtain free services. Therefore, the introduction of cost recovery methods and the imposition of fees in public higher education institutions are worth it to achieve justice (World Bank 2007).

The other perspective is more desirable and has been emphasized by several Arab conferences and conventions. This perspective is based upon the idea -- I think an indisputable one -- that justice requires giving fair opportunities of higher education to everyone who is worthy of it, for anyone who owns the capacity and enthusiasm to continue their education. Thus, the most important elements of justice are in non-discrimination based on social and economic background, race,

gender or other forms of discrimination. The private sector in this perspective does not provide quality education; does not require a retreat of the government from its main responsibilities in the field of higher education, or consider learning as a special commodity. It is primarily associated with the components and elements of the higher education system as determined by the conditions of faculty members, scientific research, students and their level of previous stages of education, as well as the potential of educational institutions, especially in the field of information and communication technology.

Besides the extent to which the institutions of higher education are compatible with the needs of its community and to what extent academic institutions are enjoying independence without isolation from the international scientific activity, there is an important question emerging which is to what extent the policies of Egyptian higher education have adopted any of these perspectives since the beginning of the nineties.

It is worth mentioning that higher education policy in Egypt focused on quantitative expansion between the years of 1990-1991 and 2007-2008, which is clearly indicated by the increase in the number of students enrolled in this period. The number of students enrolled in higher education in various institutions increased. This was continued by the increasing rate of gross enrollment to 30 percent in 2010, which is a significant increase (Figure .1).

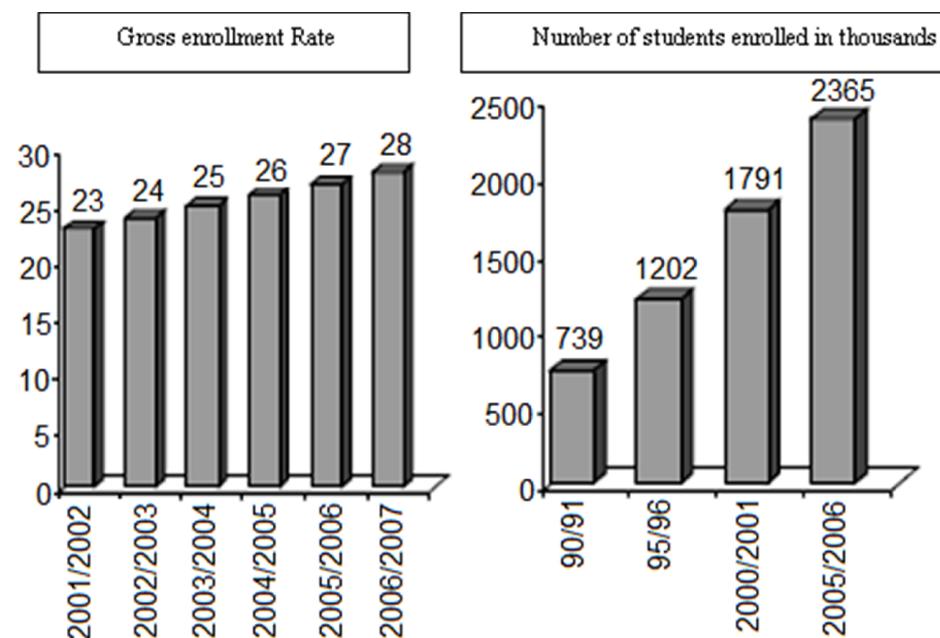


Fig. 1. Quantitative development of Egyptian higher education

Source: Center for support and decision-making of Egypt: 2010

Despite Egypt being one of the countries that - in this period - adopted the concepts of equal opportunity and justice, there has been a debate about these concepts especially after the seventies.

Besides the greatness of Egypt and its struggle in 1960s and 1970s to extend higher education and to achieve equal opportunities and justice by quantitative methods, there are great inequalities in wealth and status (Megahed and Ginsburg 2008), which make great inequalities in power. These will invariably include the power to make the opportunities of one person better than those of the other people. Thus, we need to discuss how this expansion had taken place and what the implications for the quality of education and equity are.

6 THE METHODS OF ACHIEVING THIS EXPANSION

- **Accumulate of students and congestion of the public university.**

The vast majority of the increase in the number of students enrolled in universities was absorbed by the existing public universities from 1976 to 2005. Only one public university was established (South Valley). However, this new university was included on a list of colleges similar to the old universities. The result was a high density of students in public universities from 62,000 students in 1990/1991 to 176,000 students in 2004/2005 (Center for support and decision-making 2010). In addition, this density of students in public universities was approximately 1,650,000 students (Egypt in Figures 2013).

Table 2. Students Enrolled in Governmental Universities (01/02 – 10/2011)

	11/10	10/09	09/08	08/07	07/06	06/05	05/04	04/03	03/02	02/01
Total gov. Un.										
Total students	1649986	1928112	1918299	1868920	1869848	1880460	1761376	1615267	1552622	1494647
Male	849921	976084	980948	955788	960115	981302	915940	837733	816896	800091
Female	800065	952028	937351	913132	909733	899158	845436	777534	735726	694556

Despite the recent visual drop in this average due to transfer of some university branches to independent universities that have increased to 27 public universities, the number of students was still high, compared to the actual capacity of these universities (MHE 2012).

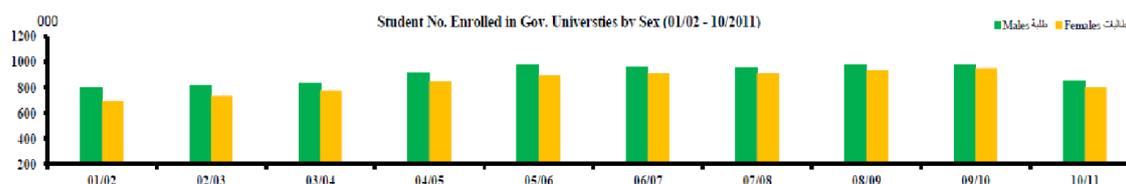


Fig. 2.

Source : Ministry of Higher Education

The most important issue is that the transition rate from general secondary to public universities is only 73.6%, while private higher institutes have a relatively big share, when compared to other higher education institutes, of 20.2%. This reflects the important current role of the private higher institutes. In the meantime, the private universities receive only a very small proportion of students (0.6%), despite having been established since 1996 and all debates about their increasing influence in the HE system.

- **External Students Learning System (Off- Campus Student Learning)**

This system played an important role in increasing the number of students enrolled in universities. The system is based on a dual method in the acceptance of secondary school graduates in public universities. Its purpose is mainly to secure opportunities to attend university -especially theoretical colleges- without palpable additional costs on the government budget.

Those students are accepted in spite of having lower grades than regular college students. As a result, students paid the cost of learning, or at least a considerable portion of it. This system expanded to include most Egyptian universities, including Al-Azhar University, by the year 2005-2006. (MHE 2009)

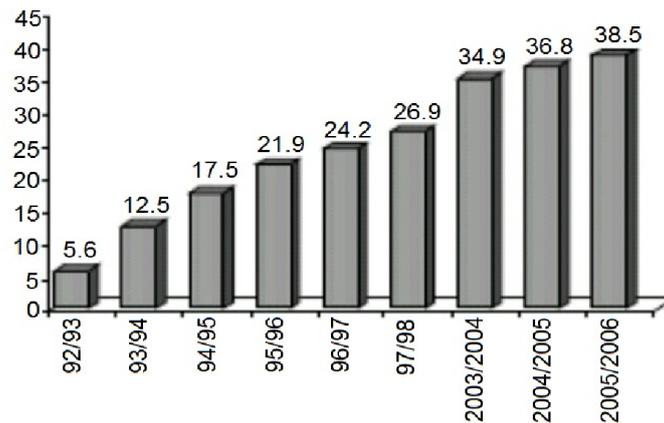


Fig. 3. The growing in the number of off-campus students learning as a ratio of total enrolled students in the universities

Source: Ministry of Higher Education

This system expanded to include most Egyptian universities, including Al-Azhar University by 2005-2006 (MHE 2009). However, students are accepted in spite of having lower grades than regular college students. As a result, students paid the cost of learning, or at least a considerable portion of it. Finally, there is an increasing of proportion of student enrolled in off campus program from 5 % to 38%.

- **Open and Distance Education**

The primary objective of this system, according to the decisions of the Supreme Council of Universities, is to relieve pressure on the public higher education institutions and to reduce requests for establishing new institutions of higher education and universities. It also gives a chance to those deprived of the opportunity for higher education and to holders of technical secondary school certificates (SCU 2001).

The application of this system began in the early nineties at the University of Cairo and then spilled over to include all universities except the University of Al-Azhar, which was at that time studying the application of this system. Under this system, the applicants shall pay a fee equivalent to the cost of his education and there is no commitment from the government to appoint the graduates of this system to any job as the case may be for other universities.

- **Distinctive and Special programs**

Teaching/learning in foreign languages, especially in English and French, has become top programs used by schools and universities to attract students in Egypt. This is in line with changes in the business and market environment, which make foreign languages a prerequisite for joining the most prestigious companies with the most jobs available with attractive salaries.

The era of globalization, market economy, and the resulting sharp disparity in the distribution of income in the Egyptian economy have created a class of students who belong to the families of the wealthy and are willing to pay large sums of money in exchange for a certificate of higher education that teaches programs in a foreign language (Ammer 1999). No wonder, then, that education policies tend to reduce public spending growth by making full use of this situation and establishing programs of study taught in English, and sometimes in French, within public universities (Elsaid 2002).

While this system began reluctantly at first, now it has begun expanding and spreading to include almost all the public universities of the Supreme Council of Universities. Recently, it opened the door for admission to each of these programs and accepted all of the students admitted to the college without considering the maximum number specified before. Besides, the system is no longer limited to the theoretical colleges, but expanded to include practical colleges. Some practical colleges have applied a similar system in 2006/2007 with exorbitant tuition fees (MHE 2011).

• **Increasing the Number of Private Universities**

Universities in Egypt remained Government-owned public institutions until the mid-nineties of the previous century with the exception of the American University in Cairo. Nevertheless, this situation began to change completely in 1992, when the issuance of the law allowed the establishment of private universities in Egypt (Egypt Law no. 101 1992). Four years later, a presidential decree was issued for the establishment of four Egyptian private universities; all started opening their doors in the academic year of 1996/1997 and all of them were profit institutions.

In 2002, foreign universities -pursuant to a presidential decree- have appeared, including the establishment of French and German universities. In addition to the establishment of The British University, Al-Ahram Canadian University, and currently The Russian University, Egypt might have The Chinese University in the next few years. The number of the students enrolled in these foreign universities does not exceed a few hundred students and the number of its majors of study is very limited (see Table 2). However, the academic year of 2006/2007 has witnessed the largest expansion in the number of private and foreign universities in Egypt (see Figure 4).

Table 3.

Universities	11/10	10/09	09/08	08/07	07/06	06/05	05/04	04/03	03/02	02/01
Total gov. Un.										
Total students	1649986	1928112	1918299	1868920	1869848	1880460	1761376	1615267	1552622	1494647
Male	849921	976084	980948	955788	960115	981302	915940	837733	816896	800091
Female	800065	952028	937351	913132	909733	899158	845436	777534	735726	694556
Total Private Un.										
Total students	72982	70309	59852	47404	44001	83108	82790	80060	74750	68798
Male	45069	38175	37336	28836	28374	52127	52579	52509	49557	45920
Female	27913	32134	22516	18568	15627	30981	30211	27551	25193	22878

Source: Egypt in figures 2013

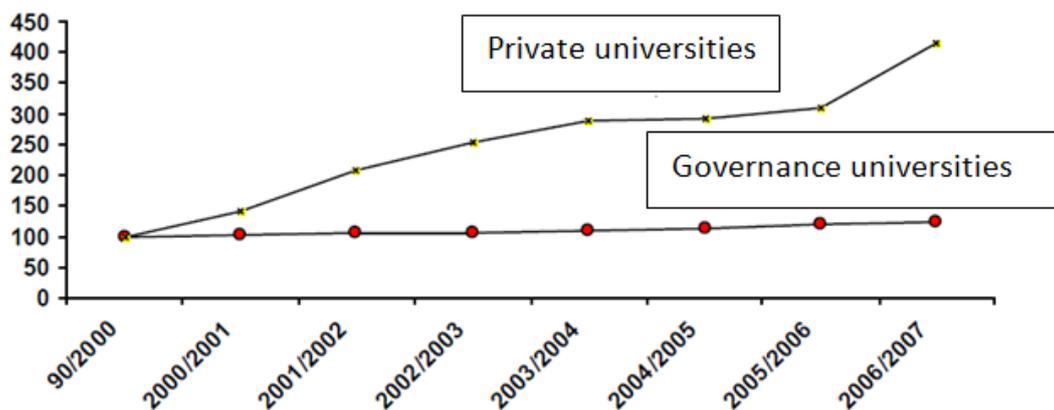


Fig. 4.

Source: Ministry of Higher Education

The number of students enrolled in private universities is increasing at a fast rate more than that of public universities, as indicated in the previous Figure. Despite this rapid increase, the number of students in these universities did not exceed 3.4 percent of the total number of students in public universities until the academic year of 2006/2007 and this ratio did not increase until 2010. This indicates the limited capacity of private universities. In addition, we know that many of its students

are from other countries. These universities enrolled 14 percent of their students from foreign countries whereas only 1 percent of students from foreign countries enrolled in public universities.

- **Expansion of the Non-University Higher Education**

While education policies headed toward raising the growth of enrollment in higher education from the age group, the decision makers worked to encourage the expansion of access to non-university higher education that was low cost. (See Table 4).

Table 4. Enrolled in technical institutes "high institutes & academies" supervised by Ministry of Higher Education by sex (02/03-2010/2011)

	11/10	10/09	09/08	08/07	07/06	06/05	05/04	04/03	03/02
Total High Institutes									
Total students	308554	355318	375752	372046	371000	351330	344824	321021	284159
Male	211311	232861	240379	236435	234339	214994	216408	201439	180809
Female	97243	122457	135373	135611	136661	136336	128416	119582	103347
Total Technical Institutes									
Total students	76483	103281	120068	128153	138087	145074	148920	143168	131888
Male	43744	57960	70851	72610	76859	76859	77004	73301	68655
Female	32739	45321	49217	55543	68215	68215	71916	69867	63233

Source: Ministry of Higher Education 2012

Moreover, the government withdrew completely from this field, and left the private sector controlling the non-universities higher education sector. Despite this fact, the government is still playing a more important role in the field of technical education, due to the low interest of the private sectors to invest in this level of education with a low return (ETCP 2012).

Overall, the importance of technical education has fallen so much to the students themselves. Figure 5 below shows the evolution in the importance of the private sector in the field of non-university education.

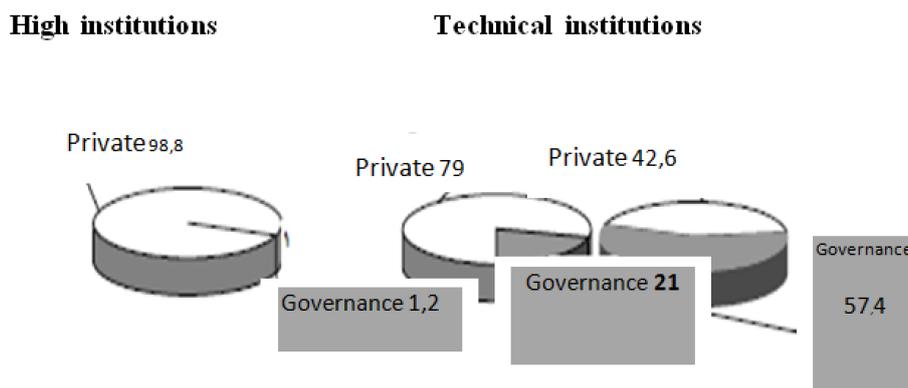


Fig. 5. The ratio of government-owned and private institutions in non-university education in Egypt

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Periodical Bulletin, 2006-2007

Only 1% of high institutes are governmental owned. In contrast 57% of technical institutions are governmental owned.

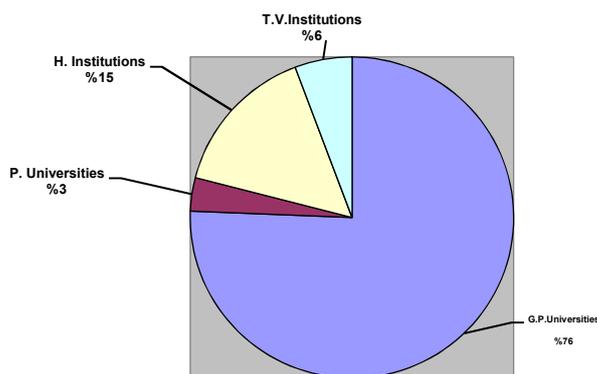


Fig. 6. The ratio of the students enrolled numbers distributed by all institutions of Egyptian higher education

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Periodical Bulletin, 2006-2007

Then, from the ratios of the students enrolled distributed by all institutions of Egyptian higher education, the majority of students are in governmental universities.

7 THE IMPACT OF THE EXPANSION OF EGYPTIAN HIGHER EDUCATION ON ITS QUALITY

Despite the importance of the quantitative expansion in Egyptian higher education, this expansion would dwindle, if it were not accompanied by appropriate attention to quality education. According to the concept of quality and its multiple elements, which we have presented before, we will review a number of indicators that reveal the level of quality of Egyptian higher education. In addition, we looked into how it affected the policies mentioned above. We will start our discussion with the governmental public universities, and then the private high institutes and universities.

• The Quality of Governmental Public Universities

Actually, there was not a sufficient expansion of appropriate resources to accompany the increasing number of graduates from secondary schools to public universities, even though there was a budget increase for public higher education institutions.

Table 4. State public expenditure on education by state final account (01/02-10/2011)

	11/10	10/09	09/08	08/07	07/06	06/05	05/04	04/03	03/02
Public expenditure on universities	11932	11113	10005	9029	7160	6516	8111	7970	7446
Public expenditure on universities/public expenditure	2.9	3.04	2.85	3.20	3.22	3.14	5.02	4.83	4.99
Percentage of public expenditure on Univ. education/ expenditure on education%	22.25	22.32	22.73	23.22	23.42	24.23	29.03	29.55	29.78

Source: CAPMAS 2011

In fact, the public governmental expenditure directed to higher education, because the statistics of the general budget are contradictory, non-transparent, and flawed by the absences of more important details.

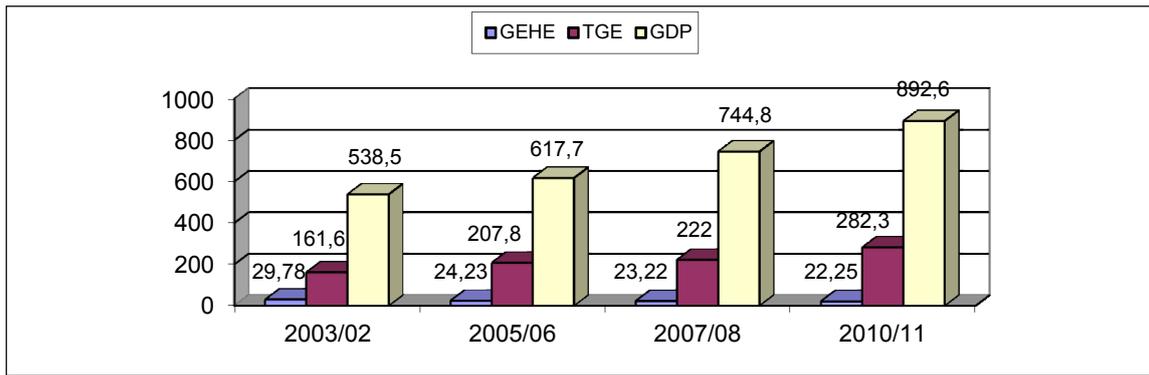


Fig. 7. The growth in general expenditure of higher education and as a ratio of Total General Expenditure and GDP

Source: CAPMAS, 2011

In spite of the proliferation of the cost recovery system and change in actual tuition fees, there has been no information about the ways of expending these revenues. In fact, we can say here that all the public universities suffer from limited budget allocation for expenditure and inadequate budgets to cope with even the most important fundamentals, which are indispensable to the educational process. This is shown clearly in the sharp deterioration of the libraries and laboratories' capabilities, the absence of supplies needed to run the equipment, and poor maintenance. The data indicate the retreatment of expenditure of higher education per student compared with some Arab countries as in Figure 8.

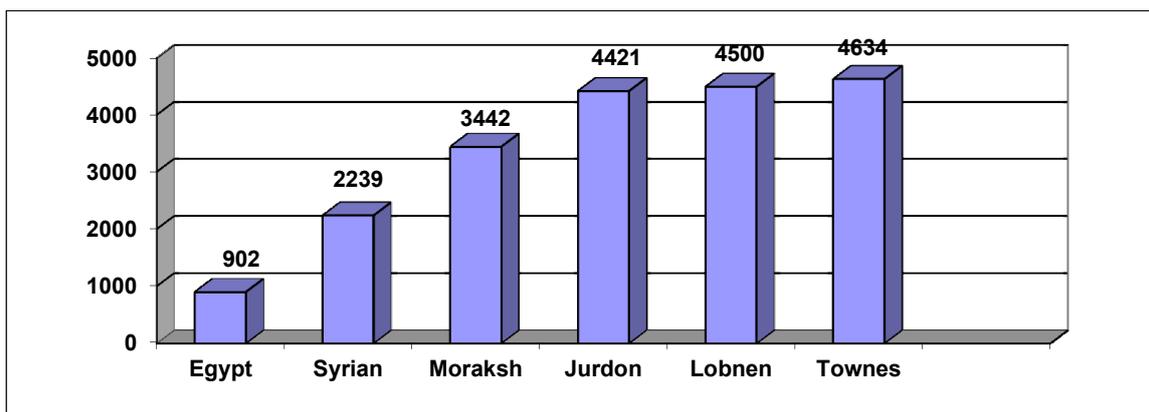


Fig. 8. Expenditure of higher education per student compared with some Arab countries

Source: Elarabi, 2009

Additionally, the steady growth in the number of the students enrolled in public universities did not extend to the establishment of new universities, but rather more students accumulated in the existing universities that created more management problems in these universities (Elsaid 2002). No one can deny that there is a relationship between the size of the university represented by the number of students and the level of competence in managing it. Management of these universities is also centralized and lacks flexibility, which is a characteristic of management in Egyptian universities.

It is useful to note here that, despite the conversion of five branches to independent universities, we have five Egyptian universities in which the average number of students ranges between 100 and 22,000 students and even reaches 365,000 students (Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics 2006).

In addition, the increase in the number of students was not accompanied by a change in the method of teaching and learning to take advantage of the technological advances in the field of information and communication. Traditional teaching methods continued with heavy reliance on the lecturer and textbook only, not on the interaction between the teacher and

the students. "In liberal arts colleges, the student may not know even the name of the lecturers, who teach the subject" (Elsaid 2002, 115; Biltagy 2010, 30). Even the postgraduate students use a list of references in the university curricula and they do not pay any attention to expression skills and written analysis. There is no intention to invite the students to learn how to use the skills of expression and written analysis. There is also a severe deficiency in libraries, making them unattractive to the students and researchers.

Despite the introduction of some new technologies in higher education institutions by the information and communication technology project ICTP, their prevalence varied from one university to another and among the departments within the same college or university (Technical Report of Ministry of Higher Education 2009). This disparity did not depend upon the faculty's need for technology, but it was probably due to the different sources of funding or external relations available to each of the universities.

Moreover, the main target of introducing these technologies was not just training students to use them, but also to deal with them as an integral part of their studying programs. This was not achieved (El-Badawy et al. 2008), at least in most of the colleges. The application of modern technologies did not reach the goal of increasing the capabilities of students or staff. It just helped make a network that linked the various universities and institutions of higher education to scientific research centers, libraries, and laboratories at the local, regional, and international level (Zaytoun 1998). Due to the poor technological facilities of these universities, which could bring advantages in developing academic programs or contacting with the scientific, regional, and international societies, these universities isolated themselves from the scientific and intellectual development of the world (NAQAEE 2012).

• **The Quality of Faculty's Staffs in Governmental Public Universities**

The staff in the Egyptian higher education system were the main actors on the quality of education; they were dominant in the educational process. They selected the academic courses. They authored reference books, delivered lectures, checked examination answer sheets, participated in examinations, and re-certified procedures. In this context, the faculty member is the most important element when seeking to evaluate the quality of education.

In general, there were abundant faculty members in some universities. However, in other universities, the number of faculty members was very limited, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Teaching staffs in governmental universities 2010/2011

Teaching staff	بور سعيد Port Said	دمياط Damanhour	سوهاج Souhag	كفر الشيخ Kafri El Sheikh	الازهر Al Azhar	حلوان Helwan	قناة السويس Suez Canal	المنوفية Menoufia	المنيا Menia	الزقازيق Zagazig	المنصورة Mansoura	طنطا Tanta	جنوب الوادي Wadi	بنها Banha	بنى سويف Beni Suef	الفيوم Fayoum	اسيوط Asyout	عين شمس Ain Shams	الإسكندرية Alexandria	القاهرة Cairo
Gov. Universities																				
Professor	65	49	142	137	1330	594	284	414	339	1209	843	603	92	605	146	145	491	1789	1045	2418
Assistant Professor	126	53	178	128	917	816	256	452	320	715	648	527	165	449	176	201	356	1484	604	1622
Teacher	327	183	423	248	2096	1425	567	997	584	1356	1320	1060	450	760	456	469	659	2853	904	2448
Assistant Teacher	240	190	366	200	1590	795	632	803	296	1287	1298	812	315	725	361	428	850	1529	896	2166
Demonstrator	208	315	275	141	1185	721	619	635	554	844	1040	682	478	670	360	361	590	1682	1058	2234
Total	996	790	1384	854	7118	4351	2358	3301	2093	5411	5149	3684	1500	3209	1499	1604	2946	9337	4507	10888

Source: Egypt in figures 2013

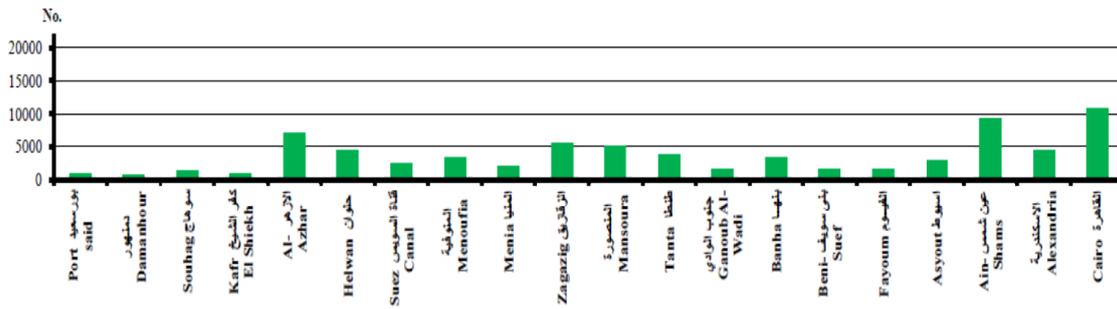


Fig. 9. Total number teaching staffs in governmental universities (2010/2011)

Source: Egypt in figures 2013

In addition, very few universities had faculty staffs who had distinct capabilities and were committed to scientific and academic values. Naturally, this situation reflected the weakness of scientific research in universities and the absence of any research plan for many scientific departments.

Because of decreases in expenditure for higher education, the salary of the staff has been very low, less than US \$ 1,000 per month, which is not enough to provide the basic needs of the faculty member and their family. They need reference books, scientific publications, and tapes and accessories for computers; they need to participate in scientific conferences and to communicate with the local, regional and global scientific community. In addition, there were other obstacles facing them, such as the restriction on sending assistant staff to study at high scientific levels in international universities due to reduced budgets. An additional dilemma was the lack of full-time faculty members for the education process and supervision tasks; all were busy seeking a livelihood. This then led to a heavy loss in the postgraduate stage, which was the source of future faculty members.

• The Quality of Private Higher Education

a. Higher Technical and vocational institutes

As explained earlier, the private sector prevailed largely and owned many of these institutes, especially the higher institutions, while the role of the government declined in this area. (See Table 6).

Table 6. The development of numbers of higher education institutions in Egypt

Item	2000/2001	2005/2006	2010/2011
Governmental institutions	19	5	1
Private institutions	12	50	95

Source: Elsaid 2012, 35

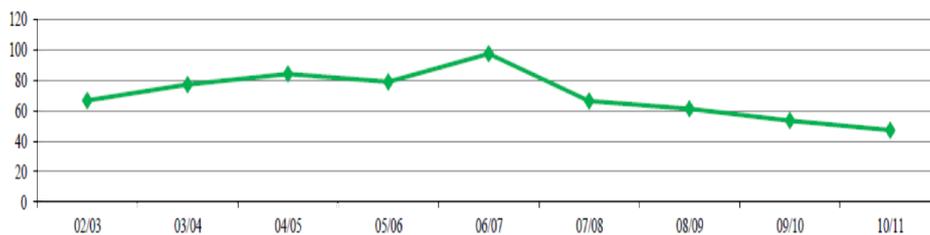


Fig. 10. Total number of technical institute graduates (01/02 – 10/2011)

Source: CAPMAS, 2013

With the rapid expansion in the number of these institutions and consequently in the number of students enrolled, these institutions did not give enough attention to the requirements of quality of education with the exception of institutions charging high tuition fees. The goal of establishment of these institutes was to prepare workers with professional skills to meet the needs of the labor market and production. However, it soon faced many problems. These problems began with accepting students with a low level of scientific achievement; perhaps they were forced to attend these institutions due to their failure to compete in secondary school. In addition, only their financial capacity allowed them to enroll in these institutions. On the other hand, these institutions accepted graduates of technical secondary schools who had a very low level of education achievements (The Egyptian Consultative Council 1998). In addition, these institutes did not have good instructors and staff, who had poor motivation because of their low incomes. These faculty members and staff had more theoretical knowledge than practical experience and limited opportunities for training and practical lessons.

Despite the declarations of World Bank and GATS experts that private higher education is a motivation factor for the efficiency and quality of public higher education, it has become, in fact, a factor undermining public education. When these institutions required high tuition fees, they spent a lot of money for advertisements to attract a larger number of students while reducing the educational expenditure. There are many reports that reflect the low quality of the graduates of technical and vocational institutions (ETCP 2011; Elsaid 2012; National Specialized Councils 1998; NAQAAE 2009; The Egyptian Consultative Council 1998):

- High dropout rate especially in two-year term institutions.
- These institutions did not have accredited certificates from the Supreme Council of Universities in Egypt.
- The high unemployment rate reached to about 84.5 percent among their graduates (CAPMAS 2013).

b. Private Universities

Law No. 101 of 1992 stipulates the way to establish private universities, defining the efficient duties of these universities as follows:

- Private universities are nonprofit organizations.
- Private universities aim to contribute to raising the quality level of education and scientific research.
- Private universities are establishing unique fields of science, which are adding to the existing university education fields.

After private universities began their activities, the government launched the higher education enhancement project to support public universities. Private universities should not be at the expense of public universities or be taking care of them.

Noting that the policy in Law 101 emphasized the quality of education in private universities, the universities began to work after the completion of all their facilities and requirements of work force and material. On the other hand, "the private universities are not one of their goals to make a profit," (Law No. 101 of 1992, 2) but then it turned the wording to become "that these universities not aim essentially to make a profit" (Law No. 101 of 1996, 2) We will not argue the fact that private universities are non-profit. However, the establishment of private universities as partners for investment is based on market principles; they have their Board of Trustees, and the owners direct the policies. They must be making a profit as a key target, or the main objective, whether we like it or not.

Law No. 101 has confirmed the goal of quality in controlling the establishment of private universities. Some studies indicate that private universities, in order to achieve profits, must raise the quality level of education to attract the largest numbers of students (World Bank 2002). However, what is happening? The appropriate density of students per faculty member in the private colleges of pharmacy had been identified by the upper supreme private universities with the number of 25 students per faculty member. However, some private colleges of pharmacy exceeded this requirement far beyond, reaching student density up to 340 per faculty member (Alahram Education 2010).

The private universities opened the way for students with a low level of educational achievements to join its faculties, so long as these students enjoyed financial capabilities that qualified them to bear the high expenses for these universities. All these factors were affecting the equity of education and eliminating the merit condition in these universities.

Table 7. The ratio of the admission requirements of students in the top colleges 2006/2007

	Dentist	Pharmacy	Engineer	Computer science and communication	Economic and policy science
Governmental	99,8%	99,8%	97,4%	94.6%	99%
Private	80%	80%	75%	70%	60%

Source: Ministry of Higher Education 2006/2007

Finally, with respect to the Law No. 101 regulating the establishment of private universities, those private universities should aim to raise the level of scientific research and they should add unique major fields not offered in existing public universities. It is certain that these items are not implemented in reality. We find that the activity of scientific research, which is a key element in evaluating the quality of higher education institutions, has no place in the private universities. Most of these private universities, except foreign universities and Ziweal University, do not offer graduate programs. However, under the current conditions, it is better to prevent these universities from having graduate programs. If these programs have not achieved the desired success in the public universities, which have a long history and expertise in graduate programs, it is unlikely to achieve this success in the newly established private universities with commercial motives. Moreover, these private universities do not meet the needs of faculty members such as sending missions and providing scholarships to get masters and doctoral degrees.

In this context, most of the major scientific fields in the private universities already exist in the governmental public universities. Moreover, these private universities depend on the staff of the public universities who are working part time. Besides, some students of private universities go to the public universities to take training.

FINDING

• The Result of the Evaluation of Justice, Equal Opportunities, and Equity in Egyptian Higher Education

After the previous discussions, we can say that higher education in Egypt had quantitative expansion since the beginning of the nineties. Many problems accompanied this expansion, affecting the quality of the higher education. Moreover, some of this expansion was achieved by enrolling many students in higher education institutions, in which the students bear the cost of their education. Gradually, the importance of free higher education provided by the government has been retracted. This retraction of free higher education appears in the Table 8 below.

Table 8. The estimation of the number of students in higher education who bear the cost of their education 2005/2006

Items	Numbers
The number of students in higher education	2152817
The number of students in private universities	72982
The number of students in private higher institutions	308554
The number of students in private technical institutions	76483
Off campus learning students ** (governmental students)	653292
The number of students in a special** programs (governmental students)	107641
Total students bearing their Educational costs	1218951
The ratio of students bearing their Educational costs	56.5%

The source: the Supreme Council of Universities & CAPMAS

* Table without Al-Azhar University.

** Approximate number of the Supreme Council of Universities.

The table above shows the percentage of the number of students who bear the tuition fees compared to all students enrolled in higher education in the academic year 2010/2011 is 56.6%. **This ratio of the students who bear the tuition fees is a violation of Article 20 of the Egyptian Constitution, which stipulates that the education in public educational institutions is free for all in various stages.** The tuition fees in private universities are ranging from 25,000 to 50,000 Egyptian pounds per year. It represents five to ten fold of the average private income in Egypt. In addition to the special programs at the governmental public universities in the some colleges, tuition fees reach up to about fifteen thousand Egyptian pounds. This means that tuition fees have become an impregnable obstacle for the admission of a wide range of talented and excellent Egyptian students to join certain forms of education.

These violations and advantages extend to new patterns of inequality in higher education particularly in private colleges and universities, as described below:

First: Inequality at the Regional Level

Private universities are mainly located in Cairo, Giza, and Alexandria, while the cities in the other regions of Egypt do not have any private universities. This shows that universities in these cities seek to make profit. They are established only in intensively high-income and high purchasing power areas. The official experts of higher education put restrictions on the expansion of these private universities in Cairo after they found that the existing private universities did not satisfy the needs of the students (Ammar 2000). In addition, the technical and high private institutes, which are supposed to be more flexible, less dependent on investments, and nonprofit, are not evenly distributed through the regions.

Table 9. Distribution of the ratio of higher and technical private institutions compared to the distribution of the population in Egypt

	Cairo	Giza	Alexandria	Other governorates	Total
Institutions%	36	25	11	28	100
population	10.7	5.1	5.7	78.5	100

Source:

- Ministry of Higher Education, Information Unit - Newsletter, 2006/2007.
- Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, 2006.

Second: Inequality in terms of Gender

When we look at the students enrolled in the private universities, we will see some indicators of inequality between male and female students and their fields of study. See Table 10.

Table 10. Students enrolled in governmental & private universities by sex & university (01/02 – 10/1011)

	11/10	10/09	09/08	08/07	07/06	06/05	05/04	04/03	03/02	02/01
Gov. Universities										
Male	849921	976084	980948	955788	960115	981302	915940	837733	816896	800091
Female	800065	952028	937351	913132	909733	899158	845436	777534	735726	694556
Private Universities										
Male	45069	38175	37336	28836	28374	52127	52579	52509	49557	45920
Female	27913	32134	22516	18568	15627	30981	30211	27551	25193	22878

Source: CAPMAS, 2013.

Inequality and discrimination are rooted in all higher education institutions that are not based on merit, but depend on wealth and ability to pay. There is an inequality between students in general. There is inequality between students who are in university or non-university education, private or public universities, and among the students within the same public universities majoring in foreign language and Arabic programs. This inequality extends to private universities and foreign universities. The higher education system in Egypt introduced inequality between the students and re-created disparities in society.

Third: Inequality and Discrimination in the Egyptian Job Market

The inequality in the Egyptian higher education system is also reflected in the Egyptian job market. Only about 50% percent of higher education students believe that their education prepares them for the labor market (SYPE 2010). This market has different kinds of jobs and work opportunities. On the one hand, there are high-level jobs and work opportunities, which have a very good salary and socioeconomic status, such as work opportunities in foreign companies and the private and investment sector. On the other hand, there are some work opportunities in the governmental sector, which have a low salary. In the past, obtaining good jobs was associated with the level of educational achievement, that is, credentials. All graduates from any program had the same opportunities to get a job with the same salary and without any discrimination based on the higher education institutions that they attended.

Today, the selection rule is different. It depends on the socioeconomic status of graduates, reflected in the higher education institutions that they attended. In this context, the graduates from foreign universities, private universities, and special programs in public universities have the ability to join to prestigious companies and take good work opportunities. However, the graduates from the general public universities do not have same opportunity, although they do have the ability to get the job. The Egyptian human development report indicates that about 45 percent of the unemployment ratio comes from government-owned higher education institutions.* Graduates from those institutions often have low salary jobs that do not require specialized knowledge. We will discuss this phenomenon from two perspectives:

First: The investment sector established recently in Egypt can create about 1 percent of all opportunities to work in the Egyptian job market (Human Development Report in Egypt 2005). This ratio matches with the ratio of graduations of foreign and private universities. Therefore, the graduates from other higher education institutions cannot have any opportunity to take a good job in this sector.

Second: The kind of skills required in the Egyptian job market are taught in academic programs of foreign and private universities more than at public universities. These include technical and practical skills, communication skills, writing skills, applied skills, discipline and commitment, and other general skills.

The Egyptian Human Development Report indicates that students who enter the Egyptian job market do not have these required skills.

Table 11. *The result of a questionnaire about work skills of students who enter the Egyptian work market from government educational institutions*

Worker skills	Poor	Average	Very good
Technical	31.3	50.5	18.2
Practical	47.5	42.4	10.1
Communication	12	49.4	38.6
Writing	40.6	37	39.2
Applied Discipline and commitment	8.2	28.9	62.9
General	20.5	66.1	13.5

Source: Egyptian Human development report, 2010

Moreover, the amount of good jobs in the investment sector in Egyptian work market , matches with the ratio of graduations of foreign and private universities which is (1%). In addition, more skills required in the Egyptian job market are taught in academic programs of foreign and private universities than at public universities.

* The ratio of unemployment between the governmental higher education graduates is 45 percent. **Source :** Ministry of manpower and employers 2013

CONCLUSION

Given these findings, the researcher has argued that the justifications for policies of free higher education introduced in the early 1960s have been entirely undermined and new policies are needed. The basic principle guiding such a new framework is that governmental funds, which support higher education should target the groups that deserve governmental assistance and that richer groups should pay for their own education. A limited number of merit-based scholarships for students with the best performance need not be targeted based on need. The major challenge in implementing this principle is the state's ability to identify the more deserving groups in order to target them with assistance.

Admittedly, the fact that free governmental higher education is enshrined in the Egyptian constitution makes these proposed policy changes considerably more difficult. However, it is unfair to remove originally intended policy outcomes. It should be reasonably easy to educate the people about the need to reform. To succeed, however, the government must make a credible case that it is both willing and able to continue to provide free, high quality higher education to all those who need it.

The policies of establishing the new private universities, foreign universities and higher institutes should push these institutions out from the great cities in Egypt to the new regions in Upper Egypt or El-Dallta.

The government should determine the requirements for private and foreign universities' commitments by regulating, for example, that new private and foreign universities should provide 25 percent of grants and scholarships to the students from the public universities. This percentage will gradually decrease to 5 percent after 25 years of operations.

The government should also encourage public universities to offer new academic courses and bridge the quality gap of academic programs in foreign universities.

Finally, the higher education policies in Egypt should benefit from World Bank and GATS policies for achieving the merit condition, which empowers students to access higher education institutions and erase the inequality.

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