Durham E-Theses

Selection for university education in egypt:: practice, philosophy and perspective

Al-Din, Nadia Yussef Gamal

How to cite:

Al-Din, Nadia Yussef Gamal (1979) *Selection for university education in egypt:: practice, philosophy and perspective*, Durham theses, Durham University. Available at Durham E-Theses Online: http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/8111/

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a link is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the full Durham E-Theses policy for further details.

Academic Support Office, Durham University, University Office, Old Elvet, Durham DH1 3HP
e-mail: e-theses.admin@dur.ac.uk Tel: +44 0191 334 6107
http://etheses.dur.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

SELECTION FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN EGYPT: PRACTICE, PHILOSOPHY AND PERSPECTIVE

Nadia Yussef Gamal Al-Din

On 12 May 1979, the Cairo newspaper, Al-Ahram, announced that 132,000 successful General Secondary Certificate students would be likely to be accepted by the universities and institutes for the academic year 1979/80, compared with 112,000 accepted in 1978/79. The universities alone will therefore offer places to 75,000 compared with 70,000 in the previous year.

This means that the problem which attracted this researcher's attention in 1973/74 is still in existence. Moreover, as the number of students is increasing year by year, the pressure upon the universities is exacerbated.

The questions asked were, firstly, why all these thousands of young Egyptians who hold the General Secondary Certificate desire university education and, secondly, why the major response of the Government was and still is expansion and an ever-increasing intake of students in the universities. Is expansion within the university education sector alone, instead of a wide diversity in post-secondary education, the appropriate response to such strong demands?

The large number of students might result in vigorous competition to gain places in their chosen faculties. How can such places be offered to each individual, and furthermore, what criteria should the universities employ in their choice of candidates and to what extent can the Co-ordination

Office, which is the executive agent responsible for selection or distribution of students, succeed in ensuring equality of opportunity as well as satisfying the choice of faculty and university made by each student?

Selection for universities cannot be separated from the purposes of university education itself. The motivation of the consumers, i.e. the students themselves, in coming to university, is also very important. How far does students' motivation reflect the meaning of university education to the general public in the context of the circumstances of contemporary Egyptian society?

To cover this wide area, this research consists of seven chapters together with an introduction and a conclusion. The main concern of this research is the selection system or the admission policy to universities in Egypt. A questionnaire was designed to explore the students' purposes in coming to university and the relation between their initial choice of faculty and the place which they eventually occupied. Their views about the Co-ordination Office's system were also explored. In addition, this questionnaire aimed to indicate what equality of educational opportunity means in practice in the context of Egyptian society. The fieldwork, which was carried out in two of Egypt's universities, was dependent on student samples from 19 faculties. There follows a discussion of the stated purposes of university education in Egypt as set out in official documents. The final chapter outlines a new policy for post-secondary education in Egypt and a proposal for a new system for selection.

SELECTION FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN EGYPT: PRACTICE, PHILOSOPHY AND PERSPECTIVE

Nadia Yussef Gamal Al-Din

(St. Mary's College)

A thesis presented to the School of Education of the University of Durham for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, July 1979

--ooOoo--

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without his prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged.

DEDICATION

To Egypt's Future Generations

SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

		Page
Title page		
Dedication		
Summary of Contents		iii
List of Figures		iv
List of Tables		v
List of Appendices		xi
List of Brief References		xii
Acknowledgements		xvi
Preface		xvii
Introduction		xxiii
Chapter I :	The Present Structure of the Egyptian Educational System	1
Chapter II :	The Origins and Historical Development of Higher Education in Egypt	35
Chapter III :	University Education and Contemporary Egyptian Society	71
Chapter IV :	The Current Admission System to Universities in Egypt	115
Chapter V :	The Student and the Selection System, Analysis of Data of Questionnaire and Principle Findings	153
Chapter VI :	A Critical Evaluation of the Selection System Procedure	247
Chapter VII :	Recommendations for Revising the University Selection System	297
Conclusion		359
Appendices		379
Bibliography		433

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig. I : Inhabited areas of the Arab Republic of Egypt

Fig. II : The proportion of the number of enrolled students compared with those out of schools and universities (1976/77)

Fig. III : The educational ladder in the A.R. of Egypt

Fig. IV : Technical education within the educational system of Egypt

Fig. V : The successful students in the G.S.C.E. and the rate of enrolled numbers in universities from 1964/65 to 1974/75

Fig. VI : The growing number of universities in Egypt from 1952 to 1978

Fig. VII : General Secondary School Certificate (1976/77)

Fig. VIII : The proposed distribution of university education in Egypt (1976-1990)

LIST OF TABLES

I : Age distribution of Egypt's population 1960 and 1976

II : The distribution of Egypt's population aged ten years and over by sex and educational status

III : The trend of expenditure on education in Egypt in the 1970s

IV : The total number of compulsory age children compared with the number actually enrolled in primary schools from 1964/65 to 1975/76

V : The number of pupils at the beginning of the primary stage and at the end of its year period

VI : The first year enrolled numbers in secondary education in 1976/77

VII : The enrolment number in General Secondary schools in the years 1971/72 and 1973/74

VIII : The distribution of admitted leavers of secondary education according to qualifications (General-Technical) in the higher institutes, 1972/73 and 1974/75

IX : Secular universities in Egypt, 1976/77

X : The number of undergraduates in Egypt's three secular universities in non-selective years from 1925-1952

XI : The successful students in the General Secondary Examination and the rate of the enrolment number from 1964/65 to 1974/75

XII : The number of women in Egyptian universities from 1971/72 to 1973/74 (Graduates only)

XIII : The enrolment number of the different universities according to specialities and status in 1973/74

XIV : The proposed enrolment numbers by the Higher Council of Universities and the actual number enrolled

XV : The number of acceptances in Egyptian universities according to their qualifications from 1965/66 to 1974/75

XVI : The faculties of Egypt's universities according to the students' qualifications (branch of study and section)

XVII : The accepted number of students in each stage of admission in the Egyptian secular universities in 1976/77 (ordinary students)

XVIII : The students' number and status in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities (1976/77)

XIX(a) : The composition of the sample in Ain-Shams University by branch of study, faculty and sex

XIX(b) : The composition of the sample in Zagazig University by branch of study, faculty and sex

XX : The sample age composition

XXI : The stage of admission and the minimum total marks accepted in each stage (1976/77)

XXII : The distribution of the sample according to the stage of admission by university and branch of study

XXIII : The most popular faculties among the sample and the number of students who obtained their earlier choice in the two universities

XXIV(a) : The distribution of the Ain-Shams University sample according to their percentage by faculty and by sex

XXIV(b) : The distribution of the Zagazig University sample according to their percentage by faculty and by sex

XXV : The relation between the stages of admission and the pre-General Secondary Examination to join a particular faculty in the two universities by branch of study

XXVI : What influenced the samples in their earlier choice of faculty at the secondary school?

XXVII : Students' sources of information in choosing among faculties or subjects

XXVIII : The effect of geographical distribution

XXIX : Was the students' choice of faculty influenced by staying away or remaining with their families? The distribution of the students by status and sex in the two universities

XXX : The number of Ain-Shams and Zagazig University students who had wanted to join another university and the most popular universities among those students

XXXI : The number of students who did not change their initial choice and did not attain it, and those who changed their choice and still did not attain it, by faculty

XXXII : What influenced students to gain a university degree in Ain-Shams and Zagazig University?

XXXIII : Reasons for coming to university, by sex, in both universities, Ain-Shams and Zagazig

XXXIV : A comparison between two reasons for entering university in two different societies (Egypt and Wales)

XXXV : Why reliance upon the total marks is not an accurate criterion for acceptance in the faculties

XXXVI : Why the students of the sample in both universities refused to gain a well-paid job without a university degree

XXXVII : The standard of parents' education in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities

XXXVIII : The standard of parents' education of the students in the Faculties of Education and Medicine in the two universities

XXXIX : The distribution of the sample according to their parents' standard of education compared with their reasons for entering university

XL : Why the present system of admission to Egyptian universities is unsuitable in the samples' view

XLI : The most preferable system of admission in Egyptian universities among the student sample

XLII : The samples' proposed system for admission to Egyptian universities

XLIII : The attitude of a sample of unsuccessful students towards their faculties in Ain-Shams University

XLIV : The expansion of university education in Egypt from 1952-1976

XLV : A comparison between the total accepted number in different faculties in the Egyptian universities in 1967/68 and 1972/73

XLVI : The number of members of staff, assistant lecturers and demonstrators in the Faculty of Education at Qina per ranks and departments (1974/75)

XLVII : The distribution of the failed students in some faculties of Ain-Shams University compared with their fathers' standard of education

LIST OF APPENDICES

		Page
Appendix I :	English translation of the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, Resolution No. 36 for the year 1977, and its Arabic photocopy	380
Appendix II :	Questionnaire (English translation and the original copy in Arabic)	383
Appendix III :	Egypt's Universities	396
Appendix IV :	(a) The distribution of the sample according to total mark percentage in different faculties at Ain-Shams University by branch of study	406
	(b) The distribution of the sample according to total mark percentage in different faculties at Zagazig University by branch of study	407
Appendix V :	An illustration of the faculties which have been completely filled and their minimum grades of acceptance, 1976/77 (Extract)	408
Appendix VI :	The application form (for the second stage candidates - scientific branch)	419
Appendix VII :	A photocopy of a candidate's copy of his list of choices of faculty in order of priority (1977/78), and a self-addressed letter from the Co-ordination Office to declare which faculty he will join	431

LIST OF BRIEF REFERENCES

Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities	Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Cairo, October, 1975 (in Arabic)
Abd-al-Karim, A.I.	Abd-al-Karim, A.I., History of Education in Muhammad Ali's Period, Al-Nahdah al-Misriyyah Press, Cairo, 1938 (in Arabic)
Arab Republic of Egypt, October Working Paper	Arab Republic of Egypt, The October Working Paper, presented by President Mohamed Anwar el-Sadat, April 1974, Ministry of Information, State Information Service, Cairo
Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University,	Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, Fuad the First University Publication, Cairo, 1950 (in Arabic)
Bidair, Su'ad H., Evaluation of the recent admission system of the university in Egypt	Bidair, Su'ad H., Evaluation of the recent admission system of the university in Egypt, (unpublished M.A. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1966 (in Arabic)

Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration Project, Country Case Study: Arab Republic of Egypt	Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration Project, Country Case Study: Arab Republic of Egypt, International Migration Project, Department of Economics, University of Durham, England, March, 1978
Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education	Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, The International Study of University Admission, Vol. I, UNESCO and IAU, Paris, 1963
Chirol, V.	Chirol, V., The Egyptian Problem, Macmillan, London, 1920
Dodge, B.	Dodge, B., Al-Azhar, A Millennium of Muslim Learning, The Middle East Institute, Washington D.C., Memorial Edition, 1974 (first published 1961)
El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II	El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, The International Study for University Admission, Vol. II (National Studies), Paris, 1965
Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction	Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, (unpublished Ph.D. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic)

Heyworth-Dunne, J.	Heyworth-Dunne, J., An Introduction to the History of Education in Modern Egypt, Frank Cass and Co. Ltd., London, 1968 (new impression, first edition, 1939)
Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Arab Republic of Egypt for Law No. 49 for the year 1972 concerning the organization of the universities	Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Arab Republic of Egypt for Law No. 49 for the year 1972 concerning the organization of the universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic)
Higher Council of Universities, Regulation for law of organization of the universities	Higher Council of Universities, Regulation for law of organization of the universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic)
Hyde, Georgie D.M.	Hyde, Georgie D.M., Education in Modern Egypt: Ideas and Realities, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1978
Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education	Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1964
Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the Peoples' Assembly	Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the Peoples' Assembly, Ministry of Education Press, Cairo, February, 1977 (in Arabic)

Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I	Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I, The General Strategy for Economic and Social Development
The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II (in Arabic)	, Vol. II, The Egyptian People, Arab Republic of Egypt, August 1977. (Vol. I only is in English, Vol. II is in Arabic)
National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, First session, 1975 Second session, 1975 Third session, 1977 (in Arabic)	National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, First session, June 1974-September 1974, Cairo, 1975, Second session, October 1974-July 1975, Cairo, 1975, Third session, October 1975-July 1976, Cairo, 1977 (in Arabic)
Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly Summer 1972, Vol. 26,	Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly, Summer 1972, Vol. 26, pp. 317-331
Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922	Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, (unpublished M.A. thesis), Institute of Education, University of London, 1956

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest thanks to Professor G.R. Batho, Professor of Education, Durham University, for his supervision and constant encouragement, without which this thesis would never have been completed. I am greatly indebted to Mr. Malcolm Macourt, formerly Research Fellow in Statistics at the North-East Area Study, Durham University, for his invaluable advice on my questionnaire, to Dr. M.A. Abd al-Nabi for his help in preparing and programming my data for computer analysis and to his wife, Samia, for her assistance in transliterating and transcribing the questionnaire material. Thanks are also due to Mr. T. Greener of the School of Education, Durham University, for his constructive help and to Miss K.E. Gordon for typing and checking the drafts. My gratitude to St. Mary's College, Durham University, for care and accommodation throughout the period of my study in the United Kingdom is beyond measure.

Last but not least, I thank the Egyptian Government deeply for its financial support during my research.

PREFACE

Many of the secondary sources consulted in this research, and most of the primary data, were originally written in Arabic. A problem arises in presenting these sources to readers not already familiar with Arabic, since detailed transliteration can be confusing and even incomprehensible. In citing the sources, therefore, the researcher has avoided transliteration as far as possible, and has chosen instead to present an English translation, indicating the original language in a note attached to the initial citation of each source. In the case of personal names and proper names, the transliteration system recommended by the School of Oriental Studies, Durham University, has been followed, except in some cases where the most common usage has been adopted.

INTRODUCTION

Egypt, or the United Arab Republic, as it became after the union with Syria in February 1958 and as it was still officially designated in spite of the dissolution of that union in September 1961, became the Arab Republic of Egypt in 1971. In recent years Egypt has been in the spotlight of world affairs as it always has been in the forefront of the history of mankind. Egypt has always had its own part to fulfil in the Middle East and among the Arab countries. In fact, Egypt's complex political, economic and social problems have been the subject of much discussion and over-simplification, often resulting in undue pessimism about the future.

Every country in the world has its own individuality, but Egypt has a highly distinctive personality in many respects. In writing a general and adequate introduction about Egypt and the development of her different aspects in the world today, the main difficulty arising is not what to include in the discussion, but, indeed, what to exclude. In Hourani's words:

> 'Egypt itself, (is) a great and complex society rooted in its countryside and its history, gradually changing but still remaining itself, and something more than can be contained in single abstract formulation'(1)

---

(1) Hourani, A., Foreword, in, Berque, J., Egypt, Imperialism and Revolution, translated from the French by Stewart, J., Faber, London, 1972, p. 5.

However, it was Herodouts who coined, perhaps, the most often repeated statement in the geographical literature, when he stated that, 'Egypt is the gift of the Nile'. This, partly, remains true not only because Egypt would have been completely desert without its fertility and prosperity, but it remains true also from the historical point of view that the valley of the Nile is one of the oldest meeting places of men and fertile ground upon which one of the first civilizations developed and flourished. The environment as well as its history played a major part in forming the distinctive national character and the cultural background of the Egyptian country and people. The Nile Valley and Delta support most of the Egyptian population. Along the Nile and across the valley, communications are easy and centralized political control is relatively simple to impose. Thanks to the Nile, Egypt's prominent feature has been the unbroken unity of the country throughout six or more millennia of her history. This and the absence of natural barriers in Egypt is responsible for the cultural homogeneity of the country which is in sharp contrast to the cultural diversity of an old civilized country like India.

The land, without people working to impress upon it their own style of life and civilization, is just a plot of land and a stream of water. Therefore, the Nile (which runs from South to North over a length of 674 miles

or 1,085 kms.) without people is simply a watercourse; but then people came to the Nile banks and settled there to utilize and share its riches and a unique civilization developed through this combination. Egypt also, indeed, is the gift of Egyptians who are recognized as fundamentally of moderate temperament. As one scholar pointed out:

> 'Egyptians whether in their conservatism or in their progressive urge, look with suspicion on all forms of extremism, fanaticism and intoxication. They have worked there through history by tenacity and not by passion or violence. This is what gives the stamp of permanence and indeed timelessness to our life and institutions. It is an approach which may be lacking in poetry and imagination; but is a highly civilized approach that has served to preserve us as a nation in the darkest day'(1)

Egypt occupies the North-Eastern corner of Africa, on the Southern shore of the Mediterranean, at the crossroads between North Africa and Western Asia, Europe and the East. The triangular Sinai is the meeting point of Asia and Africa. The Mediterranean and Red Seas provide natural boundaries to the North and East. The Suez Canal which opened to international navigation in 1869 has increased the importance of Egypt's strategic position, attracted foreign invaders throughout Egypt's history and European interest especially after Bonaparte's expedition (1798-1801). The modern political boundaries of Egypt were, to a large extent, the product of

---

(1) Awad, L., 'Cultural and Intellectual Development', in, Vatikiotis, P.J., (ed.), Egypt Since The Revolution, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1968, p. 61.

European colonization; the Sudan boundary was fixed in 1899, the Palestine boundary in 1906, and the Libyan boundary in 1925(1).

However, in spite of the fact that the total area of Egypt is approximately 386,200 square miles (1,001,449 sq. kms.) the cultivated and settled area is confined to the valley and the Delta of the River Nile, various oases in the Western Desert and a number of mining towns along the Red Sea coast, amounting to only approximately 13,741 square miles (35,580 sq. kms.). The area covered by water (the Nile and lakes) is 2,850 square miles (7,380 sq. kms.)(2). This means that the habitable area, in which about 99% of the population is concentrated, is about 3.55% of the total. Meanwhile, the possibility of desert reclamation and settlement is now under consideration. Yet, it is worth mentioning that while the population increased by 441% between 1882 and 1966 the inhabited area increased by only 2.5%(3).

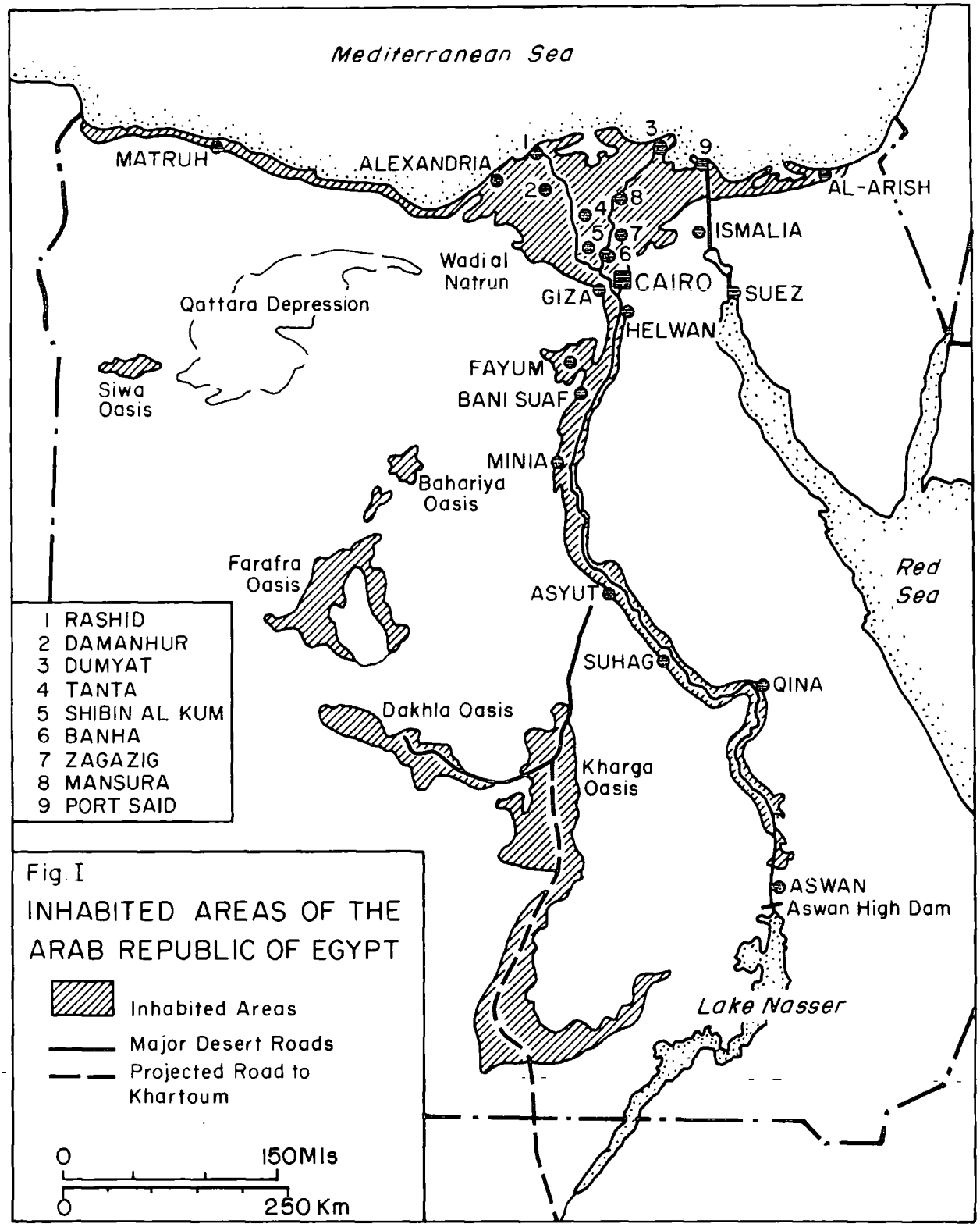
Despite great industrial expansion during the last two decades, Egypt is still basically an agricultural country. According to the 1976 Census, 66% of the

---

(1) Beaumont, P. et al., The Middle East: A Geographical Study, John Wiley, London, 1976, p. 472.

(2) See Figure I.

(3) Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Population and Development: A study on the population increase and its challenge to development in Egypt, Cairo, June 1973, p. 155.


Mediterranean Sea
MATRUH
ALEXANDRIA
AL-ARISH
ISMALIA
Wadi al Natrun
Qattara Depression
GIZA
CAIRO
SUEZ
HELWAN
FAYUM
BANI SUAF
Siwa Oasis
MINIA
Bahariya Oasis
Farafra Oasis
ASYUT
Red Sea
SUHAG
QINA
Dakhla Oasis
Kharga Oasis
ASWAN
Aswan High Dam
Lake Nasser
1 RASHID
2 DAMANHUR
3 DUMYAT
4 TANTA
5 SHIBIN AL KUM
6 BANHA
7 ZAGAZIG
8 MANSURA
9 PORT SAID
Fig. I
INHABITED AREAS OF THE ARAB REPUBLIC OF EGYPT
Inhabited Areas
Major Desert Roads
Projected Road to Khartoum
0 150 Mls
0 250 Km

population are still essentially rural dwellers. It is expected that during the coming decades the proportion of Egypt's population living in rural areas will gradually decline(1).

The Nile Valley from the Sudanese frontier down to Cairo comprises Upper Egypt, while the Delta from Cairo to the Mediterranean Sea is known as Lower Egypt. Egypt's habitable area is divided administratively into twenty-five governorates. Red Sea, Sinai (freed territory), Matruh and New Valley are sparsely populated border areas. Four governorates are urban areas, all in Lower Egypt, consisting of Cairo, Alexandria, Port Said and Suez. 21.4% of the population is living in these four urban cities, while 0.6% is in the former four desert ones. Of the other remaining governorates, nine are in Lower Egypt and accommodate about 43.4% of the population. 34.6% inhabit the eight governorates in Upper Egypt. Cairo, as the capital of Egypt, and one of the urban governorates, accommodates 13.87% of the total population alone, which in size, therefore, exceeds all other cities in Egypt(2). According to the latest estimation, Egypt's population at the beginning of 1979 exceeded 40 million, while in 1966 the figure was only 30,076,000 and 38,228,000 in 1976. The annual population

(1) Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Preliminary Results of the General Population and Housing Census, 22-23 November, 1976, Arab Republic of Egypt, Cairo, p. 6 (in Arabic).

(2) Ibid, Table 13, p. 36.

growth in Egypt is more than a million per year, or one additional person born every 41 seconds, according to the 1976 Census[1], and an extra person born every 26 seconds in conformity with the last estimation of January 1979[2].

Table I shows the age distribution of the 1976 population and compares this with the 1960 Census.

TABLE I

Age distribution of Egypt's population 1960 and 1976

Census year	Age Group (in percentages)			Total
	Less than 12 years (children)	12-64 years (production age)	65 and over (aged)	
1960	35.5	61.0	3.5	100%
1976	31.6	65.5	2.9	100%

Source:

Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Preliminary Results of the General Population and Housing Census, November 1976, Table 6, p. 25 (in Arabic).

The distribution of the population according to the above broad age groups reveals several important aspects and characteristics of the community. For

(1) Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Preliminary Results of the General Population and Housing Census, November 1976, p. 6.

(2) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 25 January 1979.

example, it shows the burden imposed by children and aged persons on the productive element of the population and on the Government. Young and old in a society are capital absorbing rather than capital creating. In spite of the substantial increase in the proportion of the population which is in its productive years, it still remains high at 4.6 children to 10 adults. This amounts to 0.99 children per head of the economically active population. This confirms, on the one hand, the fact that the population pyramid is broad-based, and on the other hand, that capital investment becomes necessary for public expenditure on education and social services. These basic services absorb capital urgently needed in other more immediately productive sectors of the economy. The problem is not only to build new schools for the increasing number of children, but also to provide thousands of jobs for the school leavers on the one hand, and the rest of the illiterate population who need employment on the other hand.

However, the social and economic implications of rapid population growth in any developing country are well known. Whatever measures are taken, and however much efforts are expanded for reducing the rate of population growth, it has been estimated that the population of Egypt is expected to reach 66 million by the year 2000. The population will therefore have increased by 60% by the end of this century(1).

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 25 January 1979.

The overriding problem that faces the Egyptian people and their government, therefore, is the pressure of increasing population upon limited resources, a situation different from most of the other Arab countries or the Middle East. The situation has influenced and shaped Government policy, particularly in the social and economic spheres. In education, for example, although Egypt has a long and well-established modern educational system which offers education for approximately 7 million of Egypt's young people, so that one out of every six persons is in one of the educational institutions(1), and despite the fact that Egypt is exporting teachers, educational ideas and systems to the other Arab countries, it remains true that the educational service in Egypt has not yet succeeded in coping with the great population increase. The fight against illiteracy makes slow progress. The proportion of the population ten years old and over who were illiterate only declined from 70.5% in 1960 to 56.5% in 1976, but the absolute number actually increased, that is, in 1960, 11.1 million persons were illiterate; in 1976, 14.1 million still were, an increase of three million(2). Table II presents the distribution of the

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, The Egyptian People, Arab Republic of Egypt, Cairo, August 1977, p. 135 (in Arabic).

(2) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Contemporary International Labour Migration in the Arab Middle East: Patterns and Economic Significance, unpublished typed manuscript, Department of Economics, University of Durham, England, 1979, p. 25.

population aged ten years and over by sex and educational status during 1960 and 1976.

TABLE II

The distribution of Egypt's population aged ten years and over by sex and educational status during 1960 and 1976

Category	1960 (%)			1976 (%)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Illiterates	56.9	84.0	70.5	43.2	71.0	56.5
Able to read and write	32.6	12.4	22.5	33.2	16.2	25.1
Educational qualification below higher education	9.0	3.4	6.2	20.4	11.6	16.2
Higher qualification	1.5	0.2	0.2	3.2	1.2	2.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source:

Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Preliminary Results of the General Population and Housing Census, 22-23 November 1976, Table 8, p. 26 (in Arabic).

From the above table it is clear that there is still a considerable difference between the male and female rates of literacy in that 71% of all females over ten years old are illiterate compared with 43.2% of the male population. In fact, since 1960 more progress has been made in the education of males than females. However,

the number of people with university degrees and higher qualifications rose from 0.8% in 1960 to 2.2% in the last census. In other words, the number of persons with higher qualifications increased approximately three-fold and by some 300,000 persons(1). Yet, these numbers reveal little about the quality of education itself.

In a quick overview of the educational situation in Egypt in 1976/77, for example, it might be helpful to present the following facts:

1) There were about 7 million students in 13,000 schools and 11 universities;

2) The total number of children aged between six and twelve amounted to 5.5 million. Moreover, only 4.2 million children, or 83%, actually attended primary school despite the fact that this is the only compulsory stage of education;

3) In the preparatory school there were only 1.3 million, or approximately 50%, of the total number in the age group between 13-15 years old;

4) The different kinds of secondary schools accommodate about 820,000, or 33%, of

---

(1) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Contemporary International Labour Migration in the Arab Middle East: Patterns and Economic Significance, p. 25.

the 16-18 year olds. 385,000 of these were in the General Secondary school (the academic one), about 4,000,000 were in the technical secondary and 35,000 were in the teacher training institutes;

5) 400,000 students were in the universities and the higher institutes. The number represents about 10% of the age group between the ages of 19 and 22[1].

From the above it is noticeable that the educational pyramid in Egypt is broad. For every thirteen children in the primary school there is one in higher education. There are also two university undergraduates for every five secondary school students, but about ten in preparatory school for every five in secondary school, and ten in preparatory school for every twenty-six in the primary school[2].

In fact, the choice before Egypt is very limited because she has limited financial resources, a large number of uneducated people, a costly programme for rapid industrialization and her political ideology which recognizes that education should be the birthright of

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, pp. 122-123,
and,
See Figure II.

(2) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration Project Country Case Study: Arab Republic of Egypt, International Migration Project, University of Durham, England, March 1978, Fig. I, p. 9.

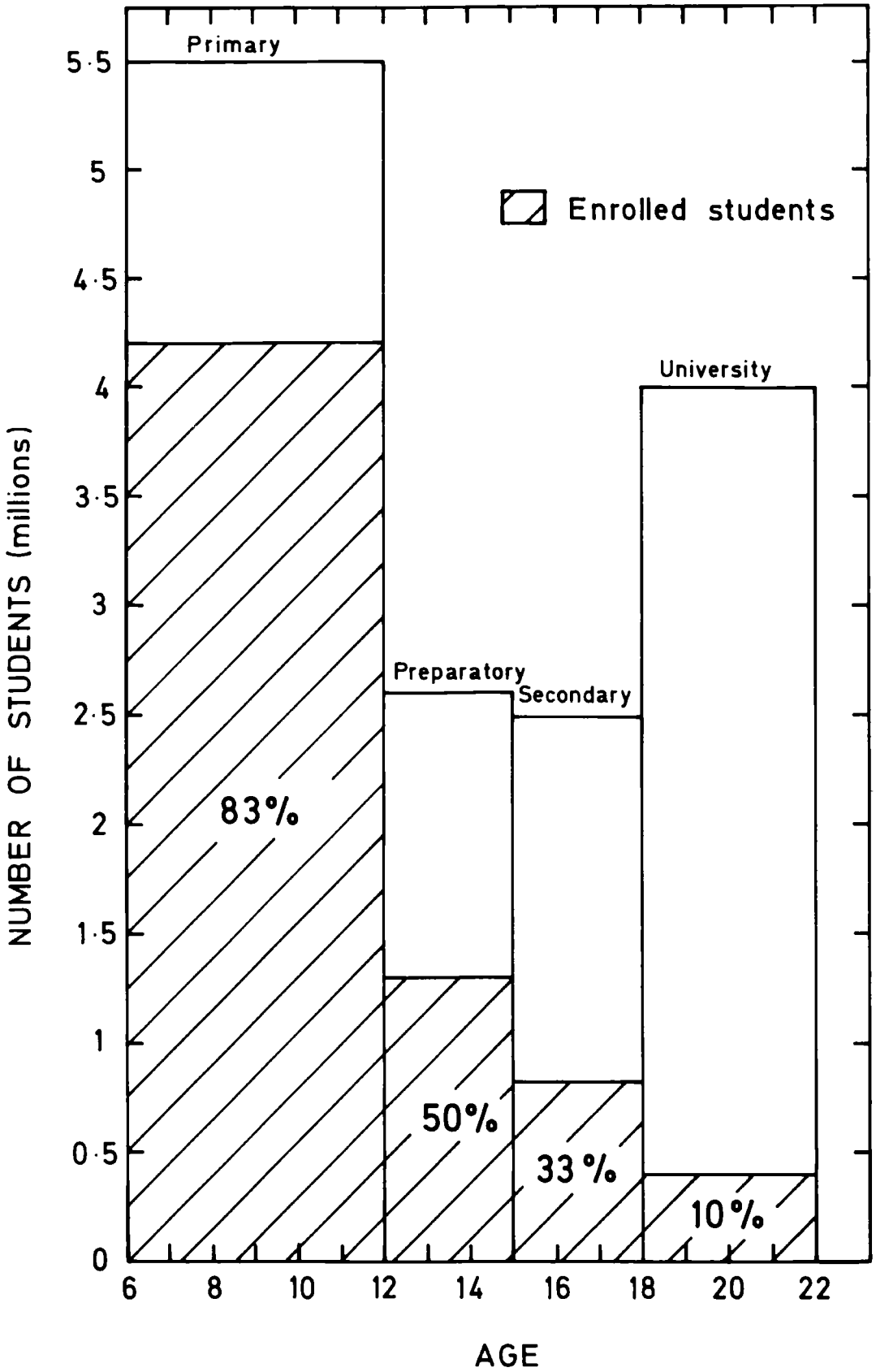


FIG. II The proportion of the enrolled students number comparing to those out of schools and universities. (1976 - 1977)

every Egyptian according to his merit, regardless of any financial barrier or social status. So, Egypt which has, in common with most of the developing countries, a lack of the capital necessary for overall development must move on all fronts at once; the political, the economic and the social. She must learn to run even before she has learned to walk.

Since the Revolution of July 1952, social justice has become the goal of both people and leaders. According to one view:

> 'Social justice in a country like Egypt should be taken to mean something very different from the meaning in an advanced country. Rather than referring to the just distribution of an existing amount of wealth, it should refer primarily to the just distribution of the burden of economic development. To the ordinary labourer, however, 'the end of exploitation' is simply equivalent to 'the end of poverty''(1)

Putting political ideology aside, it is the economic situation which remains the cornerstone of any society, especially in a developing country. Egypt's five year plan 1978-1982 stated that:

> 'the economic problems of the Egyptian economy are endemic and extensive: crisis is always imminent, solutions can be neither easy nor immediate inasmuch as economic relations and problems are tied to political and social behaviour'(2)

---

(1) Amin, G., 'The Egyptian Economy and the Revolution', in, Vatikiotis, P.J., (ed.), Egypt Since The Revolution, p. 45.

(2) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I, The General Strategy For Economic and Social Development, Arab Republic of Egypt, Cairo, August 1977, p. 1.

Unfortunately, a large part of Egyptian economic problems and obstacles in the path of increased social welfare is due to foreign involvement. In the last twenty-five years she has been involved in several wars, and even now a large part of the Sinai Peninsula is still occupied by foreign power. Accordingly, a heavy economic burden is still being imposed on Egypt in the defence of her national security which, in turn, weakens her economy.

However, it is believed that education can play an effective role in changing the fate of the nation, and that educational development should play its part in a policy designed for even faster economic progress. In fact, education is not only a desirable and important element for necessary development in this age of scientific explosion and rapid technological advance, but according to Article 26 of the universal Declaration of Human Rights (U.N., 10 December 1948), it is a basic human right. It might be said that education in our time, indeed, is the 'opium of nations'. For the developed and industrial world, knowledge means power and a sure method for the creation of wealth. The developing countries in their attempts to find a solution to their accumulated problems, see education as an important way to narrow the gap between themselves and the post-industrial societies.

As an aspect of social justice, equality of educational opportunity is an important feature in the educational philosophy and policy of Egypt. One of the

ways to fulfil this is by making education, from primary school to university, free of charge for all. In addition, expansion has become a very clear feature in the educational policy. For Egypt, the expansion of the educational system on one level leads inevitably to an expansion in the following level or stage, e.g. expansion in secondary school presents the necessity for expansion of university education. This presents a real challenge for Egypt's educational policy and her economy.

In fact, the reason behind the selection of the problems considered in this research is that the development of university education, especially, is very often understood to be purely quantitative growth without substantial qualitative changes in the activities of the university in Egypt. Expansion is stressed more than reform and innovation in Egypt. Indeed, expansion in higher education and universities in particular has been the general trend globally since 1950 and the early 1960s. Egypt is no exception. Nevertheless, this research assumes that the development of university education is far more than mere quantative expansion in students and universities. Attention should be paid to the individuals and the benefits that are to be reaped from the university experience. One can claim that 'university for all' is possible, but university education in the present day Egyptian environment will be the victim. A university is not just a place to accommodate the secondary school leavers, but also incorporates an ideal and method.

Educational problems must be understood in relation to the social process that is affecting and shaping institutions. The conflict between the university as an educational institution and social change is the primary concern of this research. This research accepts that educational institutions may not respond directly to social pressures in a straightforward way, but should continually endeavour to adapt to new demands made upon them as society changes.

University education in Egypt, however, is financed by the Government or the tax-payers, and these outside forces have affected the university as a distinctive organization. Primarily, the Government in response to national needs and public demand is the main force. It is essential to give youth a university education which will lead to pre-determined positions and therefore as a further protection against unemployment. The situation naturally becomes especially serious when the threat of unemployment and social maladjustment co-exist with rigid and archaic university structures.

One of the important considerations in this research is the economic situation in Egypt itself which does not allow all secondary school leavers to pursue a university education. Manpower requirement predictions are, therefore, a consideration also, hence the Ministerial Committee in 1967 for manpower proposed a limited number for entry into university and higher

institutes of 25,000 annually. In 1967/68 the real number entered was 33,400 and this number has continued to increase every year until in 1975/76 the figure had risen to 109,800(1).

This research assumes that these numbers might be partly explained as a response to what is happening in society as a whole which has been and still is undergoing cultural, social and structural transformations as a result of technological development, a world-wide revolution in communication, and demographic transformations and urbanization. Nevertheless, in Egypt in particular, there are important social factors at work which might tend to raise the place of education in the scale of individual preferences regardless of possible economic returns, and in this Egyptian students might be in a different position from those in some other societies.

More recently, official recognition of some of the dangers of the quantitative expansion of university education has been forthcoming, as can be seen in recent official reports which have reflected the major fear of many developing countries and Egypt also - the over-production of graduates, some of whom will join the army of unemployed or the masked unemployed. The five year plan of 1978-1982 stated that the,

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, p. 121 (in Arabic).

> 're-evaluation of present educational policy must be based on the actual needs of society. The government's obligation to employ graduates must be geared towards providing real productive work for the graduates and seeing that the universities train graduates for specific societal function, instead of serving the social prestige goals for which so many now desire university degrees. Distribution of employment must be firmly planned and enforced in order to ensure the most efficient use of our manpower resources ... accordingly the plan proposed that university enrolment should be limited and vocational training developed and promoted'.

To encourage young people to join other educational institutions such as technical training and to reduce the pressure upon university entrance:

> 'the wage structure will be re-evaluated, and the system of tying the wage to the certificate completely abolished in favour of wages geared to jobs and productivity. The present government obligation to employ all graduates will also be reconsidered in the light of expected expansion in economic activity'(1)

In fact the above official statements reflect the initial purpose, as viewed by the planners, of university education in Egypt. It seems that the economic difficulties in Egypt forced the planners to emphasize primarily the economic aspects of university or to view the university as a place for producing a number of professionals to satisfy the demands of society at any one time. The question arising concerns the students themselves and what they want from further education at university. Do they

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I, pp. 47-48.

want a university education principally as a means of attaining the higher earnings usually associated with extra education? Do they come to university to gain a better social status or to acquire knowledge for its own benefits? What are the reasons behind young people choosing a university education? The answers to these questions may help to reveal the basic conflicts within university education in Egypt.

The strong social demands in Egypt for university education in particular have led this research to ask what the young Egyptians want from university education. Is it for the knowledge and degree alone, or is the degree a means to an end, i.e. a 'meal ticket'? Are students in search of knowledge or in a search for higher social status?

Entry to university in Egypt is highly competitive, especially for those courses which lead to prestigious or bright careers such as medicine, engineering and dentistry. Moreover, competition is likely to increase rather than decrease since the demand for university education is very high and the expansion of secondary education cannot be accompanied by a corresponding expansion of universities.

A place in university and then in a specific faculty is a matter of open competition based on the total marks of each student in the General Secondary Examination Certificate. The demand of students themselves

in the light of limited places in universities decides the level at which applicants are to be accepted. The actual admission procedure is totally impersonal. There is no headmaster's report, nor any personal interview of applicants by the university authorities to assess either their interests in the chosen subject or their personal aptitudes. It should be emphasized that the faculties do not accept or reject any application for admission to their departments. Decisions about the applicants are entirely through a mechanical process carried out by the Co-ordination Office for Admission to Universities and Institutes, whose function is to control students distribution among universities and faculties according to the students' wishes and the vacant places in each faculty.

The sole criterion of selection for a place at a university is based upon the marks attained in the General Certificate Examination. This examination concerns only the subjects studied by the students at school, although it is capable, to a limited extent, of providing evidence on which forecasts of future success can be based. However, it is not designed primarily for the purpose of prediction but rather looks back to the individual's achievements at school. In spite of the clear disadvantages of the current method for entry into university, it is the only instrument available.

On the other hand, one of the important points on which this research wishes to shed some light is the relation between the students' first or original choice of faculty and the actual faculty in which they are placed on admission to the faculty which may not be the same. It seems that in some instances a student may not be accepted for the course which he had originally desired, in which case he accepts a place in any faculty offered to him regardless of his original interests, simply in order to attain a place in the university. Actually no-one can say that the student's first choice is always the best choice in terms of his ability or that he will be able to cope with it successfully. This is because students follow courses for many reasons, such as their reputation or the fashion at the time and so on. Among the purposes of this research are close examinations of the reasons behind students' choice of courses and the reasons behind their coming to universities in the first place.

Indeed, the question might arise at this point as to the title of this research. If the faculty has no say regarding the choice of potential candidates and if the candidates themselves have to run the risk of being denied their first or even second choices of courses, this research may perhaps be more suitably entitled, 'The Access or Admission System for Egyptian Universities' and not 'The Selection System'.

It will be argued that the starting-point in answer to this problem is that the university and its different faculties should be able to choose the students who want to study there, and that the students themselves should be permitted to study the subject of their own preference. Freedom of choice for both the institution and the individual should be the basis of university education.

It is hardly surprising that the selection procedure in existence today is a cause of annually renewed disappointment and discontent both on the part of the university departments who have no authority in the selection of their own students, and on the part of the candidates who have not been allocated to the departments of their choice after having been led to believe that they have a right to enter in the name of the equality of opportunity as guaranteed to every citizen. The practical outcome of this system in terms of graduation results are equally unsatisfactory in that simple observation shows that after they have been allocated to university departments many of the students fail the annual promotion examinations and have to repeat the year's study, and in the final examinations by far the majority of students scrape through with only a mere pass degree.

The current policy of access to university and the distribution of candidates to the different faculties is a real problem in Egypt. The aim of this research is to examine it in detail according to current educational theory and practice from three aspects:

i) showing how current selection procedures in Egypt are related to prevailing social, economic and political factors, while at the same time laying stress on what a place in university means to the young Egyptian and his family;

ii) considering how the aims of university education might be defined in order to fit in with the manpower structure and current needs of Egyptian society;

iii) suggesting new procedures which could be developed regarding the selection of the most suitable students for the redefined university education in a way which may be demonstrably reconciled to the principles of social justice and the equality of educational opportunity.

Prior to more detailed discussion as to possible solutions postulated in this research in response to these assumptions, it is important to explain the method used in this research and the sources of information involved, which have played both a very essential part in forming its shape and the results obtained.

Concerning the policy of the Egyptian Government in the area of education, university education and its relation to the demands and needs of society the research depended to a great extent upon the reports, studies and statistics published by the Higher Council of Universities,

the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, the National Centre For Education, the Ministry of Planning and the Ministerial and other official statements published in the newspapers. In fact, in the absence of specialized periodicals, the daily newspaper, Al-Ahram, in particular, has played a very important part as a source of the current day-to-day information regarding education. Moreover, it has a role to play also as a reflection of present day issues and debates related to education in Egypt. Most of the sources concerned with the educational system and especially those in universities in Egypt to which the researcher had access were originally in the Arabic language. First-hand material, therefore, was usually the basis for most of the following discussion upon Egypt's system of education, its purposes, policies and problems. The literature on university education in English has presented a wide theoretical basis for this research and the handful of available surveys conducted in Egypt and abroad in this same area has offered the opportunity for comparative investigations.

However, the views of the products of the current selection procedures, i.e. the undergraduates in the different faculties of the eleven secular universities in Egypt, must have an important part to play in any study of this nature. The reasons behind the coming of these students to university should be taken into account in any

new policy or innovation in Egypt's university education. The undergraduates are, after all, the most important 'customers' of the universities and as such their essential requirements and wishes must be duly considered. The outcome of their experience with the Co-ordination Office should be examined to find fresh answers to many repeated and unanswered questions, such as, why the student in Egypt is ready to study a subject which has not been his first choice. A questionnaire was, therefore, prepared and employed in order to obtain the views of some undergraduates, with regard to the points raised above. One of its objectives, for example, was to compare the students' first choice of faculty as opposed to the place they obtained. Since university education in Egypt recruits its students out of the best graduates of the selective secondary education, then how the student adjusts to his place in the faculty is more important in the case of the student who is not in the faculty of his first choice. Further questions covered the effects of such aspects upon student choice, such as the results attained by the students in their final examination in the General Secondary school, their stage in the admission process and some other related questions. But how does the student gain his information regarding the faculties and university education, which may have had an effect on the individual's final choice of faculty? It was also asked whether the student was content with the function of the Co-ordination Office and its results, and if not, whether he or she could suggest

any alternatives to this system of selection or if in agreement with it, whether he or she could make any suggestions as to future improvements.

It may seem, at first glance, that this questionnaire aims to cover a wide area, but in fact it has been carefully structured. All of its questions aim to shed light on the current admission process as a starting-point towards a philosophical analysis of the problems of university selection in Egypt and may therefore help in proposing a new approach for selection. More importantly, this survey might help to clarify the extent to which the students' views and concepts about the benefits of university education in a country such as Egypt, which is a developing nation in the economic sense, are comparable with the views of students in other countries, especially those which are already developed.

In this survey, it was decided, for many reasons, to concentrate on a small number of students in only two universities. The first of these reasons was the limited time allotted by the Egyptian authorities according to the regulation of the Missions Department of the Ministry of Education. Secondly, to ensure that the investigation was as accurate as possible, the researcher had to find the chosen students among the students of the two universities in two different cities and in nineteen different faculties, distributed in many places in various departments. Moreover, the researcher had to forward the

questionnaire to every student who was chosen in a variety of circumstances. One of the most difficult tasks faced, and one which created a further obstacle for the researcher, was the critical situation in Egypt during the period decided upon for the fieldwork - the Epiphany Term of 1977. The universities were closed for more than three weeks because they were situated in one of several politically explosive areas in Egypt at that time(1). As a result of this situation and other difficulties, further permission from the authorities to administer the questionnaire had to be sought. This was not a simple procedure. The permission was published in the official newspaper(2), after which permission had to be sought from the two universities of Ain-Shams and Zagazig to carry out the questionnaire as well as from the Deans of their nineteen faculties - ten in Ain-Shams University at Cairo, and nine in Zagazig University in Zagazig City, Sharqia Governorate.

Since no other research has been carried out in this particular field in Egypt, the survey cannot pretend to offer more than a very partial insight into university education and the admission system. There is an advantage

---

(1) About these events, see, for example, The Times, 18 January and later, 1977.

(2) Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Resolution 36, 1977, Al-Waqāi'al-Misriyyah, Vol. 49, 26 February 1977, p. 5 (in Arabic, and see its translation into English, Appendix I).

however in concentrating on the point of view of a few different groups of students. This produces a coherence which would not be gained from a more general survey. As the fieldwork was undertaken over a limited period, and depends upon this researcher's efforts alone, severe restrictions were placed on the scope of the questionnaire and its purpose. No attempt could be made, therefore, to draw upon a representative national sample.

The students' answers were translated from Arabic into English and were transferred into coding numbers. Punched cards were prepared and a computer programme was then produced for statistical analysis and cross-tabulation using the MTS system of Durham University Computer Unit, NUMAC.

It is the view of this research, however, that the educational system cannot be divorced from the overall context of its society. The historical background incorporated in this research, therefore, is not studied for its own sake, but as an important and inherent aspect capable of throwing light upon the roots of a number of difficulties and problems in modern Egyptian university education. Furthermore, the extent to which current problems are inherited from the past can be understood in this way. For a more comprehensive idea about the educational situation in Egypt and the place of the university, particularly in contemporary Egypt, two points were seen to be of great importance. The first is

the present structure of Egypt's educational system, the functions of each stage and its relation to the present situation in the educational field. This is the concern of the first chapter in this research. This is followed by the second chapter which outlines the origin of higher education in Egypt.

Focusing upon the Government's policy is the only means by which to explain and clarify many points. Traditionally, the Government has played a major part in forming most aspects of life in Egypt, including education, which mostly depends upon the central administration decision from Cairo. The second is the place of education in contemporary Egyptian society, especially that of universities. In this respect, each society is unique, so Egyptian people demand education, and the Governmental response to this demand requires wide enquiry and discussion. The third chapter presents this argument in detail. The role of the Co-ordination Office and how it works is also unique. In order to explain its functions, the fourth chapter analyses its function and the mechanics of the admission process.

The fifth chapter is devoted to the analysis of the questionnaire in an attempt to explore many points connected with the students' experience of the admission policy, and the reasons behind their insistence upon university education. Moreover, one of the assumptions of this research is that the current policy of expansion

in university education in Egypt not only meets the country's needs for manpower but also responds to social and political pressures which are influenced, in the view of many, by economic forces. The question, then, is to what extent this economic factor affects the students in their choice of university education.

With the recognition that the concept of the university itself belongs to civilization rather than to one country, and also that universities have no single pattern, it must be realised that university education in every country has its own national individuality. Accordingly, the crucial and fundamental questions may be, what is university and what can it do in Egypt? The relationship between the purposes of university education in Egypt and the policy of access to university education, and many other related points, is the main concern of the sixth chapter.

The above argument is developed in the seventh chapter in order to find an answer to the question, university education for whom: is it for everyone who wishes to spend some years of his or her youth at university, or is it only for a select few? At this point, the question of equality of educational opportunity may arise, hence, what does equality of opportunity mean in practice in the context of Egyptian society, and what does it mean in relation to university education. This research claims, however, that university is not an

egalitarian, political institution; its campuses are not places where social justice, in a narrow sense, can be practised. Social reform, indeed, should take place primarily in the whole society and not in the university alone. On the other hand, any change in university education policy in Egypt should be determined in the light of many interdependent factors.

The last chapter develops the argument for a flexible policy of entry to higher education and recommends a new method of university selection to conform with the proposed new institutions for post-secondary education.

In fact, the idea of this research has developed from an uneasy feeling that in spite of the importance of university education, it is the area in which research is most lacking in Egypt. It is hoped that the findings of this research will throw new light on university education in Egypt, especially its socio-economic status and its relation to the complex problems of selection. In addition, it is sincerely hoped that the outcome of this research might attract the attention of many scholars in Egypt and abroad and encourage them to examine more closely the different aspects of the role and problems of universities in the developing nations.

CHAPTER I

Present Structure of the Egyptian Educational System

The university in Egypt is the summit of the educational system and a university place is the aim of young people and their parents alike. To a large extent, the quality of the students and the standard of university teaching depend on the quality and number of students at primary, preparatory and secondary schools. It is, therefore, important to examine the whole educational system in Egypt, and in particular, the educational ladder.

In the view of some, educational systems may be studied in two ways: firstly, as institutions and organizations and, secondly, as processes of cultural transmission(1). However, this chapter will discuss the formal organization of the Egyptian education system after the July Revolution of 1952 without reference to the different informal organizations. Although education does not depend on schools alone or fulfil itself only in schools, the schools are, of course, an essential part of educational activity and their development and progress are a part of

(1) Cohen, P.S., Foreword, in Hopper, E., (ed.), Readings in the Theory of Educational Systems, Hutchinson University Library, London, 1972 (reprinted).

comprehensive planning. Schools have always done as much or as little of the work of education as society has wished, so that schools could give us as much information about a country as any other social organization. In schools we can see one of the most important processes of any nation - yesterday's traditions and today's policies moulding and developing the citizens of tomorrow.

In looking at the nature of educational systems and problems, we can say that it is inseparable from social and political planning and social life as a whole(1). It seems that strong educational changes are not divorced from political revolution(2). Nowadays, there is a strong tendency to feel that:

> '... if the educators will not change education, the politicians will.'(3)

It is clear that in this case the decision may not instantly be about radical educational change, but may start a movement towards gradual restructuring.

---

(1) Evetts, Julia, The Sociology of Educational Ideas, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1973, p. 154.

(2) Kogan, M., The Politics of Educational Change, Manchester University Press, Manchester, 1978, p. 15.

(3) International Association of Universities, Report of the Fourth General Conference, Tokyo, 31 August-6 September, 1965, I.A.U., Paris, 1966, p. 139.

As one of Egypt's revolutionary leading figures said:

> 'Building factories is easy, building hospitals and schools is possible, but building a nation of men is a hard and difficult task.'(1)

It is not easy to explain, or even to discover, how educational policy is made. Sometimes it exists as the expression of an intellectual tradition; sometimes it is made sharply and clearly as part of a general plan of national development; sometimes it is the result of emergency decisions, which are continued and formalized because there is no time to improve them. Whatever policy is made controls the structure and organization of the educational system and the flow of students through the system, and the educational establishment affects the lives of individuals and even the structure of society.

The official policy of most countries, especially of the developing nations, is now to support education, laying stress on its economic and cultural importance(2). The reason why education has been almost unanimously supported and developed is the wish to meet social demands and manpower need. In terms of an overall policy for society, the goals of education have been, briefly, economic growth and equality between citizens.

---

(1) Nasser, G. Abd-al, in a speech on July 22, 1957, commemorating the Fifth Anniversary of Egypt's Revolution, 22 July, 1957, Cairo, Information Department (in Arabic).

(2) King, E.J., Education and Social Change, Pergamon Press, New York, 1969, p. 3.

Developing countries, and Egypt is no exception, are now forced to face all aspects of educational re-examination and expansion simultaneously. Their programmes must accommodate campaigns against illiteracy at the same time as they attempt to provide primary, secondary and technical schools and higher education, all at a time when resources and experience are in short supply(1).

In Egypt, according to some views, educational expenditure is one of the biggest single items of the Government's budget. The following table shows the costs of education over specific periods of time, as a proportion of the State budget in the public services sector and the national income.

TABLE III

The Trend of Expenditure on Education in Egypt in the 1970s

Year	The Ministry of Education budget	% of the public service budget	% of the national income
1971/72	111,937,400	13.6%	4%
1972/73	126,577,678	not available	(2)
1976/77	280,000,000	12%	(3)

Source:

(2) National Centre for Educational Research, The System of Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt, unpublished typed manuscript, The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1973, p. 12.

(3) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, p. 123 (in Arabic).

(1) Edwards, E.O. and Todero, M.P., 'Educational demand and supply in the context of growing unemployment in less developed countries', World Development, Vol. I, Nos. 3-4, 1973, pp. 107-117.

The above table shows the trend of expenditure on formal education in Egypt which may not only reflect the sincere belief in the role of education in the national development, but also may not reach the standard of some developed countries or even some of Egypt's Arab neighbours, as the Minister of Education pointed out(1). However, the Egyptian Government is increasing the proportion of expenditure for educational development, nor merely because education is a vitally important social service, but because education is a good investment. Education yields a high rate of return, and it is used also as the deliberate instrument of technological and social change(2). Moreover, the official view is that education must function according to the needs of a society which is moving closer towards social justice and advanced technology, a society which needs trained citizens to safeguard its future(3). Since the problems of the 21st Century will have to be solved by the students of the 1980s, there is clearly little time. Tomorrow need not be the same as yesterday. In order that change may take place and

(1) Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the People's Assembly, Cairo, 1977, p. 10 (in Arabic).

(2) Hyde, Georgie D.M., Education in Modern Egypt: Ideas and Realities, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1978, p. 13.

(3) National Working Programme, Ministry of Information, State Information Service, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic).

the outlook become more hopeful, then education must be used as a key to more rapid and more meaningful economic growth. Advanced education is the basis on which research and development rests and is the foundation of technological progress. Schools and mass communication, which are forceful instruments of economic growth, must bring knowledge to increasing numbers of people. At the same time education is one of the finest fruits of economic growth. When we can offer a good standard of living, this in itself has no better use than to give more knowledge to all, and more understanding of the world in which we live. When we develop knowledge, therefore, as an instrument of economic growth, one of the results will be still more knowledge. Hence, education has to raise the entire population to as high a level as possible and this depends upon continual efforts to raise the cultural level of the people through schools and other means(1).

On the whole, the Egyptian Government has a strong belief in socialist and democratic ideas. School is one of the most important organizations in society to bring these ideas to fruition. School both affects and mirrors the quality of society. School in Egypt has greater importance than any extra-mural system in

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, Ch. III esp. (in Arabic).

the education of the masses. In any type of school, the most immediate aim in maintaining discipline is to effect efficient teaching(1).

The involvement of education in public life in Egypt is now more obvious than it has been previously. Access to the educational system as a whole is increasingly regarded as a basic right in Egypt, as in the whole world. In the view of the Egyptian citizen, equality of opportunity in the educational field means, in effect, that the children of peasants and humble workers have the chance to study medicine, law and science, to teach in university, to grasp opportunities of which their fathers never dreamed(2). This means that the democratization of the educational system moves from being an abstract concept towards being a practical and active approach through the participation not only of parents and students but also of all members of society.

Modern state education in Egypt dates back to the first quarter of the 19th Century, after Bonaparte's withdrawal in 1801 during the rule of Muhammad Ali.

---

(1) National Centre for Educational Research, The changing role of the teacher and its influence on preparation for the profession and on in-service training, unpublished typed manuscript, The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1975, pp. 4-5.

(2) Ministry of Education and Instruction, Educational movement in Egypt between past, present and future, and some attitudes towards reformation, Ministry Office, Cairo, June 1974, p. 25 (in Arabic).

The system was not native to Egypt, but was copied from European systems without profound investigation(1). While the contemporary system of education in Egypt is a relatively recent development compared with those in many other countries, particularly in Europe, the contemporary system dates back to early modern times. This fact gives one a better understanding of the Egyptian system of education and its problems. However, there is nothing extraordinary about the Egyptian educational system which is to a great extent similar to many other educational systems in the West and elsewhere.

Education is the responsibility of the Government which supervises all types of education, whether public or private. The Ministry of Education supervises public education and university education, while the Ministry of al-Azhar Affairs supervises the religious schools and is responsible for al-Azhar University.

The Minister for Education takes the responsibility of planning and following up education. The implementation is achieved through the educational directorate in the governorates. In addition, the Ministry consults the local bodies in drawing up the educational development plans in order to provide for their manpower needs. Technical councils are involved

---

(1) Lloyd, Lord, Egypt Since Cromer, Vol. I, Macmillan, London, 1933, p. 157,
and for more details, see Ch. II of this thesis.

in the Ministry of Education to help and study the new problems and find suitable solutions. The National Centre for Educational Research (1972) is one of these new technical councils. Its function is to co-operate with the Ministry of Education with a view to building the educational system on a scientific basis according to the needs of Egyptian society, the new technology and the new international trends in education. On the other hand, supervision of subjects taught in the public schools is carried out by inspectors in the Ministry of Education and the various educational directorates(1).

The organization of Egypt's education system is 6-3-3(2), with six years of compulsory education for all children, followed by free public education through the system for all those who can benefit from it.

For children aged from six to twelve years, schooling is offered in primary schools, both single-sex and mixed. Although this is the only compulsory

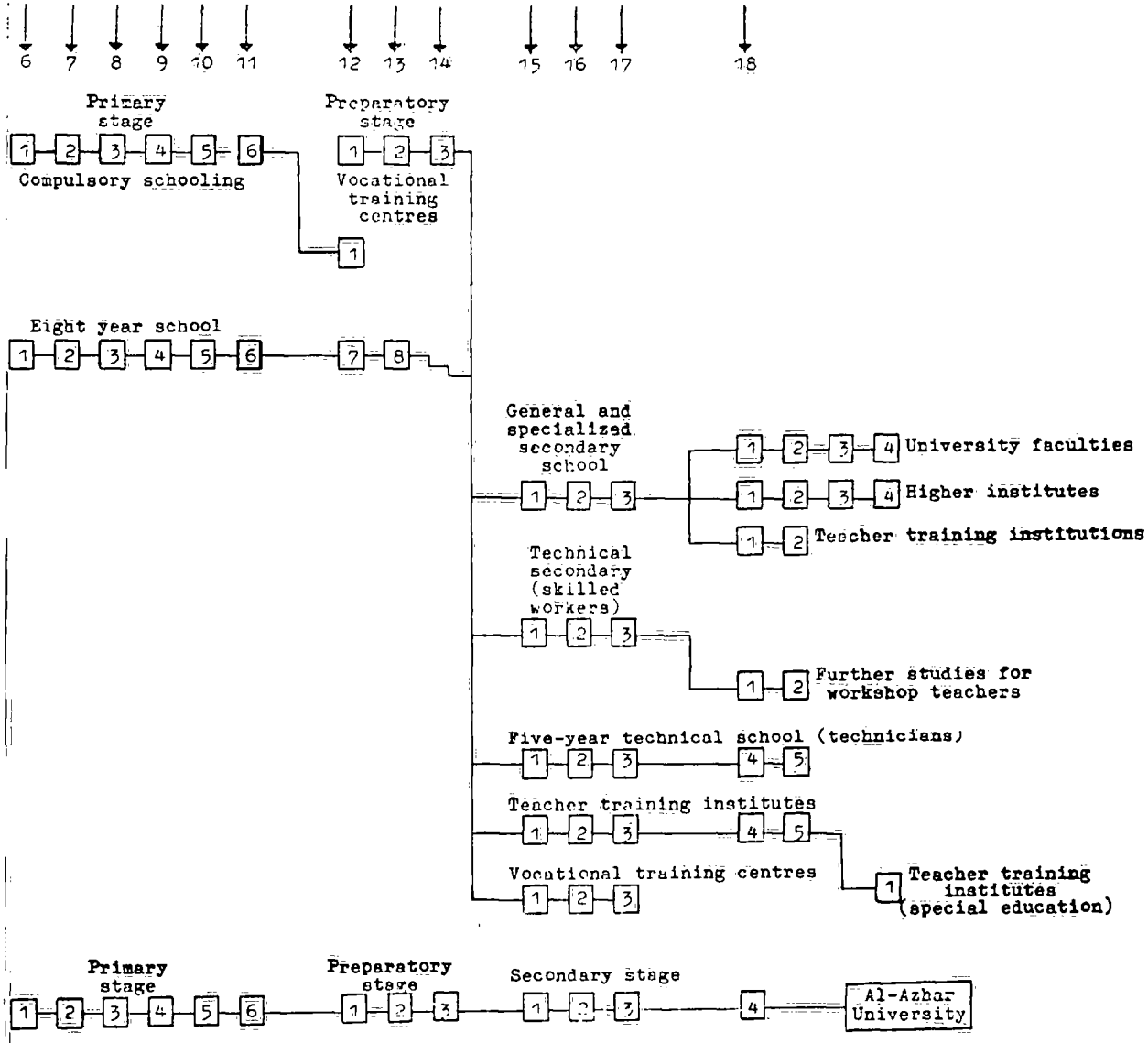
---

(1) For more details, see:
National Centre for Educational Research, Study on the Educational System in the Arab Republic of Egypt, Educational Documentation and Information Agency, Cairo, 1974, p. 10 (in Arabic),
and,
Hyde, Georgie D.M., Ch. 3 esp.

(2) See Figure III.

FIGURE III

The Educational Ladder in the A.R. of Egypt



Source: The National Centre for Educational Research, Report on the Development of Education, Cairo, 1975.

stage, there is a strong official desire to raise the compulsory age to cover a total of nine years instead of the recent six[1].

According to Regulation No. 68 for the year 1968, concerning general education in Egypt, the major function of primary schooling is to provide the young citizen with the elements of the culture, elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic and the basic skills of living[2]. Universal education is a foundation stone of the policy of the Government of Egypt for all aspects of development in Egyptian society. Accordingly, much expansion has taken place in this sector. As Fahmi pointed out, in the year 1953/54 primary school children totalled 1,393,741, rising to 3,583,892 in 1968/69 - an increase of 158%[3]. Table IV shows the enrolment number in primary schools against the age group for compulsory education from 1964/65 to 1975/76.

---

(1) National Working Programme (in Arabic), and, National Specialised Councils, Education and Scientific Research in the Revolution's Documents, unpublished typed manuscript, Cairo, N.D., (in Arabic).

(2) Arab Republic of Egypt, General and Private Education, General Corporation for Government Printing Press, Cairo, 1972 (reprinted), p. 2 (in Arabic).

(3) Fahmi, M.S., Economics of Primary Education in Egypt, Institute of National Planning, Memo No. 234, Cairo, May 1972, pp. 3-4 (in Arabic).

TABLE IV

The total number of compulsory age children as compared with the number actually enrolled in the primary schools from 1964/65 to 1975/76 (in thousands)

School year	Total number of the population in the compulsory age (6-12)	Enrolled number in primary school	Rate %
1964/65	5,394	3,330	61.7
1965/66	5,531	3,423	61.9
1966/67	5,671	3,482	61.4
1967/68	5,816	3,506	60.3
1968/69	5,963	3,586	60.2
1969/70	6,115	3,659	59.8
1970/71	6,270	3,783	60.3
1971/72	6,434	3,917	60.9
1972/73	6,578	4,037	61.4
1973/74	6,772	3,980	58.8
1974/75	6,960	4,020	57.7
1975/76	7,185	4,141	57.4

Source:

Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-82, Vol. II, p. 116 (in Arabic).

From the data it is clear that the Egyptian Government has an arduous task ahead if it is to accommodate all the young citizens and provide them with the minimum standard of education.

As a result of the rapid growth of population and economic difficulties, many children of schooling age are not in the primary school, or any other type of school. According to the Minister of Education's Report, the schools accommodate approximately 4,200,000 children of the age 6-12 years (their number is 5,500,000) and this means that approximately 83% of children of compulsory education age are at school. The Minister declared that the policy of expansion may attain the standard planned for 1981(1).

Another problem which relates to primary education is the high drop-out rate of pupils, especially in rural areas, for economic reasons, which makes the increase of educational services less effective. A recent study has shown that among each hundred pupils 36 only succeed in gaining the Primary School Certificate after six years(2). Table V shows the number of children in the initial year, 1969/70, and at the end of this stage in 1974/75.

Drop-outs and failure of final examinations at this stage present significant problems to educationalists which might nullify their efforts and also waste the limited financial resources.

---

(1) Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the People's Assembly, p. 10.

(2) Sulayman, M.S., Problems of Primary Education and Its Effects on the Illiteracy Eradication in Egypt, unpublished typed manuscript, Arab Organization for Education, Sciences and Culture, Cairo, September 1976, p. 33 (in Arabic).

TABLE V

The number of pupils at the beginning of the primary stage and at the end of its six year period

	1969/70	1974/75	Drop-out	Rate
Number of pupils	719,674	641,575	78,089	10.8%

Source:

Helmy, M.K., Report on the results of General Examinations for the academic year 1974/75, Ministry of Education, Ministry Office, Cairo, December 1975, p. 1 (in Arabic).

The following numbers may help to present the picture in the school year 1969/70. The number of registered pupils on 15 November 1969 was 482,947, the regular number on 31 January 1970 was 450,181, the number of those entering the final examination was 382,782, the number of those who actually attended the examination was 361,796 and the successful number was 181,979. This means that the ratio of successful pupils to registered pupils is approximately 37.5%, and to the regular pupils, 40%. Therefore, approximately 60% of that particular school year left school without gaining enough preparation to face life outside(1). This picture differs from more recent ministerial reports which may reflect the improvement of this stage and the increase of the pupils' attainment. In the year 1974/75, the total number

(1) Sulayman, M.S., Problems of Primary Education and Its Effect on Illiteracy Eradication in Egypt, p. 37.

of successful students in the Primary School Certificate was approximately 495,717, the percentage of successful to the total number of students was 74%(1). This gives an indication of how children in the compulsory stage enter school and later leave without proper education and without possessing the basic skills of reading and writing. These immature products of primary school easily enter the illiterates army as soon as they leave school, in a country where almost 56.5% of its population over ten years of age remain illiterate.

Another main weakness of this stage is the division between its curriculum and the real needs of the students, especially in rural areas. The National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, in its Second Session Report, recommended that the primary school's function and purpose should be re-examined in the light of a pupil's needs and demands. Moreover, special efforts were to be made to improve primary school conditions and to increase the supply of well trained and qualified teachers(2).

---

(1) Helmy, M.K., Report on the Results of General Examinations for the Academic Year 1974/75, p. 1.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Second Session, October 1974-July 1975, Cairo, 1975, p. 32. (in Arabic).

The primary school teacher, in fact, is unlike the teacher in the general education school, i.e. he is the only teacher without a university qualification in Egypt's education system. The primary school is staffed by teachers holding diplomas from the teacher institutes, at the level of junior colleges(1).

The expressed policy of the Government of Egypt is to accommodate all successful pupils in the Primary School Certificate in the Government preparatory schools and subsidised private schools. As a result of this policy, the number of enrolled pupils in 1977 reached approximately 1,300,000. 93% of the number of successful pupils in the Primary School Certificate enrolled in this preparatory stage, 80% of them in governmental free schools and approximately 20% in private and subsidised schools(2). In spite of this, the enrolled number represents only 50% of boys and girls aged between 13 and 15 years(3). This means that for social, economic and other reasons, more than half of the compulsory age children did not reach the preparatory school at all. This might seem to demolish

---

(1) National Centre for Educational Research, The Changing Role of the Teacher, p. 21.

(2) Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the People's Assembly, p. 20.

(3) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, p. 123 (in Arabic).

the declared policy of ensuring the quality of educational opportunity. Accordingly, it might be possible to say that the selection for University education began in the transition process from primary to preparatory stages, if not beforehand(1).

However, admission to preparatory school is only possible for those who pass the examination held at the end of the sixth year of the primary school. The preparatory three years course at present represents an intermediate stage between the compulsory schooling and the selective secondary school. This school has a unified syllabus for all pupils, with segregated schools for boys and girls. It is normal, however, nowadays to find co-education classes in remote areas where there is a small number of girls. This stage has to qualify the students for secondary education and provide them with living skills(2). For financial reasons, however, this school cannot provide its students with useful technical education or any programme of vocational education to help its leavers in their future if they fail to gain a place in secondary school or if they decide to finish at

---

(1) For more details, see:
Sulayman, M.S., Problems of Primary Education and Its Effects on the Illiteracy Eradication in Egypt, p. 38 (in Arabic).

(2) National Centre for Educational Research, Study on the Educational System in the Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 62 (in Arabic).

this stage for any reason. In spite of the fact that this stage is independent, it is regarded as a bridge between the primary and the secondary stage(1). Nonetheless, one of the real problems of this school is that most of its students and their parents regard the only function of this stage as to lead to general secondary school and then to the university.

At the end of the third year, there is a general examination for all students, given locally by each educational director. This examination is competitive and successful students are awarded the Preparatory School Leaving Certificate. The primary and preparatory stages alike have the disadvantages of being transitional stages for some pupils and terminal stages for others. For the purpose of increasing the compulsory school period, a new type of school was set up as an experimental step in the year 1972/73. This school combined primary and preparatory education in an eight year course (one year less than the old system), which might reduce the cost of the educational process at this level. Admission to this school is the same as to ordinary primary school and it is co-educational(2).

---

(1) Hyde, Georgie D.M., p. 86.

(2) National Centre for Educational Research, Report on the Development of Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt during the period 1973/74 and 1974/75, unpublished typed manuscript, The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1975, p. 26.

The students who have successfully completed their preparatory course may progress to the following stage in its different forms. The total mark of the preparatory school final examination is the corner-stone of any decision as to which direction a pupil will proceed. In this researcher's view, the Preparatory School Certificate is, in fact, a bottle-neck in Egypt's educational system but not the beginning of selection for university education(1). It might be useful to mention that only 85% of the total number of those who succeeded in their Preparatory School Certificate examination were offered places in different types of secondary school, 80% of them in public secondary schools and the other 20% in private secondary schools. The rest of the pupils, 15%, may be admitted to Technical Training Centres, which are affiliated to many other different Ministeries, such as Health, Industry and Defence(2). Indeed, it may be said that the importance of the preparatory school depends upon the fact that those who will proceed to general secondary school are more likely, in turn, to proceed to university, while those who proceed through the technical secondary and vocational schools are more likely to stop at the end of its

---

(1) Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, UNESCO and the International Association of Universities, Paris, 1963, p. 80.

(2) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, p. 123.

three year course, which is meant to be a terminal stage, unlike the general secondary school. This may shed light on the reason why the Preparatory School Certificate is the first step in ensuring the competitive road to the successive cycle of study leading to a first degree.

Secondary education in Egypt, however, is the third stage in Egypt's general educational system. It covers a period of three years, terminating with a final national examination. Students at this stage are at least fourteen years of age and not over eighteen years of age. Education in this secondary stage is segregated except in certain cases, e.g. in rural and remote areas. Yet, the secondary stage differs from the previous stage as it covers different types of schools.

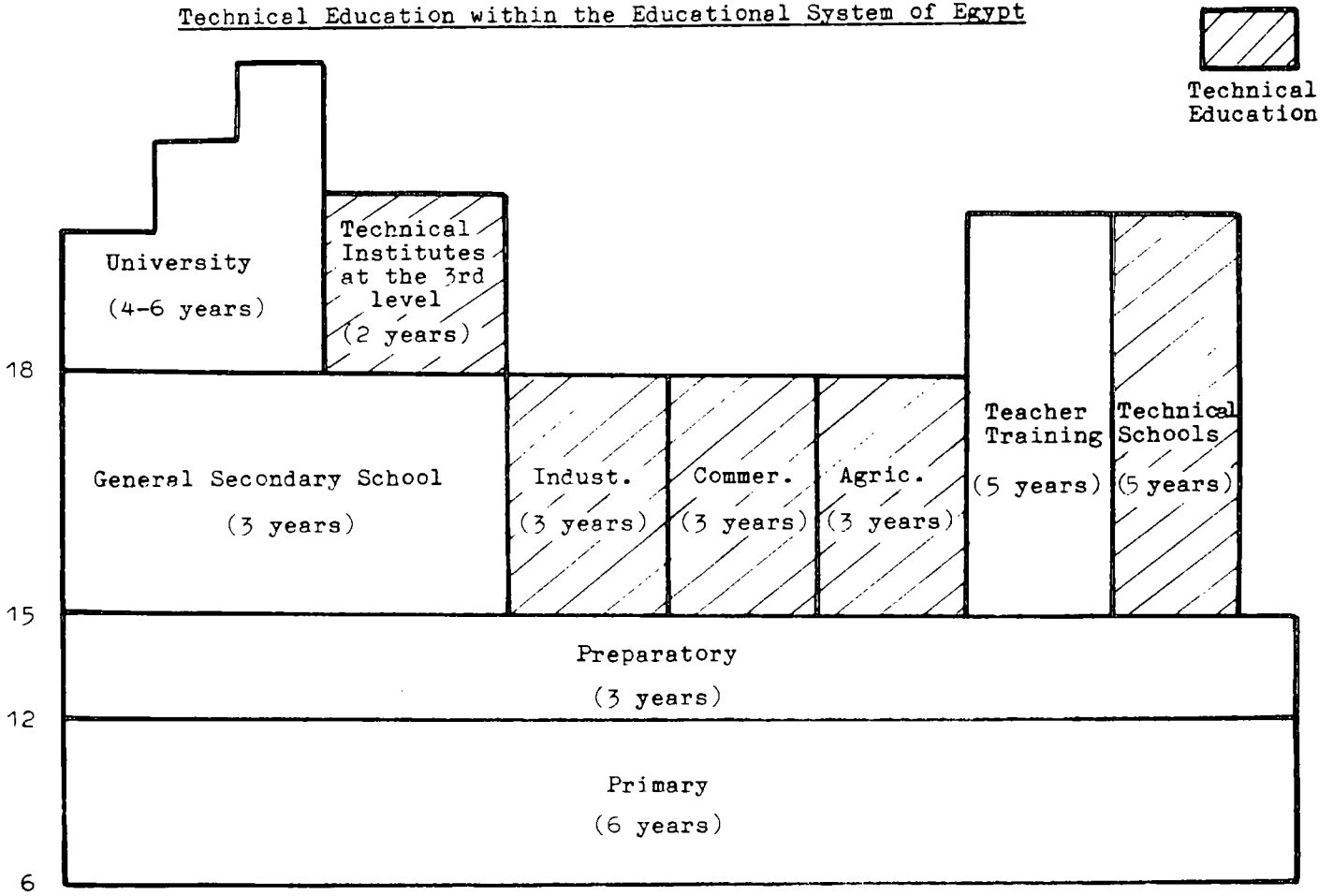
In Egypt's system of education, there are two types of secondary school: the general and the technical and vocational. The latter is usually divided into three types: agricultural, commercial and industrial(1). This indicates that the programmes in technical education begin in Egypt's educational system in the secondary stage. Those responsible in the Government have attempted to improve the technical secondary school standards and have adopted a policy

---

(1) See Figure IV.

FIGURE IV

Technical Education within the Educational System of Egypt



Source: Ghonem, S. and Moftah, A., Technical and Vocational Education,

of encouraging the technical education of qualified students who can make a worthwhile contribution to the country's development(1). According to official reports, the Government spares no effort to further and expand technical education, not only in order to meet the demand for development planning for technicians of all kinds, but also to reduce the enrolment number in the general secondary school. The official policy aims, therefore, to raise the total proportion of students in subsequent years in these technical and vocational training schools to 61% of the total number of students who obtain the Preparatory Education Certificate (as compared with 52% at present). Table VI shows the number of accepted students in the secondary stage in the school year 1976/77.

TABLE VI

The first year enrolled numbers in secondary education 1976/77

General Secondary	Technical and Vocational Secondary	Teacher Training	Total
115,900	132,200	8,500	256,600

Source:

Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the People's Assembly, p. 21.

(1) Ministry of Education and Instruction, The Policy of Education and Instruction, Cairo, July 1972, pp. 35-43 (in Arabic).

From the above table, it is clear that the number of first year students in technical and vocational education exceeds the number in the general secondary by approximately 12.4%.

In addition to these three-year technical, secondary and vocational schools, whose job is to train skilled workers, there are five-year technical schools. This recently developed range of technical skills in Egypt aims to prepare technicians, with professional expertise of a higher standard, for work in modern industry. It is limited, therefore, to the field of industry. As this school was opened in 1970, its first products graduated in 1974/75. A limited number of these schools have been established with assistance from other foreign countries(1).

The most distinguished pupils in the preparatory school examination gain admission to the general secondary school which is considered the academic secondary school in Egypt.

The first year of this school is general, and all students follow the same programme; a combination of Arts and Science subjects, two foreign languages and Arabic. At the end of the first year the students can join one of the sections of the general secondary

(1) Ghonem, S. and Moftah, A., Technical and Vocational Education (Country Report - Egypt), Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo, 1976, p. 2.

school: literary or scientific. The students are free to choose which branch they wish to follow. The scientific section separates into two main streams of study, corresponding to the principle divisions of the General Secondary Certificate examination.

The main and traditional function of this school is to provide the students with knowledge to help them to keep pace with scientific advances in order to meet the demand of advanced courses at University and Higher Institutes. The narrow academic nature of this school is responsible, by failing to prepare students for a non-academic life, for the disproportionate demand for university education as many reports clearly point out(1).

According to an early report of the Ministerial Committee for Manpower (1967), this school should not accept more than 20% of the total number of students who pass the Preparatory School Certificate examination. This means that Government policy seeks to direct the preparatory school leavers towards different types of secondary school and not merely the general one.

---

(1) National Centre for Educational Research, The Final Report of the Development of Secondary Education Committee, 7-24 May, 1975, Educational Documentation and Information Agency, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic),

and,

National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, Cairo, 1977, p. 33 (in Arabic).

In the academic year 1964/65, for example, the enrolled number in general secondary school was approximately 47.4% of the total number of preparatory school leavers(1). Table VII shows to what extent enrolment in this school failed to reach Government estimates drawn up in the Ministerial Report of 1965.

TABLE VII

The enrolment number in general secondary schools during the years 1971/72 to 1973/74

School year	Successful in preparatory school examination	Enrolled in general secondary school	Proportion of Enrolled %
1971/72	263,000	72,420	35.7
1972/73	203,494	73,830	36.3
1973/74	247,652	75,670	30.5

Source:

National Centre for Educational Research, Study on the Educational System in the Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 68.

Despite the apparent success of the Government in channelling students into the other fields of secondary education in the first half of the 1970s, the enrolled number for 1976/77 in the general secondary school, as

(1) Al-Shafi'i, I., 'Evaluation of the First Educational Five-Year Plan in the U.A.R.', Review of Educational Planning in the Arab States, No. 11, July 1966, Bierut, pp. 40-58 (in Arabic).

mentioned previously, increased to 115,900. In a speech of the Minister of Education published in the Cairo newspaper, Al-Akhbar, he explained the expansion in general secondary schooling as a result of public demand and also political pressure(1).

The examination for the General Secondary Certificate is a national examination, i.e. it includes all students in the country: students in Cairo and students elsewhere have the same examination in each subject simultaneously. All the answer papers are collected together in Cairo and teachers from all over the country begin the correction process. In 1973/74, for example, 20,000 teachers, supervisors and assistants converged in the capital and approximately 2 million papers were gathered. This central system became very difficult owing to the increasing number of students. There is now a strong movement towards decentralization of this process in order to ease the situation. This policy also aims to create a co-operative situation with the provincial universities, as the Minister of Education has stated(2).

---

(1) Al-Akhbar, Cairo newspaper, 10 August, 1977.

(2) Helmy, M.K., Report on the Results of General Examinations for the School Year 1974/75, Ministry of Education, Ministry Office, Cairo, December 1975, p. 24 (in Arabic),
and,
Sbah al-Khair, Cairo weekly magazine, 15 January, 1976.

The general secondary school in Egypt is meant to be a transitional stage, so that those students who gain the General Secondary Certificate may find their way to different types of post-secondary institutes, i.e. the ultimate stage of the educational system.

Up to 1975 there were two types of post-secondary education in Egypt; firstly, the State University education, officially autonomous in organization and administration, and secondly, Higher Institutes, not part of the University but administered by the Ministry of Higher Education. The courses of these Institutes last four years in some cases and five years in others. These courses of study result in a degree which is equivalent to that awarded by the University.

These Higher Institutes of Advanced Technology included many areas of study and branches of specialization which may be divided into four groups: commercial, industrial, agricultural and technical institutes. In addition to these groups, there were also other individual institutes, such as the Higher Institute of Physical Education for Teachers, the Higher Institute for Domestic Economy (female only), the Higher Institute for Social Service and also the School of Languages.

The objective of these Higher Institutes was officially to achieve different aims from those of the University, or to integrate with the University aims

rather than to duplicate them. These Higher Institutes were supposed, in part, to be open to the leavers or, indeed, the distinguished leavers of the technical and vocational schools, and partly to offer an alternative choice for the general secondary school leavers, as well as the other stated objectives. Indeed they did not execute this role to its full extent(1). The following table illustrates the place of the non-academic secondary school in these Institutes.

TABLE VIII

Distribution of admitted leavers of secondary education according to qualifications (General-Technical) at the Higher Institutes 1972/73 - 1974/75

Year	Number of general secondary students	Number of technical and vocational secondary students
1972/73	12,125	900
1973/74	10,403	657
1974/75	12,620	798

Source:

Ghonem, S. and Moftah, A., Technical and Vocational Education, Extract from Table 13, p. 18.

(1) Hassan, M.H., 'Within the Framework of the Second Five-Year Plan Relative to Higher Education in the United Arab Republic', Review of Educational Planning in the Arab States, No. 5, July, 1964, Bierut, pp. 62-89. (in Arabic).

From the above table it is possible to see the meagre chances which were available for the technical and vocational secondary students, therefore part of its objective was not achieved. Moreover, these Higher Institutes have become copies of similar faculties of universities. Owing to the shortage of teaching staff in these Institutes, many university teachers who work there teach the same courses as those in their faculties. From the point of view of students and parents, they prefer to go to university rather than these Institutes because of the social prestige of the university. As a result of many problems in this field, the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology recommended, in one of its reports, the re-examination of the status of these Higher Institutes and the unification of some with the university faculties they duplicate(1). A regulation of the law concerning the organization of universities for August 1975 was issued to end this binary system of higher education in Egypt, in the hope that this would up-grade technical education by making the Higher Institutes part of the university system(2).

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Second Session, 1975, p. 45 (in Arabic).

(2) Hyde, Georgie D.M., p. 115.

This incorporation in turn may lead to satisfying popular demand which prefers the words 'University' and 'Faculty' to 'Higher Institute'.

Item No. 1 of this law created the Helwan University, a new technical university comprising most of the institutes of higher education which became faculties. Helwan University accordingly became the eighth university in Egypt at that time(1). The School of Languages transferred into the Faculty of Linguistics, Ain-shams University. Some other Higher Institutes in the Suez Canal zone became the Suez Canal University and other new universities which increased the number of secular universities in Egypt in 1976/77 to eleven(2) (see Table IX and Appendix III).

In addition to these eleven State universities, there are two different types of university: firstly, the non-State secular university in Egypt, the American University of Cairo. This private University opened in 1920. It is, in the view of some, a small American-type, liberal arts college and in its organization, administration and teaching methods, follows the usual

---

(1) The Prime Minister, Resolution No. 924 for 1975 concerning the amendment of some rules of regulation for the law of organization of the universities, October, 1975 (in Arabic).

(2) Higher Council for Universities, Statistical Division, Cairo, 1977 (in Arabic).

TABLE IX

Secular Universities in Egypt 1976/77

No.	University	Foundation year	Location	Enrolled number
1	Cairo*	1908(1) 1925	Giza: Greater Cairo (Al-Fayum-Bani Suaf)(2)	88,217
2	Alexandria	1938 1942	Alexandria	71,627
3	Ain-Shams	1950	Cairo	84,417
4	Asyut	1957	Asyut (Suhag, Qina, Aswan)	28,040
5	Tanta	1962 1972	Tanta (Kafr-al-Shakh)	19,680
6	Al-Mansura	1962 1972	Al-Mansura (Dumyat)	29,459
7	Al-Zagazig	1969 1974	Al-Zagazig (Banha)	25,377
8	Helwan	1975	Cairo, Alexandria	34,864
9	Al-Minia	1969 1976	Al-Minia	10,277
10	Al-Munufia	1969 1976	Shibin-al-Kum	10,885
11	Suez Canal	1959 1976	Port Said-Ismailia and Suez	7,184

* Cairo University has a branch at Khartum - Sudan.

(1) The first date of the institution refers to its foundation as a faculty or more, attached to another university. The second date refers to the year in which the university has become a full independent university according to an official resolution.

(2) City names in brackets indicate some faculties attached to the university but in different cities of Egypt.

Source:

Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, 1977 (in Arabic).

American practice[1]. The undergraduate Faculty of Arts and Sciences offers four-year courses leading to the B.A. or B.Sc. degree with concentration on Arabic language and literature, Chemistry, Economics and Political Science, English language and literature, Sociology and Anthropology. The graduate Faculty of Arts and Sciences provides studies and supervision leading to the M.A. degree. This university comprises different units and services. It has a public section and offers wide courses for employed persons, and others in such subjects as Languages, Business Studies and Child Care. The American University, as a private enterprise, has its own methods of admitting students for those who reach its standard and who are willing to pay its tuition fees.

The thousand-year-old al-Azhar University is the second non-State university in Egypt. This is the only religious university in Egypt. The essential feature of al-Azhar University is, according to its religious spirit, that only Muslim students are admitted and only Muslims may be employed on the staff, as has always been the tradition in al-Azhar since its foundation. Al-Azhar University has its own Council and it is attached to the Ministry of Endowment and al-Azhar Affairs. The students who gain their General Secondary Certificate may be admitted to this university through the

---

(1) Qubain, F., Education and Science in the Arab World, The John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, Maryland, U.S.A., 1966, pp. 68-69.

Co-ordination Office of Admission. The course of study is one year longer than that of the secular universities and this extra year is devoted to religious studies(1).

Al-Azhar, with its medieval character, at that time enjoyed its place at the apex of the indigenous Muslim system of education in Egypt. In fact, in the Egyptian society, al-Azhar is not only the oldest higher institute for education, but also, as Hourani pointed out:

> '... has for so long maintained a stable Islamic culture and provided a moral link between capital and provinces and a path of social mobility'(2)

State university education in Egypt has undergone a massive expansion, especially since the 1970s. This expansion has covered the number of universities, faculties, members of staff and students, and the amount of expenditure. University education in Egypt is free of charge and is mainly under the administration of the Higher Council of Universities. All the State secular

---

(1) National Centre for Educational Research, Report on the Development of Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt during the period 1973/74 to 1974/75, p. 46,

and,

UNESCO, Universities and Higher Education in U.A.R. in the last fifty years (1920-70), The National Branch of U.N. Organization, Cairo, 1970, p. 51 (in Arabic).

(2) Hourani, A., in his foreword, in Berque, J., Egypt Imperialism and Revolution, p. 7.

universities are controlled by the Presidential Law No. 49 of 1972 and subsequent amendments. This law and its regulation covers, in detail, all the university affairs in Egypt(1).

The range of study in each university is shown in the list of faculties which are entitled to award degrees or diplomas. Some faculties can be found in most universities, while others are unique. Several Higher Institutes are also attached to particular universities(2). All the State universities admit candidates through the Co-ordination Office which is affiliated to the Higher Council of Universities.

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the A.R. of Egypt for Law No. 49 for the year 1972 concerning the organization of the universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic),

and,

The Prime Minister's Resolution No. 924 for 1975 and No. 1149 for 1976.

(2) Higher Council of Universities, Regulation for Law of Organization of the Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

CHAPTER II

The Origins and Historical Development of Higher Education in Egypt

One of the important innovations of the European medieval era was the establishment of the universities(1). It has been suggested by some scholars that the universities' rise was part of the legacy of Muslim civilization(2). This means that in the view of some, the early European universities owed part of their existence to the example set by the civilization of Islam(3). However, in Islamic civilization there was more than one institute for higher education, initially in the large mosques, and later in 'Madrasah' (school) during the Abbasid Caliphate(4). These traditional school

(1) Bowen, J., A History of Western Education, Vol. II. Methuen, London, 1975, Ch. 4.

(2) Gibb, H.A.R., 'The University in the Arab Muslim World, Egypt and Syria', in, Bradby, E. (ed.), The University Outside Europe. Oxford University Press, London, 1939, p. 281,
and,
Guillaum, A., 'Philosophy and Theology', in, Arnold, T. (ed.), The Legacy of Islam. Oxford University Press, London, 1931, pp. 242-244.

(3) Ebied, R.Y. and Young, M.J.L., 'Did the Arabs invent the University?'. Times Higher Educational Supplement, 2 May, 1975, p. 11.

(4) Ghunimah, M.A., The History of the Great Islamic Universities. Mwlay al-Hasan Institution, Tatwan, 1953, p. 63 (in Arabic),
and,
Gibb, H.A.R. and Kramers, J.H. (eds.) Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam. Luzac, London, 1961, Art 'Madrasa', p. 302.

systems of Islam fulfilled their purpose by teaching people knowledge and skills which they needed in their community and by implanting in them the sense of the unity of Islamic society.

The Fatimid Caliphate, in the 10th Century, A.D., used this system for their objectives. They founded al-Azhar Mosque in Cairo and used it both as a place of worship and for propagating their political ideas. Both religious education and theological knowledge come into play when we deal with the history of al-Azhar as an institution for higher learning.

The Azhar mosque was consecrated and opened for services during Ramadan in 361 A.H. (June-July 972 A.D.). Several Fatimid rulers built additions to the mosque and supported it with grants and foundations. Al-Aziz Nizar (365-389 A.H. - 976-996 A.D.) made it an academy(1). The aim of scholarship was simply to elaborate and propagate the official doctrine of the Fatimid Caliphate(2).

---

(1) Gibb, H.A.R. et al.,(eds.), Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam. Art 'Azhar', 1961, p. 50.

(2) Wardenburg, J., 'Some Institutional Aspects of Muslim Higher Education and Their Relation to Islam', Numen, Vol. XII, 12 April, 1965, pp. 97-138.

The Fatimid rulers were Shi'ah and the Egyptian were Sunnah[1], and in many ways the Fatimid system differed from the Sunni system which existed in Egypt before the Fatimid invasion took place. It seems that there were two principle reasons for organizing advanced study at al-Azhar. One reason was to teach legal authorities how to introduce the Fatimid system of jurisprudence, to take the place of the Sunni Codes, and the other reason was to train propaganda agents to win proselytes for the Fatimid Cause[2]. During their period, subjects such as philosophy and astronomy were taught at al-Azhar in addition to the Quranic studies.

When the power of the Fatimids ended, a new chapter in al-Azhar's history began. Throughout the age of Ayyubids, 1171-1252 A.D., the successors of the Fatimids, the Ayyubids established a new type of higher education institution in Egypt. There were more than thirteen colleges, known as 'Madrasah', founded during this epoch. These new colleges were built to substitute Sunni education for the heretical system of the

---

(1) 'Sunni' and 'Shi'i' are the names of the two main sects of Islam which are distinguished from each other by different interpretations of Islamic traditions and law. For details about these Islamic sects and the main difference of details between each sect, see, for example: Margoliouth, D.S., Mohammedanism, Williams and Norgate, London, N.D., Ch. V in particular.

(2) Dodge, B., Al-Azhar, A Millennium of Muslim Learning, The Middle East Institute, Washington D.C., 1974 (Reprinted), pp. 12-13.

Fatimids. The Azhar Mosque was not used for official services and the classes organized by the Fatimids were discontinued. Private classes were still held at al-Azhar, though for different purposes than those of the Fatimids(1).

The successors of Ayyubids were the Mamluk Sultans, 1250-1517 A.D. Baybars, the Mamluk Sultan, granted official permission for the revival of the Friday Service at al-Azhar, in 1266 A.D. Thus, after many years of humiliation, al-Azhar was re-established as a sanctuary for congregational worship, a school of higher learning and a centre for official business. In Dodge's view:

> 'It is difficult to explain why al-Azhar became increasingly important, while the other colleges and mosques in Cairo were neglected. During the fifteenth century al-Azhar was only one of eighty-seven mosques and seventy-five colleges; today all of these institutions have lost their importance except al-Azhar.'(2)

In the year 1517 A.D., the Ottoman army entered Cairo and Egypt became Ottoman Province. At this time al-Azhar was still a college for students as well as a great assembly mosque. Residential accommodation was provided for the students, particularly those from the provinces and from other Islamic countries. The

---

(1) Dodge, B., p. 36.

(2) Dodge, B., p. 17.

Azharites were arranged according to their place of origin, each province or country having its own (Riwaq) hostel lodging where the students were housed, fed and taught. Food and money were provided for the students in addition to accommodation. Al-Azhar has its own financial resources from endowments(1).

Several researchers into al-Azhar history have considered it as a mosque-college rather than a true university during the 18th Century, though others have considered it as one of the oldest universities(2). However al-Azhar is viewed, it was the centre of a group of true scholars. Although their learning was medieval, they worked hard, exerted a great influence over their students, championed the rights of the common people and were greatly respected by all classes of society(3).

Al-Azhar was open to every man and boy who was a Muslim and had attained the age of reason. It comprised a complete educational programme from elementary school lessons to advanced graduate study. This medieval

---

(1) Heyworth-Dunne, J., An Introduction to the History of Education in Modern Egypt. Cass, London (New impression) 1968, pp. 25-27.

(2) Bradby, E., 'Introduction', in, Bradby, E. (ed.) The University Outside Europe, p. 9.

(3) Lane, E.W., The Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptian. Dent, London (reprinted) 1966, pp. 218-219.

Muslim college provided its students with a special type of education. It is clear that Arabic rather than Latin was the foundation stone upon which the educational structure was built(1). This means that the Muslim college differed from the European seats of learning in the 18th century.

As well as the lessons of language and sciences of religion, al-Hadith (traditions), al-Tafsir (commentary) and al-Fiqh (law), there was a considerable amount of philosophy which was critical of Greek thinking. Astronomy and higher mathematics may have been taught to special students in the colleges. Medicine was, as a rule, taught in the hospitals.

Many students spent six years at al-Azhar, during which time they trained to become school teachers, legal assistants or junior officials. A student of great ambition might remain at the mosque for a longer period of time, until he could master the advanced subjects, in order to become a judge, professor, or mosque leader(2). Until this time, al-Azhar did not grant a diploma as an institution for higher learning, but a student was able to obtain a certificate from his professor when he completed a course. His collection

---

(1) Dodge, B., p. 40.

(2) Dodge, B., p. 101.

of certificates helped him to find employment when he left the mosque. These certificates were called 'al-Ijazah'. As there were no true diplomas, no requirements for admission and no grades, every student was compelled to be his own registrar and faculty adviser(1).

In the 18th Century, the Ottoman power had decayed, so that Egypt as a province of the Empire became increasingly independent. By the end of this Century, Egypt was almost independent but internal conditions were far less satisfactory than after the Ottoman Conquest. There were no contacts between Egypt and the outside world:

> '... since the discovery of the Cape route had meant the loss of transit trade, and as time went on the country gradually slipped into a sort of forgotten, half-ignored existence.'(2)

Napoleon's arrival in Egypt (1798) opened a new era in history. This French invasion was like a bridge to bring the country from the dark ages under the Ottoman occupation to the new light of Western civilization. On the other hand, educational activity

---

(1) Heyworth-Dunne, J., p. 19.

(2) Szyliowicz, J.S., Education and the Modernization in the Middle East. Cornell University Press, Ithaca, 1973, p. 97.

> '... was in a much more flourishing state in Cairo before the entrance of the French army than it has been in later years. It suffered severely from this invasion, not through direct oppression, but in consequence of the panic which this event occasioned and the troubles by which it was followed.'(1)

Al-Azhar at this period was the centre of Egyptian resistance to the French. The 'Ulama' and 'Shaykhs' (Rectors) of al-Azhar were the leaders of the struggle against foreign occupation and played a vital part in social and political life in Egypt until the French agreed to evacuate the country in 1801. Egypt was again in the hands of Ottoman rulers, but the Azhar Rectors elected Muhammad Ali in 1805 as a Governor of Egypt against the Ottoman Emperor's wishes.

Generally, it is possible to say that medieval educational institutions in Islam - in Egypt for example - did not form part of the apparatus of the secular state. This situation changed, however, in the first half of the 19th Century when Ali created modern school in Egypt and an army, on European lines, to serve the new state(2).

---

(1) Lane, E.W., The Manners and Customs of Modern Egyptians, p. 218.

(2) Steppat, F., 'National Educational Project in Egypt before the British Occupation', in, Polk, W.R. and Chambers, R.L. (eds.), Beginning of Modernization in the Middle East. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1968, p. 281.

Ali, accordingly, used education as an instrument to serve his immediate purposes. He, therefore, encouraged the creation of schools and different types of institutes for higher training on a modern basis, in addition to the traditional system of education. The student numbers of Azhar during this reign have been given as between 1,000 and 3,000(1).

It has been suggested that Ali was the first to introduce Western type schools in Egypt and also the first to send several selected students on a mission to France for training in 1826, though the new schooling system was designed basically to train personnel for his military purposes(2). The new schools included a number of non-military institutions, such as the School of Engineering which was established in 1820. This was followed by different higher schools in other fields, for example, Medicine and Veterinary Medicine (1827) and Agriculture (1830). At the same time Schools of Mineralogy and Chemistry, the Fine Arts and Craft works were established. The success of these institutions in providing Ali with new officers encouraged him to introduce improvements. Military academies were also founded to train men for

---

(1) Heyworth-Dunne, J., p. 465.

(2) Abd-al-Karim, A.I., History of Education in Muhammad Ali's Period. Al-Nahdah al-Misriyyah Press, Cairo, 1938, p. 27 (in Arabic).

the cavalry, infantry, artillery, munitions service, signalling and navy[1]. It is clear from the above that most, if not all, of these institutions were vocational merely to provide Ali with the needed civil servants and technicians on a narrow scale and in limited numbers.

The teachers in these new institutions were French and Italian. The teaching of such highly technical subjects by foreign teachers presented great difficulties. Many candidates for different forms of higher education were recruited from the student body of al-Azhar. Most of these students were ill-prepared for learning, for example, medicine or mathematics through foreign languages. There was a great need to establish a special bureau for translation and a School of Languages was set up in 1835. At Bulaq the printing press was enlarged and classes were formed to train men for translation, surveying and secretarial work. All students received free clothing, food and monetary allowances.

The new institutions were under the supervision of the Department of the War Office. In 1837 the Department of Education was reorganized as an

---

(1) Abd-al-Karim, A.I., p. 253 and p. 345,
and,
Heyworth-Dunne, J.,pp. 144-152 and p. 117 and p. 20.

independent office but its military character remained[1].

Accordingly, a double educational system developed resulting in, practically, a double culture: the 'traditional Muslim' in mosques and al-Azhar, and the 'modern Westernized' one in the new higher institutions.

The shortcomings of Ali's system were very serious. Firstly, the system had little or no direct intellectual purpose. Its general cultural value remained restricted by its limited aim of educating army officers and the advancement of Ali's military purposes. When external forces compelled him to reduce his armies in 1840/41, therefore, most of his new higher educational institutions lost their reason for existence. The education of students at this time was pragmatic and was intended only to serve the ruler's need for Government organization quickly. The ruler being unable or unwilling to wait for the results of reforms in primary education, there were no attempts at establishing even the nucleus of a public system. Muhammad Ali advised strongly, in a private instruction to his son, Ibrahim, in 1836, against the spread of education beyond the needs of state

---

(1) Abd-al-Karim, A.I., p. 104.

service[1]. On the whole, basic reform at the bottom of the educational ladder was neglected and no provision was made for the education of women[2].

In fact, this system, which started from the top of the educational ladder and not from the bottom, was a strange body in the Egyptian educational life. It was not co-ordinated, for example, with the traditional system, and its administrative and executive elite consisted of Egyptian elements, such as Turks and Armenians. It also neglected the traditional system in the mosques and at al-Azhar[3]. This policy affected al-Azhar's position as a leading institution of higher education at that time; although it was still active, it had suffered severe setbacks, particularly in respect of finance.

> 'Its prestige was rapidly diminishing and not only was it a citadel of traditionalism amidst the ferment of new life which was going on around it, but it was retrogressing even from its earlier standards.'(4)

---

(1) Abd-al-Karim, A.I., pp. 40-41.

(2) Ibid, pp. 602-606.

(3) Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education, Its Tradition and Modernization into the Arab National System. Luzac, London, 1973, pp. 55-56.

(4) Gibb, H.A.R., 'The University in the Arab Muslim World, Egypt and Syria', in, Bradby, E., (ed.), The University Outside Europe, pp. 284-285.

From the above it is possible to say that the first half of the 19th Century did not establish education for a modern Egypt but it was a period of transition between the medieval and modern. Because of the efforts made during the reign of Muhammad Ali, the stagnation of medieval thought was brought to an end, and the foundation was laid for the academic progress of modern times.

Towards the middle of the 19th Century, the Egyptian public began to show an interest in public affairs, especially in modern education, which up to that time had been the concern only of the rulers and some of their foreign advisers(1).

Both Ali and his son, Ibrahim, died in 1848. The next two rulers of Egypt, Abbas I (1848-54) and Said (1854-63) did little to further the development of modern education and higher education in particular. Also, they did nothing of importance for al-Azhar(2).

Khedive Isma'il (1863-79), an enlightened despot striving to make his country part of Europe, revived some of the projects started by Muhammad Ali, giving girls as well as boys the chance to become educated.

---

(1) Steppat, F., 'National Educational Projects in Egypt before the British Occupation', in, Polk, W.R. and Chambers, R.L., (eds.), Beginning of the Modernization in the Middle East, p. 282.

(2) Abd-al-Karim, A.I., p. 595.

He also encouraged the Western missions, Catholic and Protestant, to expand their educational programmes in Egypt(1). He gave his attention to the military and naval schools and their appropriate intermediate schools as soon as he came into power. His education policy up to 1868 took the same military form as Ali's(2).

Furthermore, a number of thinkers were deeply influenced by Western ideas, for instance, Rifa'a-al-Thtawi, Ali Mubarak and others who had passed, through the mission of Ali's, to Europe and seen its educational system. Mubarak, the Director of the Schools Department, also introduced a programme for liberal education in contrast to the militarist tradition. He separated the military from the civilian schools for the purpose of administration. In 1868 the School of Administration and Languages opened, to later become the School of Law, and is still in existence(3). As Director of the Schools Department, he clearly saw that the qualitative and quantitative improvement of the schools depended not only on finance but also on the suitability of teachers. In July 1871, he opened the School of Dar-al-Ulum (House of Sciences) in Cairo. A year later, in

---

(1) Steppat, F., 'National Educational Projects in Egypt before the British Occupation', in, Polk, W.R. and Chambers, R.L., (eds.), Beginning of the Modernization in the Middle East, p. 283.

(2) Heyworth-Dunne, J., p. 348.

(3) Ibid, p. 253.

September 1872, with the approval of the Khedive, the first teacher training college in Egypt was established, and still exists, in Dar-al-Ulum. From al-Azhar the students had been attracted to study in the new college. This teacher training college produced only a very small number of graduates: from 1873 to 1875 there were 15, from 1876 to 1878, 12, and from 1879 to 1881 there were 23 students(1).

As a result of great Government demand for translators, the School of Languages reopened in 1878, but the supply coming from this School was not enough to meet the demand. A new teachers' college was opened in September 1880 under the direction of the Frenchman, Mougel. This college merged with the Dar-al-Ulum school under the name of Central Teacher College(2).

There were, in fact, some institutions of higher learning which had survived from the reign of Muhammad Ali - for example, the School of Medicine from 1827 - but most higher schools suffered from the lack not only of money but also of teachers. The School of Law, for example, was not properly staffed. The Director sometimes gave lessons and sometimes ex-students were

---

(1) Heyworth-Dunne, J., p. 377.

(2) Ibid, p. 433.

employed as teachers, as were, occasionally, very able students who had not yet completed their degree. The Law School was, in the view of one researcher, in need of complete re-organization. The School of Engineering of 1820 survived, but was severely criticised. The School of Pharmacy was still in existence but had only seven students(1).

During Isma'il's reign, al-Azhar witnessed the beginning of a series of reforms which changed it from a medieval institution into a modern one. In order to raise the academic standards, the law of 3 February, 1872 was passed. This law was important because it was the first step towards a new system for selecting candidates who wished to teach at al-Azhar, and it provided a new method of teaching and of conducting their examinations(2).

Unfortunately, during the last year of Isma'il's reign, under financial pressure, many higher schools were consolidated. Some were even suppressed entirely, while enrolment figures in the secondary and primary schools were lowered(3).

---

(1) Heyworth-Dunne, J., pp. 432-433.

(2) Dodge, B., pp. 116-117.

(3) Heyworth-Dunne, J., p. 440.

After Khedive Ismail's removal from office, as a result of the financial crisis and pressure from Europe, Khedive Tawfiq became ruler in 1879-92. His government intended to speed the development of primary education as the first step in the reformation of the educational system and to satisfy public demand. But the 'Urabi Revolution of 1882, and British occupation of Egypt in September of the same year, curtailed this development.

There was no clear system in the field of higher education, except the School of Law and the new college, for training secondary school teachers, to satisfy the urgent demand for teachers for national projects of educational reform. This means that the aim of higher education was still, in general, to serve the Government's needs.

On the other hand, during the second half of the 19th Century, Egypt witnessed a strong movement by Muhammad Ali's students who had been sent to Europe to complete their training. Those students brought with them the seeds of a rational as well as a social movement. At al-Azhar there was Jamal-al-Din al-Afghani, the great Islamic thinker, who awakened a spirit of revival among the scholars of al-Azhar. Al-Afghani was a political and intellectual rebel. In al-Azhar a great number of students gathered around him in order to hear his lectures

as well as to listen to his revolutionary guidance(1). One of his great students was Muhammad Abduh, who became the Rector of al-Azhar and began a reform movement. The introduction of a Westernized educational system had been regarded by the Egyptian as the fundamental method for transforming Egypt and adapting its institutions to conform with those in the West(2).

Meanwhile, British occupation had begun in 1882 and Lord Cromer, who was appointed Consul-General in January 1884 and was in effect the ruler of Egypt from that date up to his retirement in 1907, had a different view. Under the same financial pressures as Ismail, and the pressure of Anglo-French policy towards the Egyptian financial crisis, the British in the first decades of occupation continued the reductions in education budgets(3). Generally, Cromer's policy in the field of education was to control and limit the type of education given to the Egyptian population.

> 'Westernized schools were to concentrate on producing Civil Servants for the bureaucracy in addition to the necessary professional men, lawyers, engineers and doctors. At the same time, efforts were to be made to give the population education

---

(1) Hourani, A., Arabic Thought in the Liberal Age, 1798-1939. Oxford University Press, London, 1970, pp. 67-161.

(2) Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education, pp. 69-72.

(3) Lloyd, Lord, Egypt Since Cromer, pp. 157 and 159.

> in basic subjects such as arithmetic, reading and writing, to be taught in the language of the country.'(1)

The reason behind the British officials' opposition to higher education and Western type education in Egypt was the 'Indian experience'. Lord Cromer believed that the expansion of Western style higher education in India had manufactured a discontented and politically-minded élite who were divorced from the mass of their own people. His attitude towards Egypt was to concentrate on elementary education together with a secondary education carefully controlled in quantity, while opposing the opening of a university(2).

The period from 1882 to 1922 was the period of British military occupation. In 1922 Egypt became nominally independent. During this period an autonomous Egyptian Government functioned theoretically under the suzerainty of the decisive influence of the British Resident, acting through the medium of British advisers in the various government departments. Until 1952 there was a constitutional monarchy in Egypt, though it was not in any real sense independent.

In the early years of the occupation, there were three higher institutes for learning which had survived from the reign of Ismail or from that of Muhammad Ali. The School of

---

(1) Tignor, R.L., Modernization and British Colonial Rule in Egypt, 1882-1914. Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1966, p. 320.

(2) Cromer, Lord, Modern Egypt, Vol. II. Macmillan, London, 1908, p. 534.

Medicine at Qasr-al-'Aini in Cairo, founded in 1827, was still the only one in Egypt, and at the same time the only School of Pharmacy. It had been fully Egyptianized and instruction was mainly in Arabic. Its diplomas were recognised in Europe, and it produced first-rate men(1). In 1890, the British gradually gained control of the School which was finally completely reorganized. English became the language of instruction, and British teaching staff were introduced. The Egyptian doctors were sent for further specialized training to England(2). But this School was totally inadequate for the country's needs. Its equipment allowed the training of only fifty graduates a year, while the country required hundreds. In some years, there were no more than six graduates from the School(3).

The problem of admission to higher education and the shortage of vacant places in higher education existed at that time. Chirol, in his book, The Egyptian Problem, published in 1920, referred to the School of Medicine thus:

> 'the average of annual applications for admission, all from young men with recognised educational qualifications, has been 149 for the last six years, for every applicant admitted four were turned back. For the School of Pharmacy the average was 38 and of these only one in four could find admission.'(4)

---

(1) Chirol, V., The Egyptian Problem, Macmillan, London, 1920, p. 223.

(2) Mansfield, P., The British in Egypt, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London, 1971, p. 143.

(3) Chirol, V., p. 223.

(4) Ibid, p. 223.

The School of Law differed from the School of Medicine. It was difficult to anglicize it because it was under French control, and it was not until 1899 that, against strong French opposition, an English section was introduced(1). The School of Law had high prestige in Egyptian society at this time, as it did later. It was always the first choice with students proceeding into higher education because it was considered the ladder to a political career. The successful law graduates waived their right to enter the government service in order to be called to the Egyptian Bar. As the Nationalist Movement grew, the Law School became the centre of anti-British propaganda and led the way with students' political strikes(2).

There was also a School of Agriculture, founded by Muhammad Ali in 1836. This School was closed in 1839 owing to the lack of students. It was opened again in 1867 by Khedive Ismail but in 1875 closed once more, partly for the same reason and partly owing to the financial crisis(3). Khedive Tawfiq reopened it in 1890, and the School has enjoyed an uninterrupted career since that time. This School differed from the School of Law or Medicine in that there were very few posts in government service for

---

(1) Tignor, R.L., Modernization and British Colonial Rule in Egypt, 1882-1914, pp. 333-336.

(2) Mansfield, P., The British in Egypt, p. 144.

(3) Heyworth-Dunne, J., pp. 350-352.

its students, a fact which tended to make the School unpopular[1]. This means that at this time, the government, as an agent of employment, was the important factor affecting the popularity of most of the higher education institutions.

As mentioned above, Ali founded the School of Engineering in 1834 at Bulaq, and Ismail reopened it in 1862 to train irrigational military engineers. Although the students were fed, clothed, lodged and paid, the number of students from 1887 to 1901 for any year was not more than ten and from 1901 to 1914 the number did not exceed twelve[2]. The most important reason behind the turning away from these higher schools and government higher education during the British occupation period was that the student had to pay fees from 1900, whilst under the reign of Ali and his successors, the government had borne tuition charges for its schools. In Cromer's view, the only way the Egyptians would come to value education was by paying for it themselves[3]. Another reason for the British decision to make Egyptians pay for their education in the government and Western type schools, in Tignor's view, was the personal philosophy of men like Cromer, that education was not the proper domain of the government[4].

---

(1) Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, unpublished M.A. thesis, Institute of Education, University of London, 1956, p. 24.

(2) Ibid, p. 226.

(3) Cromer, Lord, Modern Egypt, Vol. II, p. 531.

(4) Tignor, R.L., Modernization and British Colonial Rule in Egypt, 1882-1914, p. 325.

Higher education and Western type schools at that time, for various social as well as economic reasons, were considered to be a privilege of the wealthy classes who were able to afford the tuition fees. These fees were also used to limit enrolment in government schools to a number that the government could absorb into the administration.

However, admission to these higher schools depended on passing a public examination, known as the Secondary Certificate Examination, conducted annually by the Ministry of Public Instruction. All students in the government secondary schools, of which there were only three at that period, two in Cairo and one in Alexandria, had as their one aim the passing of this examination in order to qualify for admission to a higher school. The number of applicants far exceeded the vacancies(1). Williams' investigation shows that some important changes were made in 1910 to the regulations; candidates for admission were chosen according to their order of merit in the Secondary Certificate Examination for the current year. The result was that candidates who were rejected had no other means of preparing themselves for a legal career. 1912 was the first year in which the field of higher education in Egypt produced a new system for the rejected applicants. In this year, the examinations of the School of Law were opened to all candidates. For this reason a large number of people were attracted to complete their education and registered as

(1) Bowman, H., Middle East Window. Longmans, London, 1942, p. 53.

external students. This state of affairs came to an end when the State university was set up in 1925[1].

On the other hand, the Government educational system was rightly regarded by the Egyptians as the foundation stone of Government employment[2]. This was perhaps due to the system of education itself, the aim of which was to produce young men equipped solely for Government office. Young Egyptians preferred to enter any department of Government service rather than work outside the Government world, and because of this, until 1910, no provision had been made by the Ministry of Public Instruction for any form of commercial instruction[3]. In fact, it is not easy to accept this as the sole explanation; we must seek the true reasons behind the Egyptian attitude. The social and economic environment encouraged the graduate, in particular, to depend upon the Government posts. This was because the Government at that time, dominated all activities in Egyptian society. It is not strange, therefore, that the civil service or the Government posts were the only, or the most desired, avenues[4].

---

(1) Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, pp. 235-236.

(2) Chirol, V., p. 227.

(3) Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, p. 245.

(4) Mabro, R., The Egyptian Economy, 1952-1972, Oxford University Press, London, 1974, p. 25.

As time elapsed, clerical posts were filled, not by well educated youths, but by young men who had a smattering of general education. The vacancies occurring annually in various branches of the administration were insufficient for the increasing number of candidates seeking employment. The number of unemployed was swollen annually by the ranks of those who had failed either to pass the secondary school examination or to find occupation in the State service(1).

Although the British Government in Egypt argued that public money should be spent on mass elementary education and on raising the education levels of the masses, nevertheless the British system failed to abolish illiteracy or to reduce its numbers. At the end of nearly four decades 92% of the male population and over 99% of the female population of Egypt were still illiterate, according to one estimate, and over 80% of the population lived in the darkness of illiteracy according to another(2).

On the other hand, al-Azhar, with its unique system, was still active, and remained the popular place for many Egyptians seeking religious education. Muhammad Abduh was one of the reformation leaders who attempted to reform al-Azhar's system at the end of the 19th Century and the beginning of the 20th. Lord Cromer observed the reforming

---

(1) Bowman, H., Middle East Window, p. 64.

(2) Chirol, V., p. 221,
and,
Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, p. vii.

activity of Abdu with considerable satisfaction and used his indirect influence in favour of Abdu's programme. Meanwhile, Egyptian Conservatives refused this reform; they suspected the British wished to dominate and use al-Azhar, the citadel of Islamic education, for their own ends[1]. Another idea put forward in 1906 by some enlightened national leaders, was to create a new secular university based on the Western image of a university at that time. Hence, al-Azhar became less and less important in the field of higher education in Egyptian society compared with the modern Western type of institution for higher learning, bearing the ambitious name 'Egyptian University'. This new institution attracted students from al-Azhar itself[2].

At the beginning of the 20th Century there was great popular demand for a university. A national committee was elected to collect donations in 1906. As a result of the people's own contributions, the first secular Egyptian university came into being in 1908 at Cairo as an independent university, not subject to supervision by the Government[3]. Lord Cromer's successor, Eldo Gorst, agreed to the establishment of the university at the close of 1908. The Egyptian university began as an evening school.

---

(1) Tignor, R.L., Modernization and British Colonial Rule in Egypt, 1882-1914, p. 345.

(2) Wardenburg, J., 'Some Institutional Aspects of Muslim Higher Education and Their Relation to Islam', Numen, Vol. XII, 12 April, 1965, pp. 97-138.

(3) Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University. Fuad the first university publication, Cairo, 1950, p. 5 (in Arabic).

At first this new institution was financed entirely from private funds, and, although the Government later provided a small annual subsidy, it remained for some time on a very limited scale. In fact, this higher education institution was the outcome of the Nationalist Movement in Egypt of that period(1). At this point it may be feasible to say that the Egyptian university from its very beginning was different from many other universities in Africa and newly independent countries. In Africa, for example, the universities were built by British, French and Belgians on the foundation of European culture(2). In spite of the realization of the fact that the Egyptian university was a real product of national efforts, it is worth mentioning that the image of this university was influenced by the French and English concept of the university at that time. This is not surprising as those who supported this university were fascinated by the European universities and many of them graduated or attended lectures there(3). Additionally, they had been thinking of creating an Egyptian university for the home students in order to provide them with the subjects which they could not study unless they travelled

---

(1) Harris, M., Egypt Under the Egyptians. Chapman and Hall, London, 1925, pp. 71-72.

(2) Ashby, E., African Universities and Western Tradition. Oxford University Press, London, 1964, p. 71.

(3) For more details, see:
Ahmed, J.H., The Intellectual Origins of Egyptian Nationalism. Oxford University Press, London, 1968 (reprinted), p. 87.

to Europe, which was the Mecca of advancement in all aspects of life in the age of these national leaders(1).

This university was the first attempt to introduce liberal education in Egypt, in its European term, to counter Ali's system of higher education(2). The primary concern of this university was with pure knowledge and pure art, independent of all application to practice; with progress solely in culture. As Qasim Amin pointed out in his speech delivered at the occasion of the opening of the university, he had looked upon the university as an agency to create an elite in the mind, and leaders in many cultural fields upon whom depended the advancement of the Egyptian society(3).

It can be said that if the university is doing its job properly, a man who has been a student will be a more effective leader of his fellow men than if he had never attended a university, and he will necessarily be a better leader than many men who have not had a university education. The great hope of those national leaders, however, was to create leaders in different aspects of society life. In fact, one can say that this expectation

---

(1) Al-Nagār, H.F., Ahmad Lufti-al-Sayyid, Generations' Teacher, Al-Dar al-Misriyyah lil Talif wal Nashr, Cairo, 1965, p. 261 (in Arabic).

(2) Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1972, p. 106 (in Arabic).

(3) See the text of this speech in, Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, pp. 34-38 (in Arabic).

was the greatest hope of that time, as a reaction of the Egyptian circumstances, where the literate people were few and the illiterate were many, and education was the only solution in the view of these national leaders to win independence. Hence, those who built up the Egyptian university realized the role which the university could play in national development and the effect of cultural atmosphere on the struggle for independence(1). In this the Egyptian university's role in the whole society may differ from its European examples.

From the above, it is possible to suggest that the seed of the modern educational system in the previous century germinated at the beginning of the 20th Century, and its fruit was the founding of the Egyptian university in the year 1908.

Foreign visiting professors and several Egyptian scholars were invited to teach at the new university. Egyptian students were sent abroad to prepare for teaching in the new university. Lectures were given in ancient civilization, Islamic civilization, English literature, French literature and philosophical subjects. These subjects were taught in Arabic. A distinguished Spanish Orientalist, Gont v. de Colanza, for example, attracted several students from al-Azhar to a course of lectures delivered by him in Arabic on Western philosophy, during the first year examining Pascal and in the second year Kant.

---

(1) Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education, Its Tradition and Modernization into the Arab National System, p. 82.

In that period, there were also four Egyptian and seven European professors(1). In 1910 there were new sections for Agricultural Economics and Political Economics. No Egyptian women attended the ordinary courses, but special lectures on practical subjects were given to them separately(2). When the students who had been sent abroad returned from Europe to the Egyptian university, they began to teach Mathematics, Astronomy and Physics in 1913/14. The university began to award degrees to its students.

One of the important aims of the Egyptian university was to give instruction to all those who were willing and able. As a result of this aim, there were two systems, one for regular students, and another for external students. The students in this external section had to have obtained the Baccalaureat Certificate before they could attend these university courses(3).

This independent modern institution remained, for about fifteen years, a private institution, struggling under the handicap of inadequate funds. Moreover, as a result of the First World War, there were difficulties which prevented university expansion and development at that time.

---

(1) Chirol, V., p. 225.

(2) Gibb, H.A.R., 'The University in the Arab Muslim World, Egypt and Syria', in, Bradby, E., (ed.), The University Outside Europe, p. 285.

(3) Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, p. 117.

This situation gave rise to the idea of founding a State university. A committee was appointed in March 1917 to consider the establishment of a State university and the reform of higher education in Egypt. In fact its main concern was the new secular Egyptian university and not al-Azhar. The final report was published in 1921. In this first official document about university education in Egypt, the purposes of the university were set out:

> 'University is an institution for teaching and examination, working towards the advancement of knowledge, research, arts, sciences and to educate the people.'(1)

With Egypt obtaining conditional independence in 1922, however, the British grip on education relaxed. The aim of university education did not change in the Roual Decree of March 1925, which covered the purpose of the Egyptian university in its Second Act as follows:

> '... the Egyptian university is concerned with all activities related to higher learning which are carried out in its affiliated faculties; in general it has to encourage sciences in the country.'(2)

In 1925, therefore, the independent national university was placed under the supervision of the Government as an 'Egyptian university' and consisted of four faculties of Arts, which was the original university; of Law; Medicine;

---

(1) Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 92 (in Arabic).

(2) The text of the establishment of Egypt's university Decree is published in:
Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, pp. 344-348 (in Arabic).

Pharmacy, which had been founded in Ali's reign, and Sciences, to be created[1]. The first students graduated in 1929. In this year, also, girls were allowed to become part of its student body[2]. Firstly, it refused to incorporate higher schools, for example, Agriculture, Commerce, Engineering and Veterinary Medicine, as part of its community. But this resistance came to its end, and Decree No. 96, passed in 1935, incorporated these existing higher schools into the university, and these became its other faculties[3]. Within two decades the university had expanded to embrace nine faculties. In 1940, the name of the university was changed to Fuad the First University.

Instruction was given, wherever possible, in Arabic, but in the more technical subjects English and French were employed.

This State university continued its activity, with the increase of popular demand for higher education. Many decrees followed the earlier one but there was no important change in the university's educational purposes. The preservation of the cultural inheritance and its transmission from generation to generation was one of the important aspects of university education in Egypt.

---

(1) Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, p. 306 (in Arabic).

(2) Al-Nagār, H.F., Ahmad Lutfi-al-Sayyid, Generations' Teacher, p. 275 (in Arabic).

(3) Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 93 (in Arabic).

The advancement of sciences was the second part of its stated function in these Decrees[1]. It is obvious that preservation of culture is not the most important part of university work, but this should be accompanied by continuous re-examination in the light of new discoveries, and, according to the university, can make an important contribution to the cultural life of its society in particular, and the world in the wider sense.

In 1942 and 1950 another two universities came into being under the name Faruq: the first university in Alexandria and Ibrahim the Great University at Cairo[2]. University enrolment had reached about thirty-five thousand before the Egyptian Revolution of July 1952. Table X shows the number of undergraduates in Egypt's universities between 1925 and 1952, and also presents the outline of expansion of university education in Egypt, student numbers and universities in particular. It is also evident, as stated earlier, that the State and the students were more interested in the secular university than al-Azhar. Table X also indicates that by 1925, when the Egyptian university came into being, student numbers were limited, therefore, there were no serious problems

---

(1) Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 93 (in Arabic).

(2) After the Revolution of July 1952, the name of these two universities changed to Alexandria University in Alexandria, and Ain-Shams University at Cairo. Fuad the First also became Cairo University.

of admission. Students who obtained the Baccalaureat[1] literary branch were easily admitted to the university's faculties of Arts and Law; Baccalaureat science branch students could enter Sciences and Medicine faculties.

TABLE X

The number of undergraduates in Egypt's three secular universities in non-selective years from 1925-1952

Year	Fuad (Cairo)	Faruq (Alexandria)	Ibrahim (Ain-Shams)	Total
1925/26	2,027			2,027
1935/36	7,021			7,021
1942/43	8,178	1,197		9,275
1945/46	10,534	3,393		13,927
1950/51	18,226	5,987	7,531	31,744
1951/52	18,555	6,457	9,830	34,842

Source:

Extract from El-Said, M.E., The Expansion of Higher Education in U.A.R., Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1960, Table I (in Arabic).

As soon as the number of qualified candidates who applied for admission exceeded the number of available places at the university, the problem started to reveal itself. To resolve the problem, the Decree of 16 September, 1942 was issued. This stated that the admission would be granted according to the standard of the overall average earned by the applicants in the Secondary Certificate

(1) The equivalent of the General Secondary Certificate.

Examination. The University Council had the authority to define how many candidates should have access to each faculty of the university in the light of the number of vacancies(1). In many cases, the first faculty chosen by the applicent either had no vacancy for him, or rejected his application because the candidate's total marks were low. The candidate then had to try to gain admission to another faculty. This was accompanied by many difficulties especially after the opening of Faruq University at Alexandria (1942) and Ibrahim the Great at Cairo (1950). The difficulties were increased because candidates who were rejected by one of the Cairo universities may try to gain places in the other universities or in Alexandria. The candidates were confused by the admission process of the different faculties and the different universities in Egypt.

Meanwhile, the number of students who seeked university education rapidly increased after 1950 when secondary education became freely available. The basis for acceptance was still, at that time, based upon the candidate's total marks. This basis for selection worked most effectively in faculties such as Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy and Engineering. In other faculties, political pressure or the influence of a students affluent family, sometimes led to the by-passing of regulations.

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in UNESCO and IAU, Access to Higher Education, The International Study of University Admission, Vol. II, Paris, 1965, p. 468.

Consequently, the principle of equality of educational opportunity was not comprehensively applied. Up to that time, however, faculties had the right to accept candidates according to an agreed procedure: the total marks obtained in the secondary school final examination(1).

Besides these three secular universities, al-Azhar, in its medieval character, still at that time enjoyed its place at the apex of the Muslim system of education. In 1961, according to a Presidential Decree(2), al-Azhar changed from a mosque to a university. The main purpose of this was to bridge the gap between the secular university in Egypt and the al-Azhar system. Since 1961 al-Azhar has been undergoing modernization by the addition to its existing three traditional faculties of Theology, Muslim Law and Arabic Studies of another six faculties. These new faculties are Agriculture, Business and Administration, Engineering and Industries, Education, Medicine and Women's College.

The main reason behind the innovations is to preserve al-Azhar's general religious character, whilst keeping pace with the advancement of sciences(3). However, al-Azhar, as one of the oldest universities in the world, is still active and attracting students not only from Egypt but also from all the Islamic world.

---

(1) El-Said, M., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 468.

(2) For more details about al-Azhar law, see: Text of the Law with the Explanatory Memorandum of the Minister of State in Al-Azhar Magazine, Vol. 23, Cairo, July 1961, pp. 237-264 (in Arabic).

(3) UNESCO, University and Higher Education in U.A.R. in the last fifty years, 1920-70. The National Branch of U.N. Organization, 1970, Cairo, p. 51 (in Arabic).

CHAPTER III

University Education and Contemporary Egyptian Society

The philosophy of education and the system of education in any country is the outcome of forgotten struggles and difficulties and of past battles. These reflect the national character and aspirations and also the problems with which the system has been confronted. It is useful as well as important to quote a passage from A.J. Toynbee concerning the scribal culture of Ancient Egypt in 300 B.C. In a chapter entitled 'The Nemesis of Creativity', he wrote:

> '... under the new Empire, the same spirit breathes through the copy-book exhortations and warnings to school boys which convey the bureaucracy's unfaltering good opinion of itself as it still bestrides the broken back of a plebs that, by this time, has collapsed under the burden. 'Do not be a husbandman', 'Do not be a soldier', 'Do not be a charioteer', 'Do not be a soldier, a priest or baker'; 'Be an official'. These were the warnings with which the writing master, in those days, still drove home into his pupil's mind his exhortation to be diligent.'(1)

The explanation for this may be understood from what Hocart said:

> 'to administer and make a record are synonymous: the official is a scribe. Then, as new government employment enjoyed the greatest prestige and appeared to offer the

---

(1) Toynbee, A.J., A Study of History, Vol. IV. Oxford University Press, London, 1939, p. 420.

> most desirable career, because it seemed an easy life compared with other occupations and ensured a steady livelihood from the government, or, as the ancients expressed it, 'from the King's house'.'(1)

A study of the way in which the essence of such attitudes prevailed during the following period of Egyptian history sheds light on the place which university education has taken in Egyptian society. The previous chapter has shown that university education in its present sense did not exist before the beginning of this century. In spite of this, many would argue that Egypt, up to the beginning of the 'sixties, had one of the two best established programmes of university education in the whole of Africa. According to Bowles, the bulk of the enrolment was concentrated in Egypt(2). In addition to that, Egypt is one of the nations:

> 'which established their own cultural traditions long before the arrival of Western education and consequently gave a strong national flavour to the systems they developed.'(3)

Since the July Revolution of 1952, motivated by political, ideological and developmental considerations, the Egyptian Government has taken steps towards the

---

(1) Hocart, M.A., 'The Legacy of Modern Egypt', in, Glanville, S.R.K., (ed.), The Legacy of Egypt. Oxford University Press, London, 1942, p. 375.

(2) Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, p. 119.

(3) Bowles, F.H.,'Stages of Educational Development', in, Thompson, K.W., Fogel, B.R. and Danner, H.E., (eds.), Higher Education and Social Change: Promising Experiments in Developing Countries, Vol. II, Praeger Publishers, New York, 1977, p. 441.

democratization of higher education, to enable any qualified citizen to obtain a place in post-secondary education as in the previous stages. As the Charter of 1962 pointed out, equality of opportunity, requiring removal of hindrances to the development of individual talent, has to be engineered through the educational system(1). According to this concept of equality of educational opportunity which is closely connected with the idea of social mobility, a place in any educational institution is a social and political right. Simply stated, equality of educational opportunity implies that no-one should be prevented, through social or economic impediment, from obtaining the best possible schooling from which he can benefit. Entry to university, for example according to the student's total marks in the General Secondary Examination, seems to be relevant to social and political justice rather than to educational considerations. This concept of equality of opportunity from the 'sixties, until now in Egypt, to some extent, is not far from its concept in Europe at the beginning of the 'fifties(2). Notwithstanding, access to universities in Egypt, from being the privilege of the few, has become a universal right(3).

---

(1) United Arab Republic, The Charter. Information Department, Cairo, 1962, pp. 83-84.

(2) Entwistle, H., Class, Culture and Education. Methuen, London, 1978, p. 9.

(3) Farage, Aliyāh A., Comparative study of the role of Higher Education in cultural development for some Arab developing nations, unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1971, p. 193 (in Arabic).

This, in the opinion of some commentators, indicates that the Government's educational policies in Egypt, as well as those in other developing countries, have long been the subject of political controversy, since education is the focus of equality of opportunity for the whole nation and has dominated the political thinking of the Egyptian citizen since the Second World War(1).

Universities, as the National Charter stated, are not only for teaching or research but they have their role to play in the context of the national struggle for the country's development.

> 'Therefore, the universities are not ivory towers but rather forerunners discovering a mode of life for the people.'(2)

This is because,

> 'the responsibility of universities and scientific research centres in shaping the future is not less important than the responsibility of the various popular authorities.'(3)

The October Working Paper (1974) carried out this responsibility and laid stress upon:

> 'the task of revolutionising the system and concepts of general educational culture of all sorts and standards from the eradication of illiteracy to general technical and university education, to scientific and technological research.'(4)

This, in fact, is because social development is impossible without education, and the happiness of Egyptian citizens

---

(1) Keer, M., 'Egypt', in, Coleman, J.S., (ed.), Education and Political Development, Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1965, p. 117.

(2) United Arab Republic, The Charter, p. 102.

(3) Ibid, p. 102.

(4) Arab Republic of Egypt, The October Working Paper, State Information Service, Cairo, 1974, p. 69.

should be the ultimate goal of any aspect of development. The following passage from the October Working Paper sheds light on this idea. It stated that:

> 'God's most important gift to Egypt is its people and our chief national wealth is our manpower. Like all resources, it has to be developed. The development of manpower means first and foremost increasing its capacity to give and to work by providing food, clothing, health services and housing and improving its human potential through culture, education and training.'(1)

Hence, education from the State side is both instrument and means: it became both the symbol of freedom and the focus of the hopes of the authorities. This is due to the profound belief in the power of education to transform an impoverished and segmented nation into one which is wealthy and united. Educational progress enhances national pride apart from any practical economic effects. But, increasingly, there seems to be a tendency to justify it in economic terms. That education for State and people is one of the sure roads to economic progress has become a contemporary creed(2). More education supposedly meant both more well-trained people and greater opportunity for the underprivileged.

From the popular viewpoint, education becomes a basic need for everyone who wants to escape from the shrinking unskilled sector of the labour force. Social and economic

---

(1) Ibid, p. 67.

(2) Panitchpakdi, S., Educational Growth in Developing Countries. Rotterdam University Press, Netherlands, 1974, p. 3.

changes have resulted in a great increase in popular pressure for education. Such a plan for achieving mass education, at any level, would be accompanied by another plan for achieving large scale employment of its products(1). Indeed, no government can plan such changes without reference to the future as well as the present, but the present and future are to some extent determined by the past.

The rapid move towards expansion in university education in Egypt might be explained from different aspects. In fact, no single reason can help one to understand it. In Egypt, as in many other developing countries, it is very difficult for universities to ignore the needs and expectations of the community, and this usually offers the chance of a social transformation. The social traditions and attitudes have for a long time placed a high premium on membership of the white-collar professions, even if they prove economically unrewarding or practically unsatisfying. It is still true of many students that they go to academic secondary school in order to be able to later go to the university and after four years or more at university are often content to find a job in Government service, which is, indeed, for the majority of students the only chance for a stable social and economic life(2). University education, particularly,

---

(1) Curle, A., Educational Strategy for Developing Countries. Tavistock, London, 1970 (reprinted), Ch. III.

(2) See the analysis of question No. 22 of the questionnaire, Chapter V of this thesis.

is subject to great pressure from the mass of both parents and students. This is partly due to the traditional prestige attached to university education and also as a response to the popular idea that education is a social ladder(1). Needless to say, some of those students who applied pressure on the gates of the university had no idea why they had come to the university, what they were supposed to do there, or what the university represented. Most of them were urged by their parents to read for a university degree in order to improve their position in life. For this reason, to aspire to higher education is natural even for students who do not have sufficient ability to succeed in higher education at all and others who should be in technical or commercial schools. Despite admission to the universities being on a competitive basis, the cut-off point is probably too low(2).

University education is attractive for many young people for several non-economic factors. Lack of personal motivation is one of the main reasons why so many are content to enter Government employment. Despite the availability of specialist training in many fields, young

---

(1) El-Ghannam, M.A., Education in the Arab Region Viewed From 1970, Murrakesh Conference, E.S.O., No. 1. UNESCO, Paris, 1970, p. 44.

(2) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II (National Studies), p. 451,
National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 43,
and,
Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 20 August, 1978.

people seem not to be motivated to acquire skills even when monetary rewards are substantial. The newly educated may even be drawn into professions in preferred locations at a considerable sacrifice in income. Moreover, when we add to these motivations the general uncertainty surrounding careers and the wide-spread lack of knowledge of the market, we can see the effect of these factors on young peoples' decisions(1).

It is difficult to accept El-Said's view that many applicants to Egypt's university are interested in higher study, not from any desire to increase their knowledge but rather to escape from a field of employment which offers little opportunity for advancement. Despite the slight changes in the attitudes of young people, university education is still the focus of hopes for many of them(2). In the context of Egyptian society, it is important to bear in mind that in spite of the expansion of university education, it has not become comprehensive, but the number of students in university in comparison with the number of illiterate people shows that university education is a restricted privilege. For over a century, in Boktor's view, Egypt focused its educational efforts on a privileged group

---

(1) Leibenstein, H., 'Shortages and surpluses in education in underdeveloped countries', in, Anderson, C.H. and Bowman, M.J. (eds.), Education and Economic Development. Francess, London, 1966, p. 60.

(2) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 482.

of its citizens[1]. This historical fact might explain why education in Egypt has been seen as a social ladder for many people both in this period and earlier. Some students come from homes where formal education is regarded primarily as a ticket to social and economic promotion. It is not strange, therefore, that the Egyptian adults and young people appreciate university education in itself as a social good. Employment expectations exert pressure on the educational system, just as schooling, for its part, stimulates the social ambitions of Egyptians.

From the economic viewpoint, investment in education is more valuable than investment in consumer goods or in construction, which are often the chief competitors of education as outlets for capital. For the Egyptian family to invest in a budding scientist is less risky than to invest in a budding industry. Yet there are risks. It is important to combine the social and economic benefits of education. Social respect, in particular, for the university degree holders is remarkable. For example, this social prestige and status

> '... can influence one's life and social relationships, even to the extent that a young man may find it difficult to marry a middle-class girl because he is not a university graduate.'(2)

---

(1) Boktor, A., The Development and Expansion of Education in the United Arab Republic. The American University Press, Cairo, 1963, p. 98.

(2) Quoted from: Szyliowicz, J.S., Education and Modernization in the Middle East, p. 283.

It is very difficult to accuse Egyptian youth of not being keen for university education itself or not desiring to increase their knowledge generally, because they often are living in a society, not in a vacuum. Social considerations are naturally very important(1).

The lack of counselling, in the Egyptian system of education, especially in pre-university education, explains this situation in part. The lack of any help in this area of guidance may force the student to choose a field of study solely on the basis of future monetary return or social prestige(2). In Leibenstein's view, an individual is unlikely to know his basic deficiencies although he is frequently likely to be aware of lack of specialised knowledge. In fact, few people know where their potential alternative skills lie or what potential talents they may possess. A potential employee may have no way of knowing whether investment in a certain skill will be worthwhile as

---

(1) This point is developed in a questionnaire carried out in two of Egypt's universities, for more details see Ch. V of this thesis.

(2) Fernelius, C., 'Report on a visit to the universities of the U.A.R. in connection with the Science Education Programme under the Fulbright Act', in, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Science in the Universities in the United Arab Republic: a series of survey reports prepared by a group of American Scientists under the Cultural and Educational Exchange Programme of the Department of State, unpublished, Department of State, Washington D.C., 1960, Third Report, p. 5,

and also see,

The analysis of Question 9 of the questionnaire, Ch. V of this thesis.

he does not know the extent to which he may become accomplished in a given skill[1].

This combination of reasons makes the competition for university education among secondary school leavers very keen. In addition, the function of the traditional academic (General) secondary school itself has been to prepare for university; it is access to this type of school which is the crucial issue. The General Secondary school is still inclined towards 'know-about' rather than 'know-how'. Nevertheless, it is clear that the major role of the General Secondary school is to prepare students for higher education, which is perhaps the reason why this school lays stress on knowledge rather than anything else[2]. According to this function the standard of this school is quite high, but it lacks any real practical element to prepare students for life outside, for other than clerical occupations, especially in Government offices[3].

Although this research is not inclined to interpret the pressure on university education from the Egyptian young men and women as only a 'qualification-earning' motivation or only 'a matter of learning in order to get a job'[4], it is essential to point out the fact that there

---

(1) Leibenstein, H., 'Shortage and surpluses in education in underdeveloped countries', in, Anderson, C.H. et al. (eds.), Education and Economic Development, pp. 59-60.

(2) Arab Republic of Egypt, General and Private Education, Item No. 59, p. 16 (in Arabic).

(3) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, First Session, 1975, pp. 32-37 (in Arabic).

(4) Dore, R., The Diploma Disease. George Allen and Unwin, London, 1976, p. 8.

is often a correlation between the level of one's first job and one's career prospects. This correlation is high in the civil service machine. The Government posts are closely linked with the concept of salary scales defining a young man's career once and for all on the basis of the level at which he entered(1). If young men believe that the level at entry will determine their career, each one will try to start work at the highest possible level and gain the university qualification. So, it is the hierarchy of civil service and the increasing demand for higher qualifications for the available jobs, combined with the level of ambition of the young men and women and the way in which they look at their future, which account for the pressure on higher education.

University education is not only the right of every one who is able and willing, but a university degree also ensures subsequent employment since it is the policy of the Government to provide a job for every one who holds a degree of higher education and a certificate of secondary schools(2). In a speech delivered in the People's Assembly by the Prime Minister (29 October 1975), he announced that the Government gave jobs to 13,365 university and higher education graduates and that this had cost the Government

---

(1) Berger, M., Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt: A Study of the Higher Civil Service. Russell and Russell, New York, 1969, Ch. IV in particular.

(2) United Arab Republic, The Charter, p. 84.

approximately 3m. Egyptian pounds that year(1). This system of open-door university, combined with the Egyptian Government's policy of accepting responsibility for the products of the educational system, reflects the official view of social justice. However, it may be argued that this results in:

> '... redistributing poverty in the name of social equality, in a manner that threatens simply to replace an illiterate class of unemployed proletarians with a literate and more sharply alienated one.'(2)

Indeed, this critical view denied the Government's goodwill towards every citizen who desires education and seeks a job, and ignored the national aims of Egyptian society in this period and the position of any new national government in the developing countries. The question may well be posed that, if the Government will not provide the majority of its educated or highly qualified citizens with jobs, then who can? Nevertheless, Egypt may be seen as already facing some of the problems of mass higher education(3). Thus, expansion of university education is accompanied by strong emphasis on the economic function of university education. University education is not simply viewed as

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 12 July, 1975 and also 12 March, 1979,
and,
Ministry of Information, The Prime Minister's Speech before the Peoples' Assembly, 29 October, 1975, State Information Service, Cairo, (in Arabic).

(2) Keer, M., 'Egypt', in, Coleman, J.S. (ed.), Education and Political Development, pp. 169-170.

(3) Perkin, H., 'The Structure of Higher Education: A World View', Higher Education, an International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning, Vol. 2, No. 2. Elsevier, Amsterdam, May 1973, p. 139.

consumption by the policy makers but as an indispensable concomitant for a developing and expanding economy. University graduates are generally regarded as an important demographic group whose skills are vital for the modernization and development of the nation and on whose shoulders the hope for the future rests(1). Meanwhile, many economists, planners and politicians regarded them also as a potential problem. If their country - particularly a developing one - failed to make full use of their skills, students might become a source of instability, which would be difficult to control, rather than one of economic activity(2). Despite the importance of equality of educational opportunity, it is not sufficient to provide any type of education, academic or vocational, if there are no ultimate jobs. Real job opportunity for those who have completed their education is no less important as a democratic slogan than equality of opportunity(3). The increasing number of educated persons, especially the

---

(1) Arab Republic of Egypt, October Working Paper, pp. 69-73.

(2) Calloway, A., 'Unemployment Among African School Leavers', in, Gezi, K. (ed.), Education in Comparative and International Perspectives. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1971, p. 528,
and,
Streeten, P., 'The Frontiers of Development Studies: Some Issues of Development Policy', reprinted in, Livingstone, L. (ed.), Economic Policy for Development. Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1971, p. 439.

(3) Castle, E.B., Education for Self-Help: New Strategies for Developing Countries. Oxford University Press, London, 1972, p. 77.

graduates, may so affect the job market that for many jobs the qualification standard will be upgraded to meet the surplus of this kind of manpower or 'the educational inflation', as it is in the case of India(1). This increase of the educational requirement is a waste. This qualitative factor and the problems to which it gives rise are important considerations in any discussion of the provision of work forces(2). Many developing countries, it may be argued, are

> '... spending too much on the wrong kind of education and fail to take other necessary measures.'(3)

For the majority of the ordinary people of the developing countries, primary education of a fairly general type is sufficient(4). Although something tantamount to an economic revolution is needed to take these countries from a mediaeval economy to a modern one, agricultural reform is strongly recommended as a priority rather than reformation of the schools(5). Expenditure on the educational

---

(1) Dore, R., The Diploma Disease, p. 5.

(2) Cerych, L. and Furth, D.E., 'On the Threshold of Mass Higher Education', in, Niblett, W.R. et al. (eds.), Universities Facing the Future, The World Yearbook of Education, 1972-73. Evans, London, 1972, p. 23.

(3) Streeten, P., 'The Frontiers of Development Studies: Some Issues of Development Policy', in, Livingstone, L. (ed.), Economic Policy for Development, p. 439.

(4) Husen, T., The Learning Society. Methuen, London, 1974, pp. 90-91.

(5) Elvin, H.L., 'World Re-appraisals', in, Lowe, J. et al. (eds.), Education and Nation Building in the Third World. Barnes Noble, New York, 1971, p. 9.

system and spreading knowledge should be tailored to the particular needs of each society.

According to this view, the gulf between the developed and developing countries in this area is that, the developed countries' economy can absorb a large number of school and university leavers. Educated people are relatively inexpensive in advanced economies and therefore they can be used in a very wide range of employment. For example, in the United Kingdom, a young university graduate begins with a salary less than that of a miner. Developed countries, also, can provide much more of the type of service which uses professional people. In developing countries, where secondary and higher education costs so much, the situation is different; their economy can absorb few educated people. Another reason is that the job expectation of the graduate, in particular, is so high (for example, the graduate with a Bachelor's Degree who seeks employment within the civil service). The remuneration and prestige of preparatory or secondary school teachers, for example, is not adequate. Secondary school leavers do not want to become primary school teachers or agricultural assistants. The social reputation of any job, therefore, is important and still has its attractiveness(1). In Egypt there is little chance

---

(1) Lewis, W.A., Some Aspects of Economic Development. The Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra, 1971, p. 21.

of employment in commerce or private industry so Government employment has been the goal of most good graduates; in other words, their freedom of choice is constrained(1).

In fact, this pessimistic, utilitarian view shows itself in many reports and arguments about education and university education, particularly in developing countries(2). The fear of over-production is not only a political issue or an economic matter but also reflects the view that the sole purpose of the university, in their view, is to train skilled or professional personnel(3).

---

(1) Mabro, R., The Egyptian Economy, 1952-1972, pp. 203-210.

(2) See, for example,

Lewis, W.A., 'Priorities for Education Expansion', in, OECD, Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Washington, 16-20 October, 1961, Paris, Second Printing, 1965, Part III, p. 36;

Four, E. et al., Learning To Be, UNESCO, Paris, 1972, (Introduction);

Al-ʿAmal, 'Proposals about the graduates distribution', Cairo magazine, December 1975, No. 149 (in Arabic);

Al-Bawab, S.A., 'Employment and Masked Unemployment in Egyptian Economy', Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, Cairo bi-monthly magazine, 1 March, 1977, No. 517 (in Arabic);

Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vols. I and II.

(3) Pellegrin, J., 'Admission Policies in Post-Secondary Education', in, OECD, Towards Mass Higher Education Issues and Dilemmas, Paris, 1974, p. 93.

It is possible to say, however, that the fears of graduate unemployment in particular, as a potentially explosive force, are not confined to the developing countries(1). The problem of unemployment is a world-wide phenomenon. Meanwhile, those who are not able to gain a place in university, or who are not trained for a profession, are a potential source of unemployment and in turn may constitute destructive political and social forces(2). The developing countries should not be unduly criticized for their inadequate policy, as,

> '... the inadequacy of their policies reflects to a large extent the inadequate resources of an underdeveloped country faced with a population problem and subjected to internal and external pressures for rapid development.'(3)

The shortage of capital or the law of marginal productivity of capital in these countries is mainly due to the absence of skill. Countries which enjoy large oil revenues, for example, or have a plentiful supply of foreign exchange for other reasons, have been no more successful in accelerating development. In the process of development and modernization, natural resources are as important as the human resources in relation to a plan of total economic and social advance(4). The short-term

---

(1) Paloczi-Horvath, G., Youth Up In Arms. Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London, 1971, p. 48.

(2) Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, p. 23.

(3) Mabro, R., The Egyptian Economy, 1952-1972, p. 210.

(4) Mouly, J. and Costa, E., Employment Policies in Developing Countries. George Allen and Unwin, 1974, p. 9.

solution of foreign aid by providing experts or advanced technology is not sufficient to solve the problems of developing countries. The only realistic long-term solution to the problems of the developing countries, i.e. overcoming poverty, ignorance, disease and squalor, lies in the development of human resources which means supporting the countries' skills at all levels(1). According to the experience of the developed countries, no country is 'poor in natural resources in the absolute sense'. Scientific knowledge and a skilled work force are capable of solving the problems and inventing many solutions in this age of the explosion of knowledge and automation(2). As Drucker stated:

> 'the development of educated people is the most important capital formation, their number, quality and utilisation the most meaningful index of the wealth producing capacity of a country.'(3)

Yet, this is the only real capital of our time and may be for the future of mankind.

So far, university education has been developed in some branches of study more than Egyptian society needs or the economy, in fact, can absorb, and this has created

---

(1) Singer, H.W., 'Education and Economic Development', reprinted in, Livingstone, L. (ed.), Economic Policy for Development, pp. 61-62.

(2) Fletcher, B., The Universities in the Modern World. Pergamon, New York, 1968, p. 110.

(3) Drucker, P.F., The Landmark of Tomorrow. Heinemann, London, 1959, p. 92.

a surplus of university graduates in such minority fields as law and liberal arts. It is not simply the problem of over-production, but the production of the wrong type of manpower. In 1977, for example, the Government offered 29,590 graduates of liberal arts and humanities employment as teachers in secondary schools(1). This was done without offering them any teaching qualification. On the one hand, there is a surplus of individuals with Bachelor of Arts degrees and, on the other hand, a shortage of craftsmen and certain types of technicians who appear to require roughly an equal amount of education or different kind of training(2). Despite the slight changes in the Government education scheme, serious imbalances continue to characterise the manpower situation(3). For example, the Ministerial Committee for Manpower (1967) recommended that the universities should not accept more than 20,000 annually of the secondary school leavers(4). Table XI shows the number of students who succeeded in the General Secondary Examination, and the rate of increase in enrolled numbers in the ten years from 1964/65 to 1974/75.

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 12 December, 1977.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 248 (in Arabic).

(3) Szyliowicz, J.S., Education and Modernization in the Middle East, p. 293.

(4) Ministerial Committee for Manpower, Report on the Policy of Education, Cairo, 1967, p. 38 (in Arabic).

TABLE XI

The successful students in the General Secondary Examination and the rate of enrolment number in universities from 1964/65 to 1974/75

Year	Number of successful students in G.S.E.	Annual Increase	Number of students enrolled in universities	Annual Increase	% of successful G.S.E. students to enrolled students
1964/65	44,342	8,202	24,884	1,191	56.1
1965/66	37,207	7,135	20,641	4,243	55.5
1966/67	47,333	10,126	17,198	3,443	36.3
1967/68	69,206	21,873	18,784	1,586	27.1
1968/69	75,086	5,880	21,818	3,034	29
1969/70	86,924	11,838	30,230	8,412	34
1970/71	92,593	5,669	33,896	3,666	36
1971/72	78,923	13,670	38,601	4,705	49
1972/73	93,890	14,967	47,667	9,066	50.8
1973/74	107,656	13,716	58,402	10,735	54.2
1974/75	124,212	16,556	67,263	8,861	54.2

Source:

Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

The above table and Figure V illustrates the increase in the enrolled number of students over the years, with a particularly sharp rise since 1972. In 1974/75, for example, 36,128 of the total enrolled number of 67,263 went to humanities faculties (53.7%), while 31,135 (46.2%)

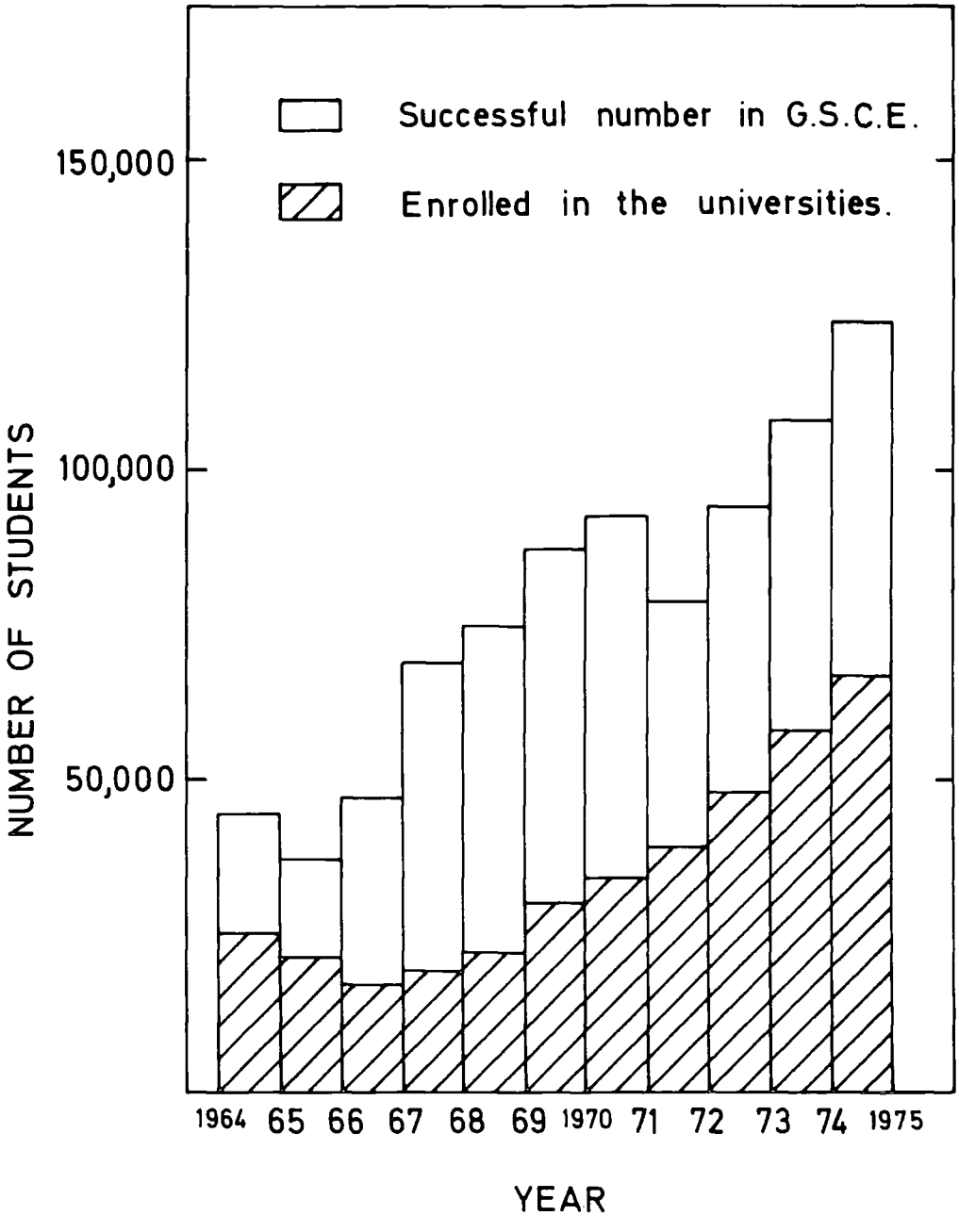


FIG. V The successful students in the G.S.C.E. and the rate of enrolled number in universities from 1964/65 to 1974/75.

entered practical faculties[1]. It may be feasible to say that students at that time were offered places in the university simply to accommodate them. In the view of some,

> 'It has been easier for "underdeveloped" areas to expand their educational facilities, especially in liberal arts and law, than to expand the economic opportunities for those who use those facilities.'(2)

The problem of training an adequate number of experts is further complicated by the fact that not all graduates enter a special sector, for example, to serve in rural or other disagreeable areas. In many instances, once a graduate has left his village in order to become a student in a Faculty of Agriculture or Veterinary Medicine in a university city, he no longer wishes, after sampling the attractions of urban life, to return to the rural areas to help his fellow countrymen and resorts to a variety of strategies to obtain a white-collar job in the city[3]. It is clear that those who refuse or dislike work in rural or remote areas can become a drain upon the economy in a country such as Egypt. Twenty years ago, Harbison and Ibrahim pointed to a similar situation in

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

(2) Berger, M., Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt, p. 68.

(3) Wheelock, K., Nasser's New Egypt: A Critical Analysis. Atlantic Books, London, 1960, p. 110,
and,
Ashby, E., African Universities and Western Tradition, p. 41.

industry, where the major complaint was that engineers, for example, refused to work at menial tasks on the shop floor, preferring work in the office to the supervision of operations in the plants(1). Despite the slight changes in the attitudes of young people, the situation still exists. Moreover, the technically qualified and relatively well educated Egyptians prefer a kind of temporary removal or migration to work in the other Arab oil countries. Although this opportunity may provide remarkable financial return, its effect on the Egyptian society on the whole might be seen as 'The Brain Drain'(2).

For Egypt, as well as the developing countries, it is important to stress usefulness and to place educated people in positions commensurate with actual local requirement of the economy. The graduate, to some extent, must be useful and his usefulness must be relevant(3). The graduates' attitudes towards their jobs and towards the demands which society makes upon them are an important factor, but in fact they are difficult to measure. It was accepted that places for undergraduates should increase to keep pace with the demand from suitably qualified applicants.

---

(1) Harbison, F. and Ibrahim, A.I., Human Resources for Egyptian Enterprise, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1958, p. 119.

(2) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration Projects: Country Case Study, Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 46,
Hyde, Georgie D.M., pp. 44-48,
and,
Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, pp. 13-14 (in Arabic).

(3) Hunnings, G., 'Universities and Relevance', The New Universities Quarterly, Vol. 30, No. 3, Summer 1976, pp. 276-284.

In many different nations, and not only the developing countries, it has been argued that universities should meet the economic demands of society(1). This view has not been generally accepted, especially in countries which have an autonomous university system and a 'free market economy'(2).

Where student recruitment and development of graduates is carefully planned, it is easier to avoid this difficult situation. Planned national aims and objectives are one way of avoiding unemployment, as far as possible, and the production of the wrong type of manpower among the newly educated, which, in Coomb's view, causes a paradoxfor developing nations(3). But, as long as a university degree determines, in large measure, the way to better paid and prestigious jobs, young people will want to by-pass the intermediate institutions. In addition, if the number of students is important to the politicians, the universities will open their doors wider and wider to offer more places, perhaps in non-productive

---

(1) T.H.E.S., 'Education for Economic Recovery', Extract from Mr. Wilson's speech to the Tenth Anniversary of the London Business School, 4 July, 1975,
and,
Drever, J., 'How far should manpower needs affect education planning?', T.H.E.S., 6 September, 1974, p. 6.

(2) Pellegrin, J., 'Admission Policies in Post-Secondary Education', in, OECD, Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas, p. 93.

(3) Coombs, P.H., The World Educational Crisis. Oxford University Press, 1968, p. 86,
and,
Onushkin, U.C. (ed.), Planning the Development of Universities, Vol. I, UNESCO and IIEP, Paris, 1971, pp. 22-24.

courses, to satisfy the growing educational expectation of parents and young men and women. The pressure of the public demand in Egypt, as in many other places in the world, is the chief factor of university expansion(1). In developed countries there has been an active movement towards policies for post-secondary education in the last decade. The major line of most of these countries is the transition to mass higher education and its adaptation to the different aspects of development(2). The trend in the developing nations is also the expansion of higher education, as it clearly is in Egypt's situation.

Arguments may be raised both for quality and quantity in university education. In fact, segregation of these two aspects is very difficult. Yet, quantity is the focus of attention in Egypt in order to satisfy the growing demand from both students and their parents. In a speech by the Minister of Higher Education in the summer of 1975, the attitude of the Government towards the General Secondary School leavers was very clear. This speech stated the Government's commitment to provide places in higher education for all those who are both willing and qualified, having passed the General Secondary Examination(3).

---

(1) UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. IV (Higher Education), Paris, 1966, p. 12.

(2) OECD, Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas, p. 19.

(3) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 12 September, 1975.

Table XI shows the steady increase in student numbers over the years from 1964/65 to 1974/75, with a particularly sharp rise since 1972[1].

The Egyptian universities, especially the older ones, accept very large numbers of students, so that all faculties suffer shortages of physical and human resources. As the student body grows, so teaching loads increase, until the ratio for the faculty of Cairo University in 1972/73, for example, was 1 teacher to 255 students. For the Faculty of Law in the same university it was 1:111. The average for all the faculties at that time in Cairo University was 1:59 - this ratio included only teaching staff, but if demonstrators and assistant lecturers (who are officially not staff members until they obtain a Ph.D.) are included, the figure was 1:24. Three years previously, i.e. 1969/70, this ratio was, for staff only, 1:49, and for all the university instructors, 1:21[2]

Increased enrolment creates something of a paradox with regard to the quality of university education. Greater numbers are not accompanied by correspondingly more and better qualified teachers nor by appropriate additions to libraries, laboratory equipment, buildings, hostels and

---

(1) See this Chapter, p. 91, and Figure V.

(2) Ministry of Higher Education, Memo concerning the enrolment of General Secondary Examination students in universities and higher institutes and the preparation for the academic year 1974/75: Insight to the future of higher education in Egypt, unpublished typed manuscript, Ministry Office, Cairo, 1974, pp. 2-3 (in Arabic).

other academic facilities. The result, as a series of essays in the Cairo newspaper, Al-Ahram, revealed, is a further deterioration in quality(1). From the mid-'fifties, several international reports discussed the situation in Egyptian universities. A UNESCO Report in 1955 states that the universities, at present, are not well equipped, either in staff, accommodation or research facilities, to undertake the comprehensive investigation of national problems in addition to their present responsibilities(2). Two other reports by international and external foundations have discussed the problem of the Egyptian universities. The first report was concerned with science faculties, under the title, 'Science in the Universities in the U.A.R. (Egypt)'. This report was drawn up in connection with the Science Education Programme under the Fulbright Act. The second report was undertaken by UNESCO in 1969; it had a wider scope and was entitled, 'Reform and Development of Higher Education in U.A.R. (Egypt)'. The conclusions of these two reports are concerned chiefly with the immediate means of improving the quality of the educational process in Egypt's higher education. This

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 20, 21, 22 and 24 August, 1978,
and,
Kamal, H.M., 'Problems of the New Universities', in, Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 12 January, 1976.

(2) White, F.W.G., Report on the Organization and Development of the National Research Council of Egypt, Technical Assistance, Special Report, No. 2, UNESCO, Paris, 1955, p. 10.

improvement can be achieved by reducing the number of students and the opening of new intermediate channels to train the young people(1).

To avoid the over-population of universities, Egypt's Government policy works towards the provision of more provincial universities. It has been estimated that Egypt needs approximately 15 to 18 universities to achieve appropriate growth and standards. By 1990 this number should be increased to approximately 25 universities distributed all over the country, to provide its different districts with an adequate university service(2). In fact, all the universities in Egypt, both old and new, are suffering significant shortages particularly in the members of staff(3). In spite of Fernelius' warning in 1960, that the establishment of new universities might be at the expense of the existing ones, an expansion policy towards new universities was favoured as opposed to one of enhancing and developing the old ones(4). Since his

---

(1) Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Science in the Universities in the United Arab Republic, unpublished, Department of State, Washington D.C., 1960, and,
UNESCO, Reform and Development of Higher Education, United Arab Republic. (Technical Assistance Project on the Reform and Development of Higher Education in the U.A.R., 1968-69), Paris, 1969.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 40 (in Arabic).

(3) See Chapter VI of this thesis.

(4) Fernelius, W.C., 'Report on a visit to the universities of the U.A.R. in connection with the Science Education Programme under the Fulbright Act', in, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Science in the Universities in the U.A.R., p. 5.

report, the university number has increased from 4 to 11 (see Figure VI). Finally, it must be remembered that the situation in Egypt is aggravated by limitation of the financial resources.

On the other hand, as Table X illustrates, student numbers increased from 3,368 in 1925/26 - the first year of university - to 376,045 in 1975/76. This means that, in fifty years, the university students number has increased by approximately 112 times. Moreover, in 1972/73, the student numbers were 195,094, and in 1976/77 became 410,023; this means that within five years the student body increased by approximately 110%(1).

One important element causing the increase of student numbers is the tremendous increase in the number of Egyptian women, as in many other countries, seeking university education(2). This is because of changing attitudes to the formal education of girls and the growing demand in society for women to serve in many jobs. Table XII shows the proportion of women in five of Egypt's universities in the years 1971/72 to 1973/74.

The number of female students in a university might reflect the growing demand for higher education from the whole society, i.e. men and women, and the change in the field of education from where it was male privileged,

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, 1974 and 1977.

(2) Fletcher, B., Universities in the Modern World, p. 32.

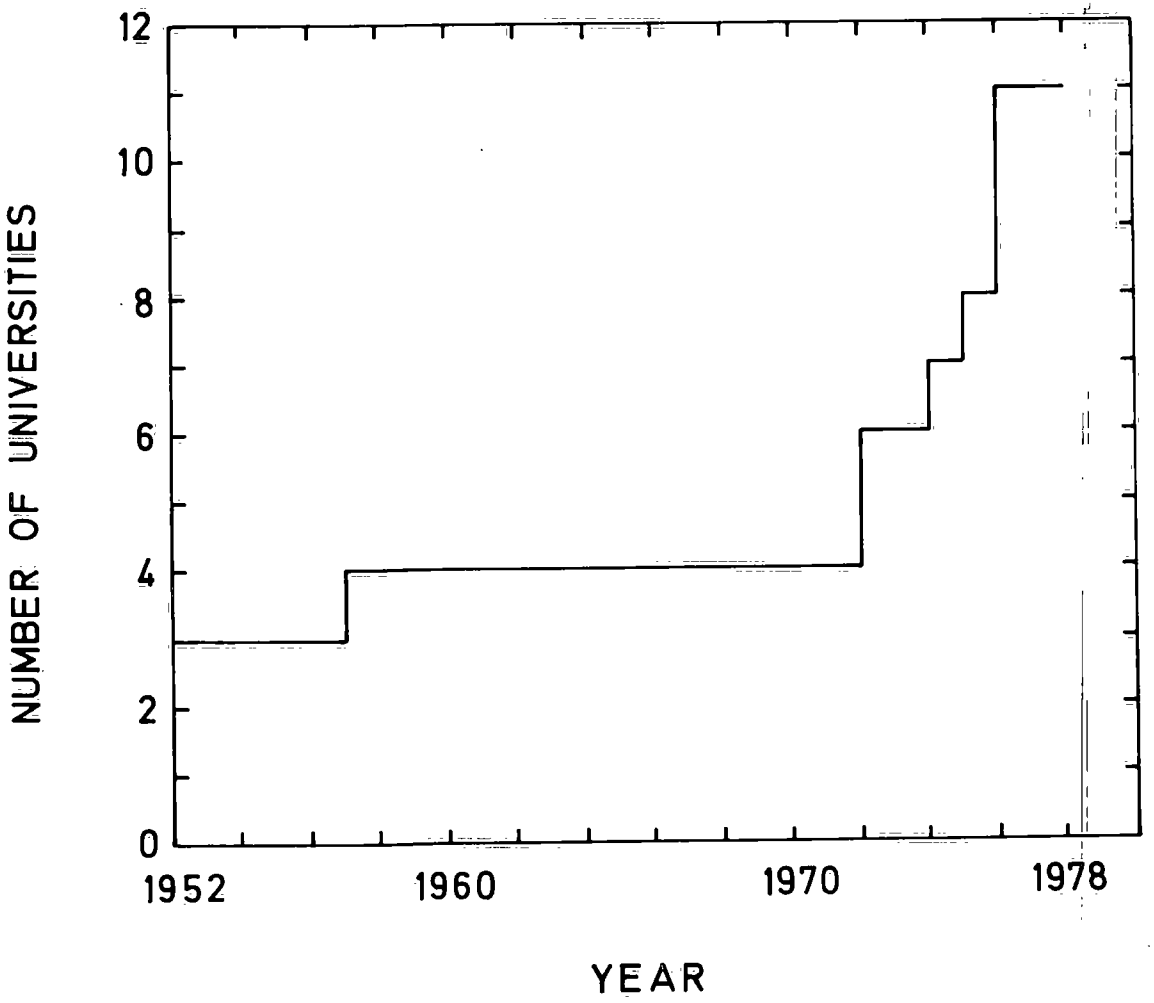


FIG. VI The growing number of universities in Egypt from 1952 to 1978.

according to some social factors, to be the right for every one without any discrimination between the sexes.

TABLE XII

Number of women in Egyptian universities from 1971/72 to 1973/74 (Graduates only)

University	Year	Number			Ratio of female to male %	Ratio of female to male %
		Male	Female	Total		
Cairo	1971/72	5,187	2,309	7,496	44.5	30.8
	1972/73	5,722	2,885	8,607	50.4	33.5
	1973/74	6,957	3,254	10,211	46.8	31.9
Alexandria	1971/72	3,973	1,419	5,392	30.7	26.3
	1972/73	4,351	1,973	6,324	45.3	31.2
	1973/74	4,879	2,331	7,210	47.8	32.3
Ain-Shams	1971/72	4,408	2,167	6,575	49.2	33
	1972/73	4,433	2,525	6,958	57	36.3
	1973/74	4,948	3,199	8,147	49.2	39.3
Asyut	1971/72	1,525	460	1,985	30.2	23.2
	1972/73	1,843	523	2,366	38.4	33.1
	1973/74	1,857	670	2,527	36.1	26.5
Mansura	1971/72	145	76	221	52.4	34.4
	1972/73	321	76	397	23.4	19
	1973/74	1,096	402	1,498	36.4	26.8
Tanta	1971/72	468	94	562	20.1	16.7
	1972/73	668	194	861	29.1	22.7
	1973/74	1,408	504	1,912	35.8	26.4
Zagazig	1971/72	525	120	645	22.9	18.6
	1972/73	615	166	783	26.9	21.2
	1973/74	736	189	925	25.7	20.4
Total	1971/72	16,231	6,645	22,876	40.9	29
	1972/73	17,954	8,342	26,296	49.5	31.7
	1973/74	21,881	10,549	32,430	48.2	32.5

Source:

Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, August 1975 (in Arabic).

Whatever is said about expansion in university education, it does not alter the fact that student numbers have increased to the point where they exceed the capacity of existing universities, and other means of accommodating them must be sought. One attempt at alleviating the situation has been the expansion of the system of external registration introduced in the faculties of commerce, law and some arts branches such as history, philosophy, etc., begun in 1912 and then expanded in 1953. The external student has the same right as the regular student to gain a university degree in his specialisation. Officially, external students out-number regular students but may not attend lectures, since no records of actual classes are kept in most of the arts faculties, owing to the huge number of students in attendance(1). Some of these external students are in full-time employment but come to the university to gain a degree in order to improve their position, or to satisfy their own aspirations. The Ministerial Committee for Manpower (1967) recommended the liquidation of this system for the employed students(2), but the authorities have apparently used it to expand the absorptive capacities of the arts and social sciences faculties in order to find some way of absorbing the larger number of restless secondary school leavers. Table XIII may serve to illustrate

---

(1) Boktor, A., The Development and Expansion of Education in U.A.R., p. 112.

(2) Ministerial Committee for Manpower, Report on the Policy of Education, p. 48 (in Arabic).

the situation with regard to the expansion process. It shows the enrolment number of students for the year 1973/74 according to their specialities and status.

TABLE XIII

The enrolment number of the different universities according to specialities and status for the year 1973/74

University	Area of Studies			Status		
	Arts	Science	Total	Regular	External	Total
Cairo	6,422	7,651	14,073	11,616	2,457	14,073
Alexandria	5,501	7,467	12,968	10,116	2,852	12,968
Ain-Shams	6,440	7,388	13,828	11,357	1,471	13,828
Asyut	1,749	6,072	7,821	7,037	784	7,821
Mansura	479	2,833	3,312	3,312	-	3,312
Tanta	589	3,367	3,956	3,956	-	3,956
Zagazig	489	1,955	2,127	2,127	317	2,444
Total	21,669	36,733	58,402	49,521	8,881	58,402

Source:

Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, August 1975 (in Arabic).

The external students, according to the above table, represent approximately 15.3% of the total enrolled in 1973/74. Only 37% of the students are in liberal arts and social sciences faculties. More recent statistics might show the direction of expansion and the policy of absorption of more candidates. In 1975/76 the total number of the external freshers was 10,350 out of the total number entering university at that particular time, i.e. 66,511.

In other words, the external students comprised 15.6%. The proportion rises to 17.7% out of the total enrolled students in Egypt's universities, who numbered 332,385. In the literary branch only, the external enrolled number was 6,758 and the regular enrolled number was 17,320, or approximately 28% of the total enrolled from the literary branch. 3,592 freshers from the scientific branch were accepted in the university as external students from the total number of this branch for that year, which was 38,836(1). This means that 8.5% of the scientific branch students entered in the faculties need not attend practical lessons such as those in the arts and social sciences faculties. In addition, those students, after four years, will hope for and expect Government employment, mostly in administrative positions and white-collar jobs, and not in the middle rank where they are most needed. Hence, at a time when Egypt does not have sufficient numbers of technologists and technicians, its universities are supplying a flood of humanities and liberal arts graduates(2). This makes it necessary for the policy of education to undergo some changes in order to achieve the required balance in the labour market. The system of external students is no more than a safety valve, which the authorities can use

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, 1977.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 36 (in Arabic).

according to the circumstances and mostly to satisfy public demand for university education. Moreover, to offer any places for the General Secondary School leavers, it needs to accommodate them for four years as an expensive alternative to their unemployment or as a means to channel away their demand for jobs for four years or longer. This means that the student will gain a university degree, but not a university education.

In fact, the external system is not the only safety valve which the authorities are reluctantly employing to accommodate more students. Although the system of admission is firmly connected with the total marks of the student in his General Secondary Certificate, non-academic factors are introduced to allow many students to gain admission to university as exceptional cases. The exceptional category was introduced as a limited privilege for those students who were outstanding in sports and social service, in order to encourage students' activities outside the academic field. In 1957 a limited number of those students were accepted into each faculty of the university, taking into account their total marks. In 1959, however, superior students in sports were offered places in physical education institutes only. However, Ministerial Resolution No. 16 (1970) clarified different conditions relating to this category of exceptions(1).

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system of universities, National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Cairo, October 1975, p. 43 (in Arabic).

The university staff's children and the university workers' children were other exceptional groups. These children had the right to gain places in the university. In fact, these places were limited, and there were not more than five places in each faculty. These places were offered to those exceptional candidates on the basis of their total marks. The children who were the brothers and sisters of the martyrs who were killed in war, were also included but there were not more than two places in each faculty(1).

Many other groups were added to the above and became a part of this exceptional category. The ex-workers in the university and the workers in the Ministry of Higher Education were included. The children of the teachers in the Ministry of Education and al-Azhar, the workers and ex-workers there, also became an exceptional category, but they had the right of admission to the different Higher Institutes only and not the universities. Their fathers had to have been employed in these establishments for not less than ten years.

After the October War of 1973, the category of war martyrs was expanded to include the children and wives of those who were killed, lost or wounded during the war, and their sisters or brothers if under their care, and also candidates in service, who had served in military forces from 5 June 1967 at the battle-field.

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., The International Study of Access to Higher Education. Higher Council of Sciences, Cairo, 1962, pp. 77-78 (in Arabic).

Other groups are as follows: the Sinai students, the Matruh, New Valley, Red Sea and Bahraiya Osasis students, because these students live in remote areas and this might affect their chances of gaining a high total mark. The children of the emigrant families from the cities of Suez, Ismailia and Port Said, or the front-line zone after 1967, constituted another exceptional category(1).

The wording of these regulations indicated that it was for a limited number of candidates, but in practice the number increased dramatically. While those entered in university in 1974/75, according to this rule, was 2,162 out of a total of 62,263 or approximately 3.2%(2), the proposed number for 1976/77 was 9,213 out of a total of 66,215 which represented approximately 14% of the total proposed number(3). According to the official statistics, therefore, it is not confined to the few.

In response to this policy, the Cairo newspaper, Al-Akhbar, published that the Senate Council of Alexandria University, in one of its sessions (1978), recommended limiting the number of the exceptional categories students in each faculty of the university(4).

---

(1) Co-ordination Office for Admission to Universities and Institutes, Students' Guide for Admission to Universities and Institutes for the Students who obtained the General Secondary Certificate, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1978, pp. 28-36 (in Arabic).

(2) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, 1975.

(3) Co-ordination Office, Report on the Result of the First Stage of Admission to Universities and Higher Institutes, 1976, unpublished typed manuscript, Permanent Office at Cairo University, Giza (in Arabic).

(4) Al-Akhbar, Cairo newspaper, 3 April 1978, p. 7.

This attracted the attention of those who are concerned about the quality of students at the university, and they criticised its implication. In their view, the expansion of this rule means the eradication of the principle of equality of opportunity(1). Likewise, the students themselves in university see it as an unfair method, as well as a 'back door' to offer the weak student a place in the university(2). The Minister of Education, in his speech, reported in Al-Ahram, confirmed this view(3).

It might be possible to say that many of those exceptions find their way to the external category or to the higher institutes. Even so, it is unfair to employ non-academic factors to offer the candidates places, to the extent of more than 10%, in higher education if the purpose is equality of educational opportunity.

The intervention of non-academic factors in the admission policy had, in fact, happened once before, in 1965. In the academic year 1965/66, many new students were enrolled as a result of a decision to add 10% to the marks of all candidates who were children or relatives of veterans of the war in Yemen(4). Less recently, in December

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 11 July 1976, p. 7.

(2) See the questionnaire analysis, Ch. V of this thesis.

(3) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 2 September 1978, p. 3.

(4) Efrat, M., 'Educational Progress in the United Arab Republic', New Outlook, 2 October 1968, pp. 24-31.

1957, the Minister of Education submitted his resignation to the President of the Republic, as a result of a crisis in the National Assembly (now referred to as the People's Assembly). When the Assembly members voted to admit all successful secondary school leavers into the university, they over-rode a ministerial decision to restrict further enrolment in the university. For political reasons which transcended the immediate issue, the President persuaded the Minister of Education to continue in office, and the National Assembly's view was over-ridden(1).

The question which might arise at this point is, who decides the total number of students who are going to have university education? Or, to raise a broader point, how is the university to govern its affairs?

The State universities are officially autonomous in organization and administration but come under the authority of the Ministry of Education. The supreme head of the State universities is the Minister of Education, but his approval is required only in essential matters dealing with public policy and appointments to the teaching staff. The academic staff in Egypt is subject to a special university service law(2). University life is subject to control and final approval by the State, but usually upon the recommendation of the university bodies.

---

(1) Wheelock, K., Nasser's New Egypt, p. 116.

(2) Hyde, Georgie D.M., p. 64.

The executive body that co-ordinates policies and makes important decisions is the Higher Council of Universities. The Rectors of this Council are appointed by the authorities from the professors of the universities. The main functions of this Council, according to Law No. 49 of 1972, Item 18, are as follows:

i) To plan the general policy of university education and scientific research in universities, and keep the universities in contact with national needs, for the realization of national, social, economic and scientific goals;

ii) To harmonize the policies of academic courses, examinations and degrees and the appointment of members of staff for each university;

iii) To set rules for enrolment and limit the numbers of students(1).

There are a number of other important responsibilities, but because the focus of this study is the selection system and the process of enrolment and its co-ordination, it must be said here that although enrolment number is the concern of the Higher Council of Universities, it seems that the Government retains the power to veto its decisions. As in the instance of the exceptional categories, it might be said that enrolment numbers are sometimes a political

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Republic of the Law No. 49 for the year 1972, Item No. 18, p. 8.

matter. Table XIV shows the number proposed by the Higher Council and the enrolment numbers in certain years.

TABLE XIV

The proposed enrolment numbers by the Higher Council of Universities and the actual numbers enrolled, in non-selected years

Year	Proposed number	Number actually enrolled	Excess	Percentage of excess %
1961/62	11,750	15,202	3,452	29.38
1963/64	14,775	26,621	11,846	80.18
1967/68	16,800	19,910	3,110	18.51
1970/71(1)	20,165	30,765	10,600	52.57
1974/75(2)	40,000	67,263	27,263	68.16

Source:

(1) Extract from, Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Direction (Table 7) (in Arabic).

(2) Ministry of Higher Education, Memo concerning the enrolment of General Secondary Examination students in the Universities and Higher Institutes and the preparation for the academic year 1974/75, p. 6,

and,

Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, 1975 (in Arabic).

It is evident from the above table that the Higher Council has its own freedom to decide the number of freshers according to the capacity of each faculty, but the actual numbers who entered these faculties differed widely.

Meanwhile, university education in Egypt means public higher education. The universities, as well as education at all other levels, are subsidized by public funds and their budget is part of the Ministry of Education's general budget. As there are no fees, university support comes almost entirely from the State and the financial regulations are generally made by the State. The Government appreciates the university's special charter, and supports it as a special institution(1). The university enjoys a certain latitude in the expenditure of funds(2).

Although university laws in different periods recognize the universities as autonomous corporate bodies with special powers and special privileges, nevertheless, the universities remain basically attached to the Department of the State(3). The highest authority in the administrative machine of the educational system of Egypt has always been the Ministry of Education. Sometimes the Government may intervene in internal matters when political questions are concerned, as they did in 1954 when certain professors whose politics were felt to be too radical, or who supported certain parties too warmly, were dismissed. Egyptian intellectuals as a whole and academics in particular

---

(1) Al-Nashar, M.A., General Insight into Current University System: Admission and Management, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1970, pp. 15-17 (in Arabic).

(2) Ministry of Information, Speech of the President, M. Anwar-al-Sadat in Alexandria University, 26 July 1976, Ministry of Information, Cairo, 1976 (in Arabic).

(3) Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Republic of the Law No. 49 for the year 1972.

opposed this step at that time[1]. In the view of some, such indoctrination has been exercised in the university particularly since the Revolution of 1952, and this has affected university life in many ways, so that safe mediocrity, for example, is preferable to the spirit of adventure[2]. In the view of others, Egypt as a socialist society is different from the capitalist societies in that its universities are supposed to be places for social service and should lie within the Egyptian socialist system, with its logical, philosophical, social, constitutional, economic and psychological bases, and their implications in terms of relations between the aspects of society life[3]. Law No. 49 for 1972 states that the Government reserves and protects university independence and maintains a relationship between university education and the needs of society and production[4]. This means that the university has a responsibility for its environment, but to what extent depends partly on the Government attitude and partly on that of the university administrators.

---

(1) Von Grunebaum, G.E., 'The Political Role of the University in the Near East as illustrated by Egypt', in, Von Grunebaum, G.E., Modern Islam: The Search for Cultural Identity, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1962, pp. 191-204.

(2) Haim, Sylvia G., 'State and University in Egypt', in, Harris, C.D., (ed.), Universitat und Modern Geselleschaft, Maxlor Kheimer, Frankfurtan Main, 1959, pp. 99-118.

(3) El-sayed, A., Higher Education: Problems and Planning, Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo, 1963, p. 41.

(4) Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Republic of the Law No. 49 for the year 1972, p. 6.

In the area of research, as part of university work, it has been reported that many university men are willing to direct their research, for example, towards problems of national significance. Through this kind of research, the universities of Egypt may fulfil their responsibility for advancing the frontiers of knowledge as one of the university's national duties(1). However, most Middle Eastern countries, as Akrawi pointed out, are not yet ready to accept political activity in educational institutions. It is not acceptable for university professors to criticize Government policies, or for students to strike in opposition to Government policy in public affairs(2). This policy is under attack from university men and others. The students themselves, as one of the most advanced groups in their society, are usually concerned about their country's public affairs, and consider it one of their responsibilities to participate in the discussion of political and public questions and sometimes to take political initiatives. This has resulted in strikes and public demonstrations, firstly against the British occupation and later against

---

(1) White, F.W.G., Report on the Organization and Development of the National Research Council of Egypt, p. 11,
and,
Hyde, Georgie D.M., pp. 113-115.

(2) Akrawi, M., 'The University and Government in the Middle East', in, Nader, C. and Zahlan, A.B., (eds.), Science and Technology in Developing Countries, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1969, pp. 335-366.

certain political policies and social matters[1]. Nevertheless, the authorities in Egypt have given university students the right to express their own opinions in the university, the Students' Union and its Councils.

In some respects it is reasonable to agree with the scholar who maintained that the university role in many Arab countries - and Egypt is no exception - is not always fully understood by the public and sometimes not even by the Government. Finally, the fact that ours are times of repeated crises, creates a fluid situation in the relations between the Government and the universities[2].

---

(1) See, for example,

Coverely, J.L., 'The Egyptian Undergraduate and Politics', The Journal of Education, Vol. IXXXIX, June 1947, p. 334;

Dorsey, W.H., '1968 Revisited: Student Power in Cairo', New Middle East, February 1972, pp. 13-15;

Kopliuk, M., 'Student Unrest in Egypt', New Outloook, February 1972, p. 28;

The Times newspaper, 16 November 1978.

(2) Akrawi, M., 'The Universities and Government in the Middle East', in, Nader, C. and Zahlan, A.B., (eds.), Science and Technology in Developing Countries, p. 335.

CHAPTER IV

The Current Admission System to Universities in Egypt

Since access to higher education is not an independent procedure, it is difficult to separate this process from the whole system of education. It is, therefore, one of a number of processes which make up the total formal process of education. In the view of some:

> 'as a process it consists of a series of impulses which touch each student during the course of education. The impulses may be opportunities to be seized or barriers to be challenged. But each is a force and the sum of these forces determines success or failure in achieving access to higher education.'(1)

Although it is true that all university problems are interdependent, that of access to university education appears to be central. Who should be admitted to universities, and according to what quantitative and qualitative criteria? This question touches upon a series of problems which today provoke a profound and urgent state of anxiety amongst educators, administrators, statesmen, planners, the younger generation and their parents. Apart from these fundamentally educational problems, there are others which are related to the economic, political, social and moral fields.

---

(1) International Association of Universities, Report of the Fourth General Conference, Tokyo, 31 August - 6 September, 1965, p. 133.

In any country, and Egypt is no exception, the quality of any particular kind of tertiary education, or even the various sections within one institution, must vary greatly according to the quality of school preparation previously given, and according to the individual student's attainment. Therefore, as so many variables are involved selection for 'higher' education and 'university' education presupposes some initial discussion about what has preceded entry. Some countries endeavour to make a student's state of readiness clear by providing a standardized nationwide certificate often graded distinctly in relation to other certificates, and itself internally classified according to performance in each subject. In Egypt, the General Secondary Certificate is recognized officially and by the public as confirmation that a course of secondary studies has been successfully completed and a certificate of aptitude for study at institutions of higher education.

The current admission process to the Egyptian universities depends specifically upon one factor. This is the candidates' total mark in the General Secondary Certificate. This examination for this certificate takes place at the end of the third year of the General Secondary school, that is to say, it is the last stage in the twelve years of the general system of education in Egypt. This examination is public, and the individual secondary school is not involved in it. The examination is under the authority of the Ministry of Education for the whole country.

Some selected university professors, in each subject, together with the officials of the Ministry of Education, take part in preparing questions for this examination(1).

According to the principle that everyone has an equal right to gain a place in any stage of the educational system and higher education according to his ability and desire, no path should be a dead end. Nevertheless, although under certain conditions, the students who receive the Technical and Professional Secondary Certificate may apply to the universities, in fact they have a limited number of places. This means that students who hold the General Secondary Certificate, as Table XV illustrates, constitute the majority of the applicants admitted to universities. This limited number of secondary equivalent certificates is due to the fact that the candidate has to achieve at least 70% of the total mark in the Technical, or any other equivalent, Certificate. In addition to this, he or she has to pass an 'equalization' examination in some special subjects. This examination is recognized as equivalent to the General Secondary Certificate examination and covers subjects specified by the Higher Council of Universities. The subjects so specified are as follows:

Faculty of Agriculture: English Language, Mathematics, Chemistry and Physics;

Faculty of Commerce: English Language, French Language, Mathematics and Geography;

---

(1) Helmy, M.K., University Education in the U.A.R., Higher Council of Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, July 1968, p. 12.

Faculty of Engineering: English Language, Mathematics (including Mechanics) and Physics.

TABLE XV

The number of acceptances in the Egyptian universities according to their qualifications from 1965/66 to 1974/75

Year		Academic universities			Total
		General Secondary	Technical and Vocational Secondary	Other Qualifications	
1965/66	No.	24,140	-	2,117	26,257
	%	99.6	0	.4	100
1966/67	No.	20,631	-	743	21,374
	%	96.5	0	3.5	100
1967/68	No.	20,752	174	390	21,316
	%	97.4	0.8	1.8	100
1968/69	No.	21,790	142	1,261	23,196
	%	93.8	0.7	5.5	100
1969/70	No.	33,123	93	1,112	34,328
	%	96.5	0.3	3.2	100
1970/71	No.	15,515	317	1,325	37,157
	%	95.6	0.7	3.6	100
1971/72	No.	42,836	552	931	44,319
	%	96.7	1.2	2.1	100
1972/73	No.	51,643	177	1,642	3,462
	%	96.6	0.3	3.1	100
1973/74	No.	64,350	235	1,219	65,804
	%	97.8	0.4	1.8	100
1974/75	No.	76,886	279	829	77,994
	%	98.6	0.4	1	100

Source:
Ministry of Higher Education, Projects and Research Division, 1976 (in Arabic).

In fact, few students pass this examination and enter the university[1] as is evident from Table XV.

The General Secondary Certificate examination is an examination in school subjects. Though it is capable, to a limited extent, of providing evidence on which forecasts of future success can be based, it is not designed primarily for the purposes of prediction, but rather looks back to achievements in school. Although there is a lack of organic relation between secondary school and university, the selection on the basis of the General Secondary Certificate examination marks is the sole criterion on which the decision to offer a place in university to a candidate is based.

According to some responsible views, this examination is employed as an entrance test to universities to save time and effort[2]. It may be added that it also saves considerable expenditure on devising more sophisticated tests. Others argue that there is a high level of public confidence in the present admission process, since it safeguards the principle of equality of educational opportunity[3]. In fact, faced with the huge number of

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO and IAU, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II (National Studies), p. 463.

(2) Helmy, M.K., University Education in the U.A.R., p. 12.

(3) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 90 (in Arabic).

applicants, Egyptian universities have had to restrict admission to those students who obtain their General Secondary Certificate or its equivalent in the same year in which they apply for university admission. No student who has obtained his qualifying certificate in a prior year is admitted. This university regulation is very strictly applied to limit the chance for entering university as much as possible(1).

According to a recent publication which sheds light on the marks of accepted students in each university and each faculty in 1976/77, there is a noticeable difference between faculties which accepted students according to the marks of those students in the General Secondary Certificate. In both Ain-Shams University in Cairo and the provincial university at al-Zagazig, the average marks of the scientific branch students who obtained a place in the Faculty of Medicine was approximately 90%, whilst in the Faculty of Agriculture was between 60-65% and in the Faculty of Sciences was between 70-75%(2).

The actual admission procedure is totally impersonal. There is no headmaster's report nor any personal interview of applicants by the university authorities to assess either their interests in the chosen subjects or their personal aptitudes. Decisions about the applicants are entirely in

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 459.

(2) See Appendices IV and V.

the hands of the Co-ordination Office for Admission to Universities and Institutes. Selection of the students to various faculties, therefore, is based on the result of a final examination in General Secondary school. This objective criterion, in the view of some, has contributed to the equalization of educational opportunities. It has, however, serious limitations as a selection device(1).

Although some faculties attached to the Technical University of Helwan, such as the Faculties of Physical Education or Fine Arts, etc., require special aptitude tests; the total mark is still the basis for allocation. For the Faculty of Fine Arts, in particular, and faculties which similarly need special artistic talent, the Ministry of Education arranges a special paper for those wishing to join. In the final examination of the General Secondary the students enter a special paper. This special paper is entitled 'Abilities Test'. The reason for this is clear: it is to show that all the examinations are objective (or impersonal) and there is no opportunity for subjective influence. Complete acceptance in these faculties depends ultimately upon the decision of the Co-ordination Office.

At this point, it might be appropriate to examine more closely the functions of the Co-ordination Office. This Co-ordination Office for Universities and Institutes,

---

(1) Kotb, M.S., 'The United Arab Republic', in, Lauwerys, J.A. and Scanlon, D.G., (eds.), Examinations, The World Yearbook of Education, 1969, Evans Brothers, London, 1969, pp. 203-208.

'Maktab al-tansīq lil-Jāmi'āt w'al ma'ahid ', is affiliated to the Higher Council of Universities. The most important reason for its establishment was to guarantee equality of opportunity for all applicants to universities and institutes, bearing in mind that the central problem in selection for universities, both in developed and developing countries, is the imbalance between the huge demand for access to university and the incapacity of the university system to meet that demand. The Co-ordination Office was established to organise a selection process in the light of this central problem. The idea of this Office came specifically in 1953. It came under the supervision of the General Secretary of Cairo University as an attempt to save the students' time and effort and to reduce their difficulties within the three universities: Cairo, Ain-Shams at Cairo and Alexandria at Alexandria. Besides this purpose, the Co-ordination Office for Admission was established to regulate the selection procedure. In the following year (1954) it came under the supervision of the General Secretary of Ain-Shams University. However, this experiment was not completely satisfactory, in that some students were accepted through the Office, others by the faculties themselves, and yet others were neglected due to administration inefficiency(1).

In this period, there were three branches in the secondary school: sciences, mathematics and literary. The

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, pp. 32-33.

applicant who obtained the school certificate of the literary branch met the requirements of the Faculties of Arts, Law and Commerce. Applicants with the certificate of the science branch met the requirements of the Faculties of Sciences, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine and Commerce. The third branch in existence at that time was the mathematics branch. Similarly, applicants from this branch of secondary education, were qualified for the Faculties of Engineering, Commerce and the Department of Mathematics in the Faculties of Sciences(1).

A new decree for the universities was issued in 1954, and the Higher Council of Universities was established as a result. This Council decided to control the admission process to the faculties in November 1954. In June 1955, however, the admission process was discussed again by the Minister of Education and the Chancellors of the universities. One of the most important results of this meeting was the revival of the Co-ordination Office to regulate admission to universities. Approval was given to the proposed system on 14 July, 1955(2).

In that year the acceptance of literary branch students was dependent upon the total mark only. But for the scientific branch, the admission to the scientific faculties

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 466.

(2) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 34.

was based upon a different criterion. Instead of the total mark in all subjects in the Certificate of Secondary School, it was the applicant's average mark in the scientific subjects only that counted. The purpose of this change was to give special weight to the basic studies of the scientific faculties. For example the total mark for the Secondary School Certificate had been 280 points, half of which were for language subjects and half for science subjects. This had made it possible for the candidates who were distinguished in the scientific subjects but poor in languages to gain a place in the scientific faculties. The purpose of this system was to prevent, as far as possible, the students who were very proficient in languages and poor in scientific subjects from entering these scientific faculties. But this system also possessed a distinct disadvantage, in that prospective science students neglected studying languages, beyond merely what was required to pass their examination, and devoted their efforts to the scientific subjects.

In 1956, to avoid this, the system changed again with a compromise solution which proved effective in keeping language subjects from being seriously neglected. The solution was to keep the 280 points as authorized for the total mark, and add 140 points, representing the students' average counted twice, once for the total average and then again in the provision for the additional 140 points. The average in the language subjects still counted once. The reason behind this was to prevent the candidate who was

poor in scientific subjects but who had done well in languages from gaining admission to scientific faculties on the grounds that he had done badly in his first year in the scientific faculties. Other students, who were more proficient in the scientific subjects but poor in languages had been denied admission owing to their unqualifying total marks. This change was meant also to keep the sciences branch candidates working at their language subjects(1).

To implement all these changes the Co-ordination Office started to operate for the first time for the academic year 1955/56. The basis was still the total mark of the candidate for his choice of faculty, if his total mark allowed him to obtain his initial choice of faculty. This meant that competition was strong between students to gain places in university. The application form contained eight choices in 1955, and ten in 1956, to give the students the opportunity to choose more than one faculty at each of three different secular universities at that time. The basis of access to a particular faculty was the student's choice within the limits of his total mark, taking into account the entire number of students and the available places. There was only one Admissions Office at Cairo University in Giza, so that applicants had to visit this Office from all over the country for this purpose.

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 469.

Up to that time the students who had the Secondary School Certificate (which was called Tawgehia at that time), had the right to apply (even if they were non-Egyptian) to that Office. Candidates, however, who had the equivalent certificate and the external students had to apply to the faculty which they intended to join and not to the Office(1).

As a result of the change in the system of secondary education made in 1953, the General Secondary Certificate replaced the former Secondary School Certificate (Tawgehia) in 1956. The branches in the General Secondary school according to this change now became two: literary and scientific. For the scientific branch, the distribution of the marks was changed again; languages, according to this new change, accounted for less than a quarter of the average mark considered for admission, that is, up to 90 points of the basic 280 were allocated for languages and up to 190 for scientific studies, while the provision for an additional maximum of 140 points for science subjects still continued. As a result of the Higher Council of Universities' resolution in October 1956, the previous system, with the approximate two-to-one weighting of science to language, was adopted and brought into operation for the academic year 1957/58(2).

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 34.

(2) Ibid, pp. 5-8.

It is important to stress at this point, that any change in educational policy for pre-university education has a direct effect on the admission policy of access to university and the different conditions of entry to certain faculties. In 1956, Act No. 339 was passed and contained a number of important provisions. The General Secondary Certificate could not be taken more than once, for financial and administrative reasons. The Act also set the average pass marks at 50% for the Arabic language and 40% for all other subjects, provided that the student also met one or more of the following three conditions:

1) The student should pass in all subjects;
2) The student should pass in Arabic language and all other subjects except one;
3) The student should pass in Arabic language and all other subjects except two, provided that his minimum average in those two subjects is at least 25%(1).

As mentioned previously, this began to operate in 1957/58, and because this Act authorized the granting of the General Secondary Certificate to students who had failed in the examination in one or two subjects, it also urged the universities to change the policy for admission to their different faculties. The total mark alone was not enough as the sole basis for access to universities.

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., The International Study of Access to Universities (U.A.R.), p. 63 (in Arabic).

Hence, the Higher Council of Universities defined the requirements for admission on 9 February, 1957, stating that the applicants must pass in the subjects required by the faculty to which they were applying according to the following conditions:

1) On the whole, the total mark was considered as the basis for comparison between the applicants;
2) For all faculties the chance of entering should be given first to those students who had the highest average. These students were admitted up to the limit of capacity for all faculties(1).

In fact, this was essentially the same provision as had been since 1942. In addition to the general issue stated above, applicants must have attained the passing average for each of the respective faculties in some specific subjects according to the faculty conditions.

As a matter of fact, there were some faculties for the candidates who had the General Secondary Certificate scientific branch only, and others opened for the students from both branches, the literary and scientific, while some other faculties, usually for the literary branch, might accept students from the scientific branch if they applied and satisfied the specific conditions for the faculty as follows:

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., The International Study of Access to Universities (U.A.R.), pp. 63-64 (in Arabic).

The Faculty of Arts:

Basically, this Faculty accepted students from the literary branch of General Secondary Certificate. Besides the Arabic language, the candidate had to be successful in the primary European languages or the special studies related to it, provided that the student's mark in the secondary European language was at least 25%, and in main studies in Geography or History, Principles of Philosophy or Sociology and two other subjects.

The candidates from the scientific branch could also be admitted to the Faculty of Arts. After all qualified, interested students from the literary branch had been admitted, scientific branch students might be admitted to any vacant places provided they had passed in a primary European language or on the basis of an overall average in language subjects.

The Faculties of Dar-al-Ulum[1] and Law:

For the students from the literary branch the conditions for admission were either one of the European languages or the related subjects, and at least four other subjects, besides the Arabic language.

If vacant places remained after all qualified literary branch applicants had been admitted, then if a scientific branch student desired entry to this Faculty he would need to attain a pass mark in either one of the European languages,

---

(1) Faculty of Dar-al-Ulum (House of Sciences), the only one of its kind. It is one of the Cairo University Faculties for Arabic literature and Islamic studies.

or, alternatively, on the basis of an overall average in language subjects.

Faculty of Commerce:

For the students from the literary branch, both European languages were required for admission, or either the English language together with three other subjects selected from Geography, History, Economics, Philosophy and French language, besides the Arabic language.

For the students from the scientific branch; Arabic language, English language and any other three subjects selected from any Mathematics subject: Principles of Statistics and Accountancy, Physics, Chemistry, Biology and French language.

If French language is not included in the subjects passed by the student, he must pass the supplementary examination in this at the end of his first university year.

Faculty of Economics and Political Studies:

The conditions for admission are approximately the same for the applicants of both the literary and scientific branches. The candidate should pass in English and French language in addition to Arabic. Three other subjects must be included according to the candidate's branch of General Secondary Certificate.

Only candidates from the scientific branch could be admitted to the following faculties in accordance with the stated conditions (taking into account that the Arabic language is a basic condition):

Agriculture, Dentistry, Medicine, Pharmacy, Veterinary Medicine: either one of the European languages, provided that the student's mark in English language is at least 25%, the main study in Physics, Chemistry and Biology and at least one of the European languages.

Engineering: either one of the European languages provided that the student's mark in English language is at least 25%, the main study in Mathematics and Chemistry, and at least one language besides the Arabic language.

Sciences: either one of the European languages provided that the student's mark in English language is at least 25%, the main study in Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics or Biology and one other subject besides the Arabic language.

Girls' Faculty (for girls only): admission to its literary departments followed the same requirements as the Faculty of Arts and, likewise, admission to its scientific departments followed those for the Faculty of Sciences.

In addition, for those students who had gained places in any faculty of scientific branch or faculty of commerce, with a low examination mark in European languages (English and French), the Higher Council of Universities required that they must pass a supplementary examination at the end of their first year at university to demonstrate that they had developed sufficient competence in either or both languages. This examination was comparable to the

examinations for the General Secondary Certificate, and the student must pass this examination in order to be promoted to the next year's studies. This supplementary examination was usually given in September and June of each year by members of English and French departments in the Faculty of Arts(1). The reason for this examination becomes apparent when we take into account that much of the instruction is given in English in the scientific faculties, while in the faculties of commerce, English and French were basic subjects throughout the first and second years and integral parts of some of the third and fourth year courses.

According to the General Secondary Certificate system, at that time, some students were considered successful even though they gained less than 50% of the total mark. Then the Higher Council of Universities required not less than 50% of the total mark to gain a place in university education.

For some faculties, special entrance examinations were required. The following faculties and higher institutes required a personal interview:

Dar-al-Ulum and Girls' Faculty: as most of the first faculty candidates work as Arabic language teachers, they had to pass a personal interview, which applied also to applicants to the educational section of the Girls' Faculty, who work as teachers after graduation, in different subjects.

---

(1) El-Said, M.E., The International Study of Access to Universities (U.A.R.), pp. 64-68 (in Arabic).

These interviews would be held in the faculties by some of the lecturers and specialists.

The Nursing Institute: the women applying should be qualified according to the Faculty of Medicine requirements, plus an interview.

The distribution of the accepted students inside the faculty itself for the different departments was in the control of the faculties and according to the individual student's situation. It was not as completely restricted as the policy of admission.

At the beginning of the 'seventies, the system of pass requirement for the examination changed. The Ministerial Issues Nos. 4 and 205 for the year 1972 stated that the student should gain a minimum of 50% of the total mark in the final examination in the preparatory and secondary stages in order to be successful. Annual promotion examinations were to be held in two sessions, but the final examination for each educational stage was to be held in one session only(1).

This brought to an end the previous system which allowed the student who failed in one or two subjects, with 25% of his total marks, to be considered successful. Accordingly, all the previous conditions for passing in certain subjects to gain admission, or passing examinations in languages, were abolished.

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 19.

and,

National Centre for Educational Research, Study on the Educational System in A.R. of Egypt, pp. 74-75 (in Arabic).

Recently, some new changes have taken place in the regulations of the General Secondary Certificate. Beginning from the school year 1974/75, students in the third year of the General Secondary school (both the literary and the scientific branches) were given the right to choose one or two of the optional subjects for intensive study (or to a special standard of achievement) besides the ordinary level set for the whole body of this school's students.

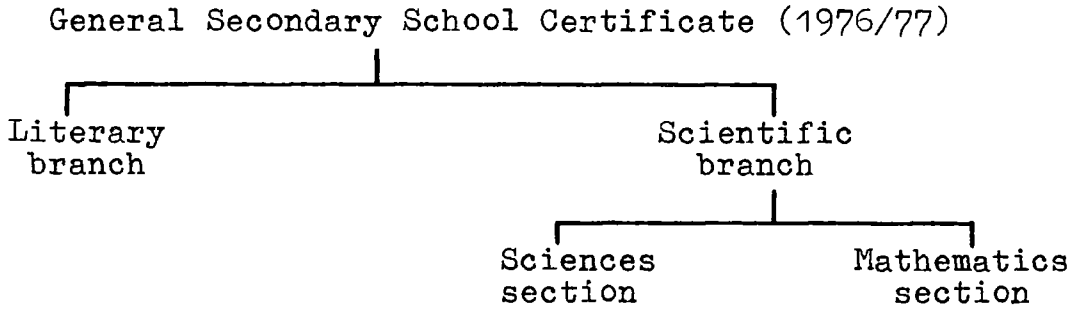
In the case where a student chooses two of the special standard subjects, one must be either the Arabic language or the first foreign language. The second subject must be either Mathematics or Natural Studies for the scientific branch, and Geography or Philosophy for the literary branch. These changes were made according to the Ministerial Issue No. 139 for the year 1974(1).

From the beginning of the academic year 1976/77, a new approach to the General Secondary Certificate should have begun whereby the scientific branch is divided into two sections: Sciences and Mathematics, each section having its own group of subjects with their own qualification procedures, in addition to the general subjects for all students (Fig. VII). This newly introduced system is quite similar to the system before 1953, which was called Tawgehia.

---

(1) National Centre for Educational Research, Report on the Development of Education in A.R. of Egypt during the period 1973/74 and 1974/75, p. 10.

FIGURE VII



As mentioned above, any change in the general education system is automatically commensurate with a change in admission requirement, but still the cardinal principle for selection is the total mark. Accordingly, the qualification for admission in 1977 is different from the previous year.

Acceptance for the faculties of all the universities in Egypt is in accordance with general and special conditions:

I. General Conditions

A. Obtaining the General Secondary Certificate, literary branch, for the Arts departments in Faculties of Education and Faculty of Girls.

B. Sciences section of the scientific branch of the General Secondary Certificate, to be qualified for the following faculties: Agriculture and Agricultural Sciences, Dentistry, Medicine, Domestic Economics, Girls' (Domestic Economics, Geology, Physics and Chemistry departments), Higher Institute of Natural

Therapy, Institute of Nursing, Medicine, Pharmacy, Sciences of Cotton, Sciences (group of biological and chemical sciences), Veterinary Medicine and Education.

C. Mathematics section of scientific branch of the General Secondary Certificate, to be qualified for the Faculties of Education (Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry departments), Engineering, Engineering and Technology, Technology and Electronic Engineering, Mining and Petrol, Sciences and Girls' (Physics and Chemistry departments).

D. Both sections of the scientific branch for the Faculties of Applied Arts, Fine Arts (Architecture department).

E. The two branches of General Secondary Certificate for the following faculties: Arts, Commerce and Management, Commerce and Management (Postal department), Law, Archaeology, Dar-al-Ulum, Languages, Economics and Political Sciences, Music Education, Physical Education and Social Service (see Table XVI).

II. Special Conditions

A. For the Faculty of Law: (i) where the French language is essential, candidates should have studied this in their General Secondary Certificate, (ii) for the candidates who did not read French language, they would have to attain not less than 65% of the total

TABLE XVI

The faculties of Egypt's universities according to the student's qualification (branch of study and section)

Literary branch only	Scientific branch only			Both literary and scientific branches
	Sciences	Mathematics	Both sections	
Arts Departments in the Faculties of Education and Faculty of Girls'	Agriculture Agricultural Sciences Sciences of Cotton Dentistry Domestic Economics Higher Institute of Natural Therapy Institute of Nursing Medicine Pharmacy Veterinary Medicine	Engineering Engineering and Technology Technology and Electoonic Engineering Mining and Petrol	Applied Arts Education Girls' Fine Arts (Architecture Department) Sciences	Arts Artistic Education Archaeology Commerce Commerce and Management Dar-al-Ulum Economics and Political Sciences Languages Law Mass Communication and Journalism Music Education Physical Education Social Service

mark in General Secondary Certificate. In addition, they should pass an examination in this language set in the first month of the first academic year.

B. For the Faculty of Languages: candidates should have attained at least 60% for both the foreign languages (for all students in every branch).

C. For the Faculty of Artistic Education and Fine Arts in Cairo and Alexandria: candidates should have passed the ability tests which were held during the period of General Secondary Certificate and examinations.

D. For the Faculty of Music Education: candidates should have passed the Music ability tests before final acceptance in this Faculty.

E. For the Faculty of Physical Education: candidates should have passed the ability tests, which are held after the General Secondary examination, before final acceptance.

F. For the Faculties of Education, Girls' Faculty (Educational Departments), Nursing Institute, the Higher Institute of Natural Therapy and Social Service: candidates should satisfy the interviewer. If the candidate failed to pass in the ability tests or did not satisfy the interviewer, the Co-ordination Office must propose another faculty for him or her according to the candidate's next choice and on the basis of the student's total mark(1).

---

(1) Co-ordination Office, Students' Guide for Admission to Universities and Institutes, for the General Secondary Students, Cairo University Press, Cairo 1978, Ch. III (in Arabic).

Indeed, selection by means of the total mark in the General Secondary Certificate has been seen by many in Egypt, especially the general public, as an instrument of social justice in that the successful and able from all sections of society have the opportunity to partake of a university education(1). Therefore, the Co-ordination Office modified this system year by year in the light of practical experience to overcome any obstacles. But no change touches the accepted criterion of admission, i.e. the total mark. The aim of any change is to ease the process as much as possible, such as the difficulties that have been faced by the students who wish to join the university and to apply, simultaneously, to one of the Military faculties which are outside the Co-ordination Office's authority. To solve this problem, therefore, those responsible and their counterparts in the Military faculties, co-operated to make it easier for the student to keep his choice open, just in case he failed to gain admission to one or gained admission to both. Thus, he has the freedom to choose the most desirable place(2).

The Co-ordination Office was given wider responsibility as a result of its success in university admission. From 1969 the external students' distribution became a part of

---

(1) Helmy, M.K., The System of Universities' Admission, Higher Council of Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, March 1970, pp. 12-13 (in Arabic),
and,
National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, pp. 35-36 (in Arabic).

(2) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 49.

its responsibility. In addition, the Higher Institutes which were under the direction of the Ministry of Higher Education (not the Higher Council of Universities), at that time, became a part of its responsibility. This means that the Office became the Co-ordination Office of Universities and Higher Institutes(1).

Moreover, on account of the new system in al-Azhar University, large numbers of General Secondary education candidates wished to join its faculties. These students also faced some difficulties because they had to apply through two systems: the Co-ordination Office for secular universities and Higher Institutes and al-Azhar also as a religious university. To clarify the situation, the Co-ordination Office widened its area of responsibility. Students who wished to enrol in one of al-Azhar's faculties could apply through this system, which became universal for all civilian post-secondary education from 1968(2).

Accordingly, the choices increased year by year in order to keep pace with increasing numbers of universities, faculties and also students with their high demand for places in post-secondary education. In 1955, for example, the applicant had to write eight options on his application form in order of priority. The options became ten in 1956, and the applicant was obliged to write them all, to make

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 57 and p. 50.

(2) Ibid, p. 49.

it easier for the worker in the Office to find alternatives and to give places in faculties according to this list of options; the fraction of a mark could prevent the candidate from obtaining the faculty of his choice, and so they had to look at the next choice. In 1957, the application form contained twelve choices, increased to twenty in 1964. Since 1971 the candidate has had to write thirty-two choices in order of priority and one of these chosen thirty-two faculties might become his faculty(1).

The distribution of the students to different faculties and universities initially was performed manually, but the massive increase in the number of students, faculties and the expansion of university education made this process very slow and laborious. Since 1974, with the assistance of the computer unit of Cairo University, the process has been computerized(2).

To keep pace with the expansion of the Egyptian university education, the Office established a regulation for the provincial universities beginning with Asyut University in Upper Egypt. In 1957, two faculties of this university opened, and to prevent the withdrawal of educated people from the different provinces and cities to Cairo, a student from the Upper Egypt region attended Asyut

---

(1) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 38ff,
and also see,
Appendix VI , The Candidate's Application Form.

(2) Ibid, p. 71.

University and none of the other three - Cairo, Ain-Shams at Cairo and Alexandria. If he attained a lower total mark than that which was acceptable in his provincial university, then this lower total mark could justify the student applying to the faculty he wished in another university if this faculty accepted the same total mark as he had obtained.

The place of living (origin) of a candidate for university has since this time (1957) become one of the important principles of the selection process. Many other provincial universities have opened, in Tanta (1972), Zagazig (1974) and others, and operate according to the same principle to prevent the concentration of the most able students in the most reputable universities such as Cairo. Helwan University is the only university excluded from this rule because it is the only technical university in Egypt and most of its faculties are unique, such as the Faculty of Music Education, Artistic Education and many others(1).

This geographical distribution was also followed by Cairo city itself from the beginning of 1970. To counteract many transport difficulties within Greater Cairo, Cairo University became available only to students who lived in certain quarters of Cairo, and Ain-Shams University for other parts of Cairo city which was nearer to the student's home. In spite of the fact that this geographical

---

(1) Co-ordination Office, Students' Guide for Admission to Universities and Institutes, p. 13.

distribution is the introduction of non-academic considerations into the selection process, many believed it would make the balance of the students' standard of marks obtained in their General Secondary Certificate equal, and would prevent the concentration of the highly successful students going to Cairo University alone, as it is the oldest and most famous university.

If the student's total mark and his choice of faculty led to his acceptance in his nearest university, then the normal procedure operated; the student had the right to go to such a university if his total mark was accepted elsewhere and he himself insisted on this choice inside and outside his provincial boundaries. The Co-ordination Office could not prevent the candidate from obtaining a place outside his provincial university. Furthermore, if a candidate wished to study subjects not available in his provincial or nearest university, then his total mark gave him the right to go where he pleased(1). Selection according to place of origin as well as examination performance does not operate against the student's interests but ensures a balance between universities and prevents the emigration of educated people from their native parts of Egypt to the other more developed parts(2).

---

(1) Interview with the Under-Secretary of State of the Co-ordination Office, Mr. A. Al-Shershabi, Giza, in February 1977.

(2) National Specialised Council, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 31.

This system was also desirable, from the authorities' point of view, to avoid the problem of student accommodation and housing. Even now, after all this expansion and geographical restriction, or a home-based policy, there is still a shortage of resident places for students who leave their homes to join the university in a different city. This problem is very apparent in Cairo University. In the women's residential hall, in the academic year 1976/77, there were 2,280 girls living in a hall which had been built for only 1,000 girls. In the same university, in the men's hall, there were 3,300 undergraduates living in a hall which had been built for 2,000 students. At the same time, in spite of all this, there were about 1,000 girls, at the beginning of that academic year, without places in the women's hall of residence(1). Although this geographic condition may encourage or compel the students to live in their province, it will not solve the problem of student accommodation, as many students from the same province leave villages and their home towns. This short term non-academic solution is not likely to solve the problem of housing a growing number of students who need accommodation. The accommodation of students is not fundamentally an educational issue at all, but it is, indeed, a problem of housing(2).

---

(1) Al-Sa'dani, A., 'An empty room for a stranger student', Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, bi-monthly magazine, Cairo, No. 507, 15 October 1976, p. 26.

(2) 'Higher Education and Student Housing', A report of research undertaken in the Centre for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Kent at Canterbury for the Department of Education and Science, unpublished, December 1976, p. 268.

The evidence of the survey carried out in two of Egypt's universities, reported in Chapter V, indicates that while some students are likely to go anywhere to read the subjects they like, others voluntarily choose to study in their local university(1). It is this researcher's view that provincial considerations should not become, for any reason, involved in the process of a student's selection for university education. This non-voluntary option might impose conditions upon the student's selection which should be on the basis of merit and academic potential, irrespective of their economic, domestic or social circumstances(2).

To meet the pressure of large numbers of successful General Secondary Certificate students, the process of admission has been divided into three stages since 1969. Every stage is concerned with a limited number of students. The purpose of these divisions was to help the applicants themselves in their choice of faculties and other institutions of post-secondary education(3). These stages increased to four in 1976. The question might be raised at this point, how do these stages work? The answer to this question might be the best way to shed light on the actual process of admission.

---

(1) See Chapter V of this thesis, the analysis of question no. 12 of the questionnaire.

(2) 'Higher Education and Student Housing', pp. 262-263.

(3) Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, p. 52.

In the light of the available places in each faculty of the universities, and the total number of successful students and their marks, the authorities of the Office can estimate the number of candidates who might apply to higher education. They then divide the successful students, according to their score of total marks, into categories. They can also estimate how many students are available for each stage. Meanwhile, the minimum total mark may be the borderline of the first stage, but they cannot forecast how many candidates may apply for each faculty. However, the students' demand for individual faculties is the only determining factor in this case, as it is a matter of supply and demand: the limited number of vacancies and the demand of students decide the minimum total mark accepted in each faculty. In fact the demand of students for particular faculties changes from period to period. The Faculty of Medicine enjoys the highest prestige amongst the General Secondary school students at this time.

The Co-ordination Office opens its doors usually in the second half of August for the first stage students, i.e. those students who gained the General Secondary Certificate in the same school year and according to the total marks decided by the Office for the literary and scientific branches(1). The applicants at this stage have

(1) After the expansion of university education, some branches of the Co-ordination Office were opened in Alexandria, Tanta, Al-Mansura and Asyut, besides the main and permanent Office in Giza, Greater Cairo.

the right to name between twenty (minimum) and thirty-two (maximum) choices of faculty(1). It is difficult, and sometimes even impossible, to satisfy the first preference of all applicants even in this first stage(2).

The Co-ordination Office for Admission collects the application forms and arranges them in descending order according to the total mark of each student and his or her choice. If the number of students to be admitted to the Faculty of Engineering, for example, is fixed by the Higher Council of Universities at 1,000, the Co-ordination Office accepts the first one-thousand students wishing to join this particular faculty. Then, the Office enrols the remainder of the students according to the second preference of each, which may be the Faculty of Medicine or any other faculty in the same university, in addition to those students who wish to enter this faculty as a first choice. This is done with regard to the different conditions mentioned previously. Thus admission of students indicating the same preference depends on the total mark of each student.

The second stage is reached when the Office announces through the press how many faculties are full, how many places are still vacant in each faculty and the minimum total

---

(1) The applicants were given a special application form designed especially by the computer unit to ease the process to fit the computer into this work (see Appendix VI).

(2) Helmy, M.K., The System of Universities' Admission, p. 12,
and also see,
Appendix VII , as an example to illustrate this process in practice.

marks accepted at this stage in every faculty. This obviously sheds light on the following stage, to choose a faculty or faculties which would accept their total marks. After the declaration of the lowest total marks necessary for submission at the second stage, the candidate can predict which of the remaining faculties will match his position. Thus, the first choice this time may not be his original first choice but as the real situation becomes clear he has to adjust his choice accordingly.

In 1976/77, for example, after the first stage, the following faculties were full:

Archaeology, Economics and Political Sciences, Languages, Mass Communication and Journalism (these faculties are unique, i.e. the only faculties of their kind in the Egyptian universities), Commerce at Cairo University, Ain-Shams, Asyut and al-Mansura, Faculties of Education at al-Mansura and Qina, and the Institute of Commerce and Management at al-Zamalik;

All the Faculties of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy;

The Faculties of Engineering at Cairo University, Ain-Shams, al-Mansura, Alexandria, Asyut and al-Munufia.

The number of students who were accepted at this stage for the science branch was 12,826, and for the literary branch students, 7,425. This means that 20,251 of the successful students in General Secondary Certificate were given places in universities in the first stage. The total number of successful students was eventually 107,079[1]. In other words, approximately 18% of the successful students were awarded places in this first stage, but this does not mean that they obtained their first choice.

After the beginning of the first stage of admission to the universities, different ability tests were presented for all students who wanted to enter faculties such as Music, which needed special talent. The result of these tests are stored in the computer unit for use as one of the conditions of access into these faculties, besides the total mark.

Usually, by the end of the second stage, most of the university places are full. The third stage is for places still vacant in a few faculties but most places at this, and the fourth stage, are for the other post-secondary education institutions.

According to the decision of the Higher Council of Universities on 10 August 1976, the proposed number of students for the academic year 1976/77 was 63,115: 40,450

---

(1) Co-ordination Office, The result of the first stage of acceptance in universities, Memorandum for presentation to the Minister of Education, Report No. 1, 1976, M.S.S., Permanent Office, Cairo University, Giza (in Arabic).

from the scientific branch, and 22,665 from the literary branch. In addition to the universities, the other post-secondary institutes and al-Azhar University could offer 8,828 extra places for the exceptional categories. In fact, the number of students accepted in the universities only, through the Co-ordination Office, for 1976/77 was 65,159. Table XVII illustrates the accepted number of students in both branches - scientific and literary - in each stage of admission to secular universities only, through the Co-ordination Office for the year 1976/77[1].

TABLE XVII

The accepted number of students in each stage of admission in the Egyptian universities in 1976/77 (ordinary students)[2]

Stage	Ordinary students		Total
	Literary	Scientific	
1	6,365	11,864	18,229
2	9,637	20,313	29,950
3	6,675	8,911	15,586
4	865	528	1,393

Source:
Co-ordination Office, 1977 (in Arabic).

(1) All these numbers are collected from the original sources and unpublished sheets in the Permanent Office at Cairo University, Giza, Egypt, in 1977 while they were still in the process of preparation.

(2) Ordinary students means that these numbers do not include external students or exceptional categories.

From the above table it is evident that very few students find places in university at the fourth stage; the second stage is usually for the mediocre students, followed by the third stage. The first stage is for the most distinguished, successful students in the General Secondary Certificate examination.

Finally, how are applications made? Students wishing to gain entry to university and other types of higher education and specific faculties, must make application through the Co-ordination Office. This application form provides the following information:

1) The candidate's name, age, date of birth, address;
2) Details of marks taken in each subject of General Secondary Certificate examination, showing special subject marks and the group subjects in his branch (if scientific branch);
3) Thirty-two squares are provided for the applicant in which to name his choices of faculty. These are ranked in order of the student's priority. (Special stamps are provided to ease the process);
4) A letter for each candidate, to be sent by the Office to inform the candidate which faculty he is to enter.

According to the previous pages, it can be concluded that the present Egyptian system of selection for higher education is completely impersonal. It was established as a result of the growing desire to guarantee access to

university education on the basis of personal merit alone, free from economic or political privileges, with the realisation that apart from this there would be a great loss of human potential, impoverishing alike to the individual and to the nation. However, the following chapter will examine this system in practice, from the students' viewpoint.

CHAPTER V

The Student and the Selection System Analysis of Data of Questionnaire and Principal Findings

The previous chapter was concerned with the development of the Co-ordination Office, the executive agency which seeks to ensure the equality of educational opportunity in Egyptian higher education. M.K. Helmy, formerly Secretary General of the Higher Council of Universities and the Minister of Education until November 1978, evaluated the admission policy as follows:

> 'In short, we believe that this system is successful even though it may have certain shortcomings.'(1)

More recently, however, the Specialised National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, in its third session (1977), studied the admission system through the Co-ordination Office and recognized that, although it has ensured equality of opportunity among those who are successful in the General Secondary examination in admission to university, it is time to re-examine the function of this Office from a different angle. The Council recommended that the purpose of this Office should not only be the mechanical process of acceptance. The whole system of admission needs to be

---

(1) Helmy, M.K., University Education in U.A.R., p. 12, and,
Helmy, M.K., The System of Universities' Admission, pp. 11-13 (in Arabic).

re-assessed in the light of new scientific research(1).

Most of the essential research in the field of university education, especially in this age of expansion, emphasizes the aims of university education or re-examines it. Nevertheless, as Sir Walter Moberley pointed out:

> 'if we want to know what universities are in fact, what are their most serious shortcomings, and how these might be eliminated we must go below the surface and enquire into their actual institutional working'(2)

There is a need to re-examine the aims of university education and the admission system in Egypt. Little research has been carried out on aims and objectives as perceived by the university students themselves. It is important not only to determine what the institution requires of its candidates, and the even more complex issue of its relationship to the needs of the particular society, but also to ask what students want from their university experience.

This chapter describes and analyzes a questionnaire administered to first year students in two Egyptian universities, Ain-Shams and Zagazig, designed to sample students' experience with the Co-ordination Office. Therefore, the questionnaire deals with both the university

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 44 (in Arabic).

(2) Moberley, W., The Crisis in the University, S.C.M. Press, London, 1949, p. 164.

admission process itself and the stated aims of university students. Our attention in the following pages, therefore, will focus necessarily on the admission process, the process by which young men and women in Egypt are awarded the opportunity of university education. Moreover, it is a process which influences not only their life chances but also the education they receive in General Secondary school. The ways in which their parents regard them and the ways in which they will come to regard themselves are affected. In fact, the process of university admission has had its effect, long before they seek university entrance as this chapter will later show.

As mentioned earlier, and forming an important assumption of this research, the admission process for access to the Egyptian universities in particular is not simply a matter of examination results, or the students' total mark in General Secondary examination. It is also a socio-economic phenomenon with all the interlocking ramifications of values and beliefs which are involved when decisions have to be made about the distribution of much sought after opportunities. The Higher Council of Universities proposes some thousands of freshers for the new academic year, but the pressure of numbers, after the announcement of the results of the General Secondary Certificate, from both parents and students, has its own effect on the numbers of students finally accepted in the universities. In addition, the policy makers have their own part to play in this field; for example, after the

declaration of this certificate result, the press carries the assurance of the authorities that each successful student will find a place in a higher education institution(1).

In fact, because the universities themselves have no role to play in the admission process (though this does not mean that professorial opinion plays no part), their faculties only open their different departments to absorb the Co-ordination Office's allocated students. For the time being, a discussion as to what the aims of the Egyptian universities might be, which takes no account of the aims of the students, is highly unrealistic. Such an increase in understanding of the reasons why students want university education can only be brought about by further research in this field.

An attempt is made here to assess the relative importance of a number of factors influencing the students who seek university education. Particular attention is paid to the role of the Co-ordination Office as an arbitrary gate, not only to the universities but also to all places in higher education institutes. The challenge of selecting about one-hundred-thousand university and post-secondary education applicants has

---

(1) See, for example, Cairo newspaper, Al-Ahram, 14 August, 1975, p. 1, and 29 June, 1977, p. 1.

provoked enquiring debate in the press in particular[1]. Not much academic research has been done in this area, nor has much account of the students' experience been taken despite their being one of the touchstones in the whole educational process.

The following pages report the findings of a questionnaire carried out at the beginning of 1977, in Egypt. The aim of this questionnaire was to study the students' experience of transition from secondary school to university. It examines the relation between school achievement as reflected in the total mark in the General Secondary Certificate examination and success in attaining a faculty place. Under conditions of very strong competition, acceptance in any faculty became highly uncertain. This competition, as mentioned previously, mainly focused on academic performance or secondary school attainment. Therefore, the academic and social factors which influenced the students' choices of a specific faculty are paid special attention in this questionnaire. The differences between sexes and parental background were examined. Besides this, the students' attitudes towards the Co-ordination Office or

---

(1) See, for example,
'Izz-al-Din, Y., 'If Picasso was born in our country we would offer him a place in the Faculty of Commerce'. Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 26 August, 1977;
'Uthmān, M., 'The Egyptian University 'Retrogress'', Rose-El-Youssef, Cairo weekly magazine, 22 August, 1977, pp. 12-16;
Anis, M., 'The Egyptian Universities ... to where?', Al-Katib, Cairo monthly magazine, No. 162, September 1974, pp. 39-44.

admission system on the whole of Egyptian universities and many other points were examined. The questionnaire was designed to contain factual questions as well as questions of opinion(1).

The respondents were asked for certain items of personal information, such as that referring to age, sex, their percentage of the total marks, stage of admission, parents' education, etc. They were asked a series of questions about their secondary school and about their experience with the Co-ordination Office. Lists of reasons for coming to the university and for choosing a certain faculty had been devised. The respondents were invited to indicate the appropriate reasons why they had come to the university, why they had chosen a particular faculty and before that, why they had chosen a specific subject in General Secondary school for their specialization. The suggestions of the list given were fairly comprehensive. They were also given the opportunity to specify any additional reasons they might have had. Relatively few availed themselves of this opportunity.

Some open questions had also been given in the questionnaire about the students' views and their attitudes towards the university degree and the job market, the university entrance system and the total mark as an essential criterion for allocation for university education.

---

(1) The questionnaire translated into English, see Appendix II.

The questionnaire, therefore, which was applied to a random sample at two Egyptian universities, was prepared by the researcher with assistance from and discussion with specialists in Durham University and a number of professors and colleagues in the Faculty of Education of Ain-Shams University, Cairo. Previous research projects were also taken into account(1). The sample was decided upon in the light of what was practically feasible and of what was theoretically desirable. It should be noted that the sample does not represent all the Egyptian first year students of university education of whom there were 65,290 at the time of this survey in the academic year 1976/77. First year students were selected for the purposes of the study as those Egyptian students who:

a) joined the university in the year 1976/77 as regular students,

b) had never been to any other university,

c) were preparing for their first degree.

---

(1) One of the few reliable academic researches in this particular area, in Egypt, was carried out by,
Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system of the university of Egypt, unpublished M.A. thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1966 (in Arabic),
and also see,
Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1964;
Little, G., The University Experience, An Australian Study, Melbourne University Press, 1970;
Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly, Summer 1972, Vol. 26, pp. 317-331.

This definition, therefore, excluded from consideration postgraduates and also transfers from other faculties and first year repeaters, on the grounds that their previous experience at university might make them qualitatively different groups. The students who held a Technical Secondary School Certificate or any other equivalent were not included. A fully representative sample, therefore, would have to be larger than this one. In this survey, it was decided to concentrate on a small number of students and only two universities for many reasons, as mentioned earlier(1). At the same time, it was possible to concentrate on areas which promised to be highly significant. The variety in types of faculties, the different total marks and stages of admission indicate the variety in the total society, which included both urban and rural students. In each faculty of both universities, a random sample of young men and women completed the questionnaire in Arabic. One of the main interests included a comparison of the long-established university at Cairo, Ain-Shams University, which draws its students from a specific surrounding area of the capital of Egypt and the nearest non-university provinces, with the other university which is one of the Delta cities, at Zagazig, situated in the capital of al-Sharqia Governorate. Zagazig University draws students both from the city, the surrounding towns and villages, in the same province and non-university Governorates. The two universities differ in size, age and place.

---

(1) See Introduction, p. xlii.

The sample was drawn from the Co-ordination Office's original lists of all freshers who entered Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities in 1976/77. These lists were drawn up from evidence of the students' total marks, stages of admission and by faculties. One-hundred and twenty students were chosen at random from the regular students of both Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities; sixty from the scientific branch and sixty from the literary branch of each university. Table XVIII illustrates the number of freshers in each university and their status for the academic year 1976/77.

TABLE XVIII

Number of students and their status in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities (1976/77)

University	Literary branch			Scientific branch		
	Regular	External	Total	Regular	External	Total
Ain-Shams	5,098	1,669	6,767	5,965	8,110	14,075
Zagazig	1,025	375	1,400	2,797	616	3,413

Source:

Co-ordination Office, Permanent Office at Cairo University Giza, 1977 (in Arabic).

With reference to the above numbers, a random sample was drawn out. For the Ain-Shams University sample one student from every 100 regular students in the scientific branch was chosen, and one regular student from every 85 was chosen from the literary branch. The same process was repeated for Zagazig University, one student from

every 47 in the scientific branch, and one from every 18 in the literary branch. The total number from each faculty and numbers of both sexes depend upon random choice. The summary Tables XIX(a) and XIX(b) show the comparison of the sample according to branch of study, faculty and sex in each university.

Lists of students' names are drawn up usually according to their specialization in the faculties of Arts, Education, Languages, Girls', Sciences and by alphabetical order in other faculties, such as Agriculture, Law, Medicine, etc., where there is no specialization in the first year. According to the chosen students' timetable, the researcher managed to trace most of them in their lecture halls, laboratories or classes before or after lessons; some students called into the Youth Welfare Office in the Faculty. In this way, the researcher managed to interview all the chosen sample.

The co-operation of the students was remarkable; there were no refusals or incomplete replies. Most of the students were willing to give their answers because this was the first opportunity they had been given to express their own views about their education and the admission system to university. Despite the fact that some respondents were not enthusiastic, they nevertheless completed their copy of the questionnaire. Usually two or three replied in each interview but each student had

TABLE XIX(a)

The composition of the sample in Ain-Shams University, by branch of study, faculty and sex

No.	Faculty	Scientific branch			Literary branch			Total
		F	M	Total	F	M	Total	
1	Agriculture	1	9	10	-	-	-	10
2	Arts	1	3	4	16	9	25	29
3	Commerce	4	6	10	4	4	8	18
4	Education	3	2	5	1	7	8	13
5	Engineering	1	9	10	-	-	-	10
6	Girls'	5	-	5	3	-	3	8
7	Languages	1	1	2	3	2	5	7
8	Law	-	1	1	2	9	11	12
9	Medicine	2	6	8	-	-	-	8
10	Sciences	1	4	5	-	-	-	5
	Total	19	41	60	29	31	60	120

TABLE XIX(b)

The composition of the sample in Zagazig University, by branch of study, faculty and sex

No.	Faculty	Scientific branch			Literary branch			Total
		F	M	Total	F	M	Total	
1	Agriculture	3	11	14	-	-	-	14
2	Arts	-	1	1	8	2	10	11
3	Commerce	4	14	18	5	14	19	37
4	Education	1	4	5	4	13	17	22
5	Law	-	1	1	6	8	14	15
6	Medicine	1	5	6	-	-	-	6
7	Pharmacy	1	3	4	-	-	-	4
8	Sciences	1	4	5	-	-	-	5
9	Vet.Medicine	1	5	6	-	-	-	6
	Total	12	48	60	23	37	60	120

the freedom to reply without any influence from the others. The nature and content of interview and questionnaire encouraged most of the students to give answers freely. Confidentiality was, of course, ensured; the questionnaire therefore required no name to be supplied. None of the students had any idea prior to the meeting about the questionnaire or its content: their responses, therefore, were spontaneous.

According to the previous two tables (Tables XIX(a) and XIX(b)), it is clear that in both universities the proportion of women was higher in the literary branch than in the scientific branch. In Ain-Shams University, where women represented approximately 40% of the sample, the women constituted approximately 31% of the scientific branch and 49% of the literary branch sample. The female proportion in the provincial university, Zagazig, was lower than that of the university of Egypt's capital: the proportion of women in the sample of the scientific branch was 20%. In the literary branch the proportion of women was approximately 38% and they constituted approximately 29% of the whole sample of Zagazig University. In conformity with the Egyptian system of admission to universities, there is no kind of discrimination between women and men in higher education or any other stage. The only faculty, among all the secular universities of Egypt founded especially for

women, is the Girls' Faculty of Ain-Shams University[1]. Nevertheless, there is no university faculty for men only. The reason for this is simply that some families prefer to send their daughters to a separate faculty rather than a mixed one: it is purely a matter of social tradition[2]. This might explain why the women's numbers in the sample of the provincial university were less than those of Cairo. The attitude towards women's emancipation is much stronger in the urban areas than in the rural[3]. As a matter of fact, for some social reasons, the girls' numbers are less than the boys' in all stages of education in Egypt. This seems true not only for Egyptian society but also in many other countries, both developed and developing[4].

On the other hand, one might ask why women's numbers in faculties such as Arts are much higher than

---

(1) After the establishment of Helwan University in October 1975, some Higher Institutes for women became faculties attached to this university. These segregated faculties are Faculties of Physical Education at Cairo and Alexandria, and a Faculty of Domestic Economics and others. In Cairo University, there is the Nursing Institute, and all these were established for women for a different purpose from that of the Girls' Faculty of Ain-Shams University.

(2) National Commission for UNESCO, The Education of Women in U.A.R. during the 19th and 20th centuries, U.A.R., Cairo, 1970, p. 38.

(3) To shed some light on this point, see, for example, Dodd, P.C., 'Youth and Women's Emancipation in Egypt', in, Landau, J.M., (ed.), Man, State and Society in the Contemporary Middle East, Pall Mall Press, London, 1972, pp. 341-355.

(4) Sharp, S., Just Like a Girl: How Girls Learn To Be Women, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1978 (reprinted), Ch. IV in particular.

those of men; in Ain-Shams there were 17 females and 12 males, and in Zagazig there were 8 females and only 2 males. There is no ready answer to this question even in a different society, in which research findings refer to similar results: 'Women, irrespective of class, tended to read Arts'. The percentage of Arts' women in this survey was 56% compared with 26% of men(1). Once again, the available data which evidences this is the women's numbers in the Faculty of Arts (Ain-Shams) in the academic year 1973/74: the number of women freshers in the first year was 1,343 and the men's number was 785, and the total women's number in the whole four years was 4,568, with 2,921 men(2). Alternatively, the women's number in the Faculty of Engineering for the same year in this university was 231, compared with 924 freshmen. Over the whole five year period, the women's number was 900, and the men's number was 4,855(3).

One of the factual questions was about the students' age in October 1976. The age group of the sample divided into four categories, beginning from 17 upwards. Table XX summarizes the age composition of the sample.

---

(1) Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, p. 29, and also see,
Bourdie, P. and Passeron, J., Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture, translated from the French by Nice, R., SAGE Publications, London, 1977, pp. 76-78.

(2) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics Division, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

(3) Ibid.

TABLE XX

The sample age composition

Branch	17 and over	18 and over	19 and over	20 and over	Total
Sciences	23	55	26	16	120
Arts	14	35	44	27	120
Total	37	90	70	43	240
%	15.7	37.5	29.3	17.9	100

As shown in Table XX, approximately 53% of the sample were in the first two categories, aged 17 and over and under 19. This means that, according to the Egyptian system of education, more than half of the sample did not repeat any year in the pre-university education, while others may have had to enter school quite late or spend one or two years in the previous stages for several reasons. One of the reasons might have been to improve their marks in the General Secondary Certificate examination in order to gain a place in the university. Any student can repeat this examination but only twice. No-one over the age of 19 had any chance for work after school because the students should gain admission to the university in the same year as gaining the General Secondary Certificate.

In 1976, the stages of admission were four, the borderline between the stages being only the total marks in the General Secondary Certificate examination. Table

XXI outlines these stages and the accepted minimum total marks at each stage in both branches: Arts and Sciences, in the academic year 1976/77.

Two questions in the questionnaire (Questions 4 and 13), centred on this point and asked about the students' percentage in the General Secondary Certificate examination and the candidates' stage of admission. Table XXII illustrates the results on this point, showing the distribution of the sample according to the stage of admission by university and branch of study.

As shown in Table XXII, 80.4% of the sample applied in the first and second stages, and only one student in the fourth stage. The percentage in the third stage was less than that in the first two.

Although admission in the first stage was reserved for approximately the highest 20.000 total marks(1), this does not imply that all the candidates of this stage might attain their first choice particularly in the popular faculties, as the following pages clarify(2).

The student's first choice in his application form does not mean that this choice was his own original one when he was in the General Secondary school. His earlier planned future educational career in the secondary

---

(1) Co-ordination Office, The results of the first stage of acceptance in universities, Memorandum for presentation to the Minister of Education, M.S.S., p. 1 (in Arabic).

(2) Helmy, M.K., The System of Universities' Admission, pp. 11-13 (in Arabic),
and,
Appendix VII.

TABLE XXI

The stage of admission and the minimum total marks accepted in each stage (1976/77)

No.	Stage	Arts		Sciences	
		Marks	%	Marks	%
1	The minimum marks for the 1st stage	185	66	295	79.8
2	The minimum marks for the 2nd stage	158	56.4	244	65.9
3	The minimum marks for the 3rd stage	145	51.8	204	55.1
4	The minimum marks for the 4th stage	140	50	185	50
	Total marks of the G.S.C.	280	100%	370	100%

TABLE XXII

The distribution of the sample according to the stage of admission by university and branch of study

Stage	Ain-Shams			Zagazig			Total	%
	Arts	Sc.	Total	Arts	Sc.	Total		
1	29	19	48	21	11	32	80	33.3
2	20	30	50	34	29	63	113	47.1
3	11	11	22	5	19	24	46	19.2
4	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	0.4
Total	60	60	120	60	60	120	240	100%

school may change completely after the General Secondary examination result. This change of priority may also be to comply with his or her total marks and the demands for certain faculties according to the limitation of available places. Furthermore, the candidate might write his modified first choice but he can offer any other one of thirty-two choices in the Co-ordination Office form of application. To explore this matter, the questionnaire contained a question (Question 6) asking about this particular point and others related to examine the relation between the student's choice and his actual placement in the university at the end of the admission process. Two-hundred and twenty-two answered 'Yes' to the following question: 'Before choosing a certain specialization in the Secondary School, did you wish to enter a certain faculty?'. This means that 92.5% of the sample had set their minds on having a university education and, presumably, had decided on the type of job they would like afterwards. The student's path to his future career started when he joined the General Secondary school and usually he wanted a university education and a particular occupational career. Eighteen students, or 7.5% of the sample, went to the secondary school and had chosen a certain branch without a clear further education plan.

An enquiry might be raised at this point as to whether a student's choice in secondary education implied a future career also. As mentioned earlier, the Egyptian

Government offers a job to each graduate[1]. However, the graduates of practical or applied faculties, such as Medicine or Pharmacy, etc., are offered jobs related to their degrees and specializations. Graduates from these faculties also have the opportunity of gaining good salaries (more than the graduates from faculties of Arts or Sciences, for example), as well as the opportunity of working in their own surgeries or pharmacies and the like[2]. In a research carried out on the courses among the university students in Egypt (1966), the findings indicated that the students in the Faculty of Engineering chose this because it gave them a well paid future career and also good prestige in society[3]. As the Robbins Report on Higher Education (1963) pointed out for the United Kingdom: 'it is not easy to find a man who had studied for three years without aiming at pay'[4]. But it is four years in Egyptian universities and more in some faculties, such as Medicine and Engineering.

---

(1) See this thesis, Chapter III, pp. 82-83.

(2) Institute of National Planning, Research Project on Employment and Unemployment Among the Educated, Final Report, I.N.P., with the co-operation and sponsorship of the I.L.O., Cairo, N.D., p. 99.

(3) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, p. 31.

(4) Robbins, Lord, Higher Education, Report of the Committee appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins, H.M.S.O., London, 1963, p. 6.

It is interesting to follow the sample to see how many students gained their first secondary school choice of future faculty. As mentioned previously, Question 6 of the questionnaire asked the students whether or not they wanted to join a certain faculty before their choice of branch of study in General Secondary school. If the response to this question was 'Yes', then Question 7 asked 'What was this faculty?'. Table XXIII indicates the most popular faculties amongst the sample, and the numbers of students who obtained their earlier choice in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities.

Accordingly, 62 out of 218 respondents (or 28%) gained their earlier choice which they had made in the secondary school. One-hundred and fifty-six of these respondents gained a university place but in another faculty, in which they are currently carrying out their course of study. In fact, one may say that this earlier choice is a premature choice, and that it is unfair to say that many students failed to attain this choice. Although this is true, we can say that the student himself has chosen his branch of study out of the motivation of going to a particular faculty.

Moreover, Table XXIII has shown the most popular faculties among the students of the sample at an early stage in their General Secondary education. The students' choice at that time depended to a large extent upon several factors. The most important factor is the social

TABLE XXIII

The most popular faculties among the sample and the number of students who obtained their earlier choice in the two universities

Faculty	Earlier choice	Students who obtained their earlier choice	Faculty	Earlier choice	Students who obtained their earlier choice
Engineering	50	6	Military Academy	3	-
Medicine	31	9	Veterinary Medicine	2	1
Mass Communication	30	-	Archaeology	2	-
Education	21	17	Physical Education	2	-
Arts	16	13	Girls'	1	1
Police Academy	14	-	Air Force	1	-
Commerce	13	7	Dentistry	1	-
Pharmacy	9	-	Fine Arts	1	-
Economics	6	-	Navy	1	-
Law	6	4	Sciences	1	-
Languages	4	3			
Agriculture	3	1			
Total	203	60	Total	15	2

(or popular) reputation of the faculty and the future career after graduation in particular. The consumer demand, or the pressures of student demand, for such faculties in the light of the available places, determines the total marks of each faculty. The most popular faculties therefore, according to the sample result, when the students were at the crossroads of their secondary school education, were Engineering and Medicine. These two faculties are for students from scientific branches only. Eighty-one of the respondents from the scientific branch sample (120) requested to join both of these faculties, but only 15 fulfilled this early desire. Although faculties such as Mass Communication and Journalism and the Police Academy(1) were amongst the most popular, not one of the 44 respondents secured a place there. On the other hand, a high proportion of the sample who wanted to join such faculties as Education, Arts and Law were awarded places there. This might be due to the factor which affected the situation in general, i.e. the demand for such faculties which in turn decides the total marks for each faculty in the Egyptian universities.

Students' attitudes in Egypt, therefore, are a major factor in their orientation to the educational system and a strong force in their choice of course of study which changes from period to period. In the view

---

(1) The Police Academy is a non-university higher institute for men only.

of some,

> 'the study of law has traditionally attracted the largest number of students, primarily because it has provided the best avenue to the higher civil service positions and because it has been considered good preparation for the kind of political activities which were becoming increasingly important with the rise of nationalist aspirations'(1)

For those who did not desire a political or governmental post, legal training afforded the best way to an independent business. The study of commerce and arts were the most attractive fields of study after law. In the 1950s heavy admission pressures were exerted on the Faculties of Pharmacy and Medicine, but these pressures at the end of the 1950s and the beginning of the 1960s, had shifted to the Faculty of Engineering(2). In Bidair's research the most wanted faculties, according to her fieldwork results among the sample, were: Medicine, Engineering, Arts, Economics and Political Sciences, Commerce, Pharmacy, Law, Sciences, Military faculties, Physical Education, Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine and Dentistry(3).

According to the findings of this present research, (as illustrated in Table XXIII), the most popular faculties amongst the sample were Engineering, Medicine,

---

(1) Harbison, F. and Ibrahim, I.A., Human Resources for Egyptian Enterprise, p. 115.

(2) El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO, Access to Higher Education, Vol. II, p. 453.

(3) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, pp. 28-29.

Mass Communication and Journalism, Education, etc. In fact, nowadays the Faculty of Medicine attracts the highest total marks of the successful students in the General Secondary Certificate. According to the sample, all the students who joined the Faculty of Medicine had a percentage of over 90% of the total marks; there were 14 students in both faculties of Medicine, 7 of these had over 95% of the total marks. On the other hand, in the Faculty of Education, for example, in both universities, the students' percentages varied and were lower than faculties such as Medicine(1). Tables XXIV(a) and XXIV(b) show the distribution of the sample according to their percentage in the General Secondary Certificate by faculty and by sex in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities.

It is clear from these two tables that the faculties of Medicine attracted the highest total marks, Pharmacy and Engineering, also, only accepted the students above 80%. On the other hand, the faculties of Law, Arts and Education accepted students under 65% mainly from the literary branch students, where total marks are usually lower than the scientific branch(2). Some faculties are in between. Approximately 52.5% of Ain-Shams sample went

---

(1) See Appendices IV and V, Distribution of the sample according to total mark percentage by branch of study and by faculty at Ain-Shams University and Zagazig University.

(2) Ibid.

TABLE XXIV(a)

The distribution of Ain-Shams University sample according to their percentage by faculty and by sex

%	Arts		Agric.		Comm.		Educ.		Engin.		Girls'		Law		Langs.		Medic.		Sci.		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
85-100		1						1	5			1					6	2	1		17
65- 85		9	9	1	10	7	5	3	4	1		3	2	1	3	4			3	1	66
50- 65	12	7					4					4	8	1							36

Missing case: one in the Faculty of Commerce

TABLE XXIV(b)

The distribution of Zagazig University sample according to their percentage by faculty and by sex

%	Arts		Agric.		Comm.		Educ.		Law		Medic.		Pharm.		Veter.		Sc.		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
85-100											5	1	3	1					10
65- 85	1	6	6	1	21	9	6	2	1	1					5	1	4	1	68
50- 65	2	2	5	2	7		8	3	8	5								1	42

to faculties such as Commerce, Law, Arts, Education and Agriculture. In contrast, 14% of its sample attained more than 85% in their total marks and went to faculties according to their wishes. In Zagazig University approximately 8% of the sample attained more than 85% of the total marks, so they joined faculties such as Medicine and Pharmacy. No one who obtained 85% went to the Faculty of Agriculture, for example; very few of this category from Ain-Shams went to faculties such as the Sciences and Education, and those two students who did explained their reasons to the researcher. The freshman of Sciences wanted to go to the Faculty of Engineering initially because he desired to read Mathematics. Failing this, he chose the Mathematics Department in the Faculty of Sciences, where he is currently studying. The other girl in the Faculty of Education of Ain-Shams, wished to read Mathematics but could not as her family was unable to afford to send her to the Faculty of Engineering. She decided, therefore, to join the Department of Mathematics in the Faculty of Education, because this faculty gave her a grant, which is awarded to each student who joins the faculty with total marks above 70%. In this case it was a matter of finance.

As the admission process itself is divided into four stages, one might ask to what extent does this pre-General Secondary examination choice become true when referred to these stages. It is becoming obvious now that the chance

of gaining a place in such a faculty according to the stages of admission will become less and less in each one. It is difficult enough to gain this choice in the first stage. The next summary table (Table XXV) illustrates the relation between the stages of admission and the earlier choice before the General Secondary examination in both universities by branch of study.

TABLE XXV

The relation between the stages of admission and the pre-General Secondary examination desire to join a particular faculty in the two universities by branch of study

Stage	Total number accepted in each stage	Number of students who gained their earlier choice in SCIENTIFIC branch	Number of students who gained their earlier choice in LITERARY branch	Total	% of those who gained their earlier choice against the number entered in the stage
1	80	18	18	36	45%
2	113	5	19	24	21%
3	46	-	4	4	8.5%
4	1	-	-	-	

As shown in the above table, the proportion of those gaining their earlier choice made in the secondary school before the General Secondary examination was higher in the first stage than in the second stage, etc.

In a system dependent upon an open high competition to win a place in university education, no student of the sample refused the place offered in a faculty, whether it was his first choice, his last choice, or whether he had never thought about it before gaining his total mark. This means that any place in university, for the majority, is acceptable, so it is not a matter only of a certain faculty or course of study, but it is any place whatsoever, which can give the young man or woman not only a future job but also fulfil his desire for more education at university standard.

In Egypt, students are not allocated for university education, but for entry to a specific faculty. Decisions over transfer from secondary education to degree courses take place in the transition period itself, i.e. in the same year as gaining the Certificate of General Secondary Education, or in the vacation after the declaration of the results of this examination before the beginning of the new academic year. In spite of this, the process of transferring from secondary school to degree courses is only one factor - though an important one - in the whole system of deciding and legitimizing occupational and status differentiation: a system embracing a multiplicity of persons and institutions at their various stages. Many contributions to the decision of choice of faculty have been made before the point of faculty entrance is reached: the students themselves have played their part

through the aspirations and self-images they have acquired; parents and teachers by their ways of perceiving and defining children's characters and abilities; schools by their activities, and several other influences.

Accordingly, Question 8 asked what influenced students in their earlier choice of faculty at General Secondary school. Table XXVI summarizes the students' reasons.

TABLE XXVI

What influenced the samples in their earlier choice of faculty at the secondary school

No.	Reasons	Frequencies
1	Desire to join a particular faculty	170
2	Interest in specific subject	169
3	My parents' wish	33
4	Marks in first year at General Secondary school	33
5	Admiration of particular teacher	30
6	To use my talent	3

Desire to join a particular faculty and interest in specific subject were the most common reasons influencing the students in their choice of specialization. Although parents' wishes do not rate highly in this matter, one cannot separate the student from his own family. The parents' attitudes and the whole social environment around the young students is a kind of hidden force, and, in fact,

the choice of future educational plan does seem to be affected and directed by external pressures. It might be possible to say that many students, for reasons other than those expressed here, have been affected in their choice by their parents or they have chosen a certain specialization to fulfil others' expectations(1). But, as is clear from the previous table, the most frequently given reason was 'Desire to join a particular faculty', so most students seemed to have worked unquestioningly for a special faculty and accordingly for a university place from the age when they began to think about their future.

Usually at the age of 16 the students have to choose a branch of study (i.e. in their last two years in the General Secondary school). The marks in their first year, therefore, might have their own effect in an indirect way. For example, if the student attained a high standard in Mathematics, this would show, in a sense, his desire to study a specific subject. In fact, the motives of the students and their purposes alone are not enough to direct them towards further education which depends upon qualifications rather than purpose(2). However, part of this qualification depends upon the student's choice and might be others' expectations at this stage of the Egyptian system of education.

---

(1) See analysis of Questions 9 and 10.

(2) Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, p. 14.

One of the important reasons for carrying out this questionnaire was to investigate what role this school plays in the guidance of its students' choice of their future, or whether it has any role to play at all. In fact, from the previous table, we can assess to what extent the teachers motivated their students. Relatively few respondents showed that admiration for a teacher affected their choice. This is, however, an indirect way of seeing the relation between the teachers and their students in that critical period. The following question (Question 9) asked the sample about this point from a different angle. If we agree that the secondary school period of study is formative in influencing the student's choice of which direction he or she is to follow, this might suggest that a system of guidance or career advisory centres would be very useful. Specialist periodicals or publications are important to throw light upon the student's future, but these are not enough without someone, or a programme of guidance, to help the student in his decision about the future educational plans and careers. Here, the teacher's role is important but is not enough as the only element in the process. In consequence of the Egyptian situation, the teacher is weighed down by his different duties and is thus unprepared for this purpose. Every student knows that the sole criterion of acceptance in university is the total mark. Most students have an idea of the geographical basis and are aware, also, that they will continue to live with their families.

Again we return with the question, from where do the students get their information about university education, in a system of education practised in a school without a careers advisory system or any kind of guidance.

For the further investigation of this point, two questions (Questions 9 and 10) were prepared and included in the questionnaire. Question 9 was: 'Before joining the university, was all your information about university education and various faculties taken from the booklet distributed through the Co-ordination Office?'. The response here would be either 'Yes' or 'No'. One-hundred and two respondents replied in the affirmative. This means that 42.5% of the sample gained their information about faculties and their requirements from the booklet distributed through the Office and delivered only with the application form at the same stage of admission (one copy for each applicant). One-hundred and thirty-eight, or 57.5%, of the respondents answered 'No' to this question. This indicated that 57.5% of the sample gained their information or details about universities and faculties through different sources. In fact, Question 10 asked the students who replied 'No' to state their sources. The reason behind this is to illustrate the role of the secondary school in this matter and at the time of the student's decision. Most of the respondents stated more than one source, as Table XXVII indicates.

TABLE XXVII

Students' sources of information in choosing among faculties or subjects

No.	Sources of Information	Frequencies
1	Relatives, friends and teachers	119
2	Printed	21
3	Mass communication, radio, T.V., etc.	2

The responses are divided into three categories as shown in the above table. Usually the student mentioned that his family and relatives were the main source of information, e.g. parents, older sisters and brothers, who had been to university before them. This, to some extent, means, as pointed out previously, that parents and the environment play a part in the student's choice. Friends also play a role. Some of the respondents mentioned that their friends had given guidance in this matter. Teachers in the students' lives were one of the sources, not as a part of their work in school or as part of the school system, but according to their personal relationship with their students inside and outside the classroom. The frequency of this item shows this to be the most consistent source of information. The other two items, one of which is printed matter such as newspapers and magazines, were relatively minor sources compared with the previous item. Two respondents only mentioned the media as one of their sources of information. To explain

how this type of mass media could play a part, it is necessary to mention, for example, that the results of the General Secondary examination for the year 1977 were declared initially on the evening news at 11.00 p.m. on 29 August 1977, together with the names of the first students in each branch, their total marks and the percentages of the successful students, etc. The beginning of the stages and the minimum total marks accepted were announced, also, on the news broadcast. It is not a programme organized through the press or mass communication as might be expected, but rather just scattered information, quick reports or articles.

This means that the secondary school does not play a real part in this important stage of its students' lives and the lack of organized systems of guidance at this period occasionally made the students dependent upon the experience and viewpoints of others on the matter or the expectations of other students. Usually, the students had only a general idea of the different faculties and departments, but no details about the other aspects of the academic life. Although it is clear that the General Secondary school is the sure way to university, and the university students came from the General Secondary school, in practice there is no relation between them in this particular matter.

Moreover, the only way for the university to gain its new students is through an impersonal process via the Co-ordination Office, with its role of allocation and

distribution. This means that the university has no part to play before the reception of freshers.

One of the basic elements in the distribution of students is the place of living(1). This geographical basis might seem odd to those who live in a different country, or are familiar with the academic tradition, but in relation to the social life and economic situation in Egypt for Egyptian students, it is not very difficult to understand. To elaborate on this point, the questionnaire contained two questions (Questions 11 and 12). The first question was designed to discover how many students of the sample live with their families. It was established that 207 students (or 86.2%) of the two universities' sample lived with their families. Only 33 students (or 13.7%) lived away from their families. However, at first glance, it is noticeable that most of the sample live with their families, but is there any difference between the two universities, at Cairo and the provincial one at Zagazig? Table XXVIII shows the evidence statistically.

TABLE XXVIII

The effect of geographical distribution

University	Staying with family	%	Away from family	%
Ain-Shams	108	90	12	10
Zagazig	99	82.5	21	17.5

(1) See Ch. IV of this thesis, pp. 142-143.

From the above table, one might assume that the Co-ordination Office was successful in its system of geographical distribution: 90% of Ain-Shams University sample live with their families and only 10% come from different parts of Egypt according to their wishes. As the previous chapter indicated on this point, the candidate has the right to join a particular faculty out of his university region in the event of gaining a lower total mark than that acceptable to the faculty but which a similar faculty in another university would accept. He is able to gain a place if he has written to this other university in his application form. Sometimes the student's province has no university, so he must then join the nearest one, and this means living away from the family. The proportion of students who live away from their families is higher in Zagazig University because not all of its students come from Zagazig city itself, but from the surrounding cities and villages. Moreover, from the non-university provinces, it may be difficult for them to travel every day - perhaps from a remote area - and for this reason they prefer to live away from their families and near the university, even if it is in the same province.

The next question here would appropriately be, how many of those students who remained with their families were influenced, for this reason, in their choice of faculty? The answer to this question showed that 82 (or

34.2%) of these students were influenced in their choice to stay near home and 157 (or 65.4%) had chosen to stay with their families of their own free will. There was only one abstention. Before analysing these numbers and their implications, it is worthwhile examining them and their distribution by sex and place of university. In other words, we should ask whether the choice of faculty was influenced by residence with the student's family. Table XXIX illustrates the answers.

The total number of non-influenced female students is 50 (their percentage to the total female number is 60.2%). The total of non-influenced male students is 107 (their percentage to the total male number is 68.1%). It seems apparent from the above table that the percentage of non-influenced male students is equal between the two university samples, as it is 68.2% in Zagazig and 68.1% in Ain-Shams. The percentage of non-influenced female students in Ain-Shams University, however, is much higher than that of Zagazig University. The non-influenced female students in Ain-Shams is 72.3% of the total number of females compared with 27.7% influenced in the same university. To compare these percentages with the Zagazig University sample, the above numbers show that the non-influenced female percentage is 45.7% in contrast with 54.7% of females influenced in their choice to stay with their families.

TABLE XXIX

'Was the students' choice of faculty influenced by staying away or remaining with their families?'

The distribution of the students by status and sex in the two universities

Ain-Shams						Zagazig					
Total		No influence		Influenced		Total		No influence		Influenced	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
72	48	49	34	23	13	85	35	58	16	27	19
60.5%	39.5%	68.1%	72.3%	31.9%	27.7%	70.8%	29.2%	68.2%	45.7%	31.8%	54.3%

It is the social factor which explains this difference between the women under influence in Zagazig and Ain-Shams. Usually, in the countryside regions, tradition is much stronger than in the urban areas. The families prefer to keep the female members of the family under their care and protection. The close relationship between the family members, and the expanded family too, is a strong and clear feature of social life in Egypt. An independent life, away from the family, for young men or women before marriage, is considered undesirable. The standard of education itself is higher in urban than in rural areas(1) which might affect the attitude towards the emancipation of women. It is more apparent in the large cities than in the countryside and the remote areas. From our own sample

---

(1) For example, in one of the Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics publications, it is stated:
'it is evident that the rate of education in urban societies is higher than its counterpart in rural societies. The rate of education in urban districts reached 48% in the Census of 1960 and 54.3% in 1966, males 32% and 35.125% and females 16% and 19.2% in 1960 and 1966 Censuses respectively, while it reached 20% in rural areas, males 16% and females 4% only.'
Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics: Population and Development, Cairo, June 1973, pp. 204-5,
and for the results of the 1976 Census, see the Introduction of this thesis, Table II.

population, it is noticeable that the female numbers in Ain-Shams University represent a higher percentage compared with the male numbers, which were 39.5% as against 29.8% in Zagazig University. In addition, there is also the shortage of residential hall facilities for both sexes as mentioned in the previous chapter. In Egypt, a man has much more freedom to live with a group of his friends or colleagues or even alone, but it is difficult for a woman to find suitable accommodation if she fails to live in the university residential hall or with relatives.

Hence the question may be raised as to whether equality of opportunity should simply mean providing a university education for students from all backgrounds. The Robbins Report draws our attention to an important factor relating to this concept when it states that the idea of equality of opportunity does not merely mean providing an atmosphere in the institutions in which the students live and work, with influences that, in some measure, compensate for any inequalities of home background(1).

One might ask if the social factor explains the cause of women being influenced, then what was it that influenced men in a country where there is lack of financial support and where students have to depend upon their families until they have gained a degree, and where there is no opportunity for employment during vacations.

---

(1) Robbins, Lord, Higher Education, p. 7.

Hence, from the economic viewpoint, it is reasonable to consider firstly whether or not the family can afford to send their son or daughter to university in another city. This, combined with the high cost of living in large capital cities, encourages the students (both men and women) to live voluntarily with their families. In a research carried out in the United Kingdom regarding student housing, the researcher pointed out that,

> 'there is reason to believe that a home based policy, whether it attempts to constrain or merely encourage students to live at home, is likely to have most impact upon the educational choices and opportunities of students from working class and less prosperous homes. On the other hand, students with private means are less likely to be affected by any of the measures'(1)

However, university life in Egypt, because of this, remains for most, if not all, students membership of a day-time community only. The intellectual approach of university education is the important aspect of the student's academic life. In turn, the Government attitude to the decentralization of university education is that it is obviously the most economical way of providing residential accommodation since it saves the authorities all the capital and recurrent expenses of hostel provision.

The difficulties of providing sufficient housing for all the students who require it, or all the accepted students, might be similar in many countries, both developed and developing, but the attitude of the students

---

(1) Higher Education and Student Housing, A report of research undertaken in the Centre for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Kent, p. 266.

and the university authorities is different. In the United Kingdom - at least in Cambridge, Oxford and Durham - residence in college, or in an extension of the college into lodgings, is obligatory. The belief is that the essential intellectual life of the university lies within its residential colleges and halls, since,

> 'higher education is principally concerned with the conservation and transmission of academic standards and cultural values'(1)

If properly structured, residence is thus valuable as,

> 'teaching, tutorials and the work of research fellows is carried on in a strongly corporate society of teachers and scholars living and sharing their daily life together'(2)

The colleges and halls of residence, accordingly, are the most effective agencies in the process of educating the young generations and they bring them into close contact with the 'more mature minds' of the academic community(3). At the same time, the view of many students in the United Kingdom, also, is that they would always prefer to live away from home and they regard living with their families as the least attractive form of accommodation(4). They are conscious of the need to secure some measure of independence

---

(1) U.G.C., Report of the Sub-Committee on Halls of Residence, under the Chairmanship of Professor Niblett, W.R., H.M.S.O., London, 1957, p. 2.

(2) Fletcher, B., Universities in the Modern World, p. 62.

(3) U.G.C., Report of the Sub-Committee on Halls of Residence, p. 12.

(4) Brothers, J. and Hatch, S., Residence and Student Life, A sociological inquiry into Residence in Higher Education, Tavistock Publications, London, 1971, pp. 313-323.

from the family to develop in character and also to enjoy the opportunities of university social life, where they can meet and talk spontaneously, whatever their background or intellectual interest(1). Needless to say, among the university students we can find those who had no desire at all to leave home(2).

From the above discussion and according to the Egyptian situation, this research suggests that it is misleading to view the problem of housing and student accommodation simply in terms of educational policy and using non-academic factors to impose more restrictions on the students' freedom of choice as it has been suggested recently in Egypt(3). It seems that the provincial restriction will not reduce the student numbers who seek a place in university or a particular faculty. The proportion of non-influenced students is higher than the influenced students (which represented approximately 65.4%), which indicates that a place in any university is desirable, wherever the location and whatever the difficulties which may face the young men or women. Moving on to consider Questions 15 and 16 (which are related to the previous analysis), we find that Question 15 asked

---

(1) Morris, R.N., The Sixth Form and College Entrance, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1969, p. 14,
and,
Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, p. 126.

(2) Higher Education and Student Housing, A report of research undertaken in the Centre for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Kent, p. 238.

(3) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 2 June 1978, p. 5,
and also see,
Ch. IV of this thesis, pp. 142-143.

whether the university at which the students are currently attending was their first choice, or whether the candidates went to these two universities according to the geographical distribution, to be near home and also on account of their total marks. In Ain-Shams University, 64 students of the sample replied 'Yes' to this question, indicating that they had wanted to join this university, and 56 replied 'No'. This means that this university was not the favourite one for 46.7% of its sample. Zagazig University was not very different, in that 61 replied 'Yes' to the question and 59 replied 'No', i.e. 49.2% of the sample would have preferred another university. Table XXX illustrates the results of an enquiry of those students who replied in the negative as to which university they would have preferred.

TABLE XXX

The number of Ain-Shams and Zagazig University students who had wanted to join another university and the most popular university among those students

Total Respondents	Missing Cases	University	Frequency	%
115	8	Cairo	84	73
		Alexandria	8	7
		Military Faculties (non-university institutes)	4	3.5
		Mansura	3	2.6
		Asyut	3	2.6
		Ain-Shams	2	1.7
		Tanta	2	1.7
		Helwan	1	0.9

It is clear that Cairo University is at the top of the list of preferred faculties. Cairo University, as the oldest secular university in Egypt, has high prestige among the students and society also. In fact, it may be said to enjoy the prestige of Oxbridge in England, twenty years ago, in that it is the focus of most students' hopes.

One of the most important reasons for setting up this inquiry was to follow up the students' wishes in the area of choice, not only of universities but also of different faculties. There are, in addition, other important questions: in view of the Egyptian situation and the system of admission to universities, the issue here is not so much a question of whether one wishes to go to university but whether one wishes to go to a particular faculty or course of study. As mentioned earlier, the choice changes from period to period in the student's life. Table XXV, however, illustrated how many students obtained their choice according to their stages, branch of study and their proportion to the total number of the sample. This was not more than 64 students (or 26.6%) who fulfilled their desire to enter a particular faculty. The assumption here is that although the applicant may not gain his own original choice of faculty, he will accept another faculty, feeling that he must choose a university education so long as it is open to him. The concern of Question 14 is to show how many candidates changed their original choice after they knew their total mark, and how they modified their choice according to

their stage of admission. The candidates who changed their choice to fit their real situation numbered 111 (or approximately 46.25% of the sample). 129 candidates insisted on their choice and did not change it from before the result of the General Secondary examination (i.e. 53.75% of the sample). In fact, most of these students did not want the top faculties such as Medicine or Mass Communication and Journalism. Some of them wanted a non-university institute such as the Police or Military Academy, but they still retained their right of admission to university and when they missed the chance, they joined the substitute faculties. Table XXXI shows the number of students who insisted upon their original choice and their desired faculties after the General Secondary examination result. The table illustrates both the students who did not change their choices and did not attain them, and the students who changed their choices in the light of the new situation but who, in spite of this, did not attain their modified choice.

In observing the number of those students who insisted upon their original choice, i.e. 128 candidates, the research supposed that they had some reason for their expectation, that their total mark in the light of others, allowed them, in their view, to gain their choice, although no-one can predict the fixed total mark for acceptance in each faculty as it is according to the candidate's demand. The addition of one extra mark, therefore, can change the whole situation. The result was that 64 (or 50%) of those

TABLE XXXI

The number of students who did not change their original choice and did not attain it, and those who changed their choice and still did not attain it, by faculty

No.	Faculty	Number of students who insisted upon their choice after the G.S.E. result	Number of students who insisted upon their choice and did not attain it	Number of students who changed their choice and still did not attain it
1	Arts	21	5	-
2	Archaeology	1	1	-
3	Commerce	13	7	1
4	Dentistry	-	-	1
5	Economics	4	4	1
6	Education	13	-	-
7	Engineering	22	16	10
8	Fine Arts	1	1	-
9	Girls'	2	-	-
10	Higher Institute	-	-	1
11	Languages	3	-	-
12	Law	7	1	-
13	Mass Communication	12	12	5
14	Medicine	18	7	3
15	Military Academy	-	-	2
16	Pharmacy	3	3	3
17	Physical Education	1	1	-
18	Police Academy	6	6	1
19	Veterinary Medicine	1	-	-
	Total	128 Missing case 1 (129)	64 Missing case 1 (65)	28

who did not change their choice failed to achieve it. On the contrary, the candidates who changed their original choice were more reasonable in their final choice immediately before admission, and as a result of this self-selection process, only 28 of 111 failed to gain their alternative choice (approximately 22%).

This means that 83 candidates, or 64% of those who changed their original choice to fit the new situation, obtained places in the alternative faculties. The declaration of results and the vacant faculty places and all other elements made the situation clear to the students who could modify their choice in relation to their marks and make a successful, if less desirable, application. To clarify the picture, we can say that 93 students (39%) out of 240 did not fulfil their choices at all: either the original choice before the General Secondary examination result or even the alternative choice at the time of admission. In addition to this, 176 of the sample (or approximately 73%) did not fulfil their pre-General Secondary examination choice and are now attending the university within different faculties. One might say that this earlier choice was one of bright future career possibilities and the fashion of the moment. This is clear in the students' order of most desirable faculties, e.g. Engineering, etc., which occupied top priority. For 93 students (or 39%) any choice eventually lost its meaning and they accepted any place (according to their priority

order in the application form), offered to them in a university. The motivation, therefore, was not a definite course of study or a particular faculty, but it was mostly to gain a place within university education. The reason for saying this is, if those students decided to study a special subject or in a definite faculty, then why are they now in a less favoured faculty and studying different subjects?

In fact, for the General Secondary school leavers themselves, a place in university, as a successive stage, is very important to fulfil their aspirations for more knowledge, or more specialized knowledge. A place in university - anywhere - would also save them from unemployment. This is because the General Secondary school's function is not to train its students for their occupations(1). Accordingly, university education is a chosen instrument to achieve security, and social well-being for whoever has this education, and their families. It is possible to say that a university degree is a useful status symbol, in both the students' and their parents' view.

This leads us directly to Question 17, the main concern of which was what influenced students to get a university education. This question, in fact, has been asked several times in research on Egyptian society and

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council of Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 25 (in Arabic).

in other societies[1]. To help decide the reason a list of eight alternatives was written into the questionnaire, followed by an open question (Question 18), asking the respondent to state his own other reasons, in case he had any different reasons from those listed. Most of the respondents gave more than one appropriate reason. Table XXXII shows the frequency of each reason according to the students' views.

TABLE XXXII

What influenced students to obtain a university education in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities?

No.	What influenced students to obtain a university education?	Frequency
1	Social status	133
2	To gain a university degree	130
3	To seek knowledge for its own sake	101
4	Future career	78
5	Family's wish	38
6	Social life in university	32
7	Nothing else to do	12
8	Never thought about it	4
9	To work in a particular job	2

(1) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt;
El-Zomor, Wafaa, Report on some socio-demographic characteristics of undergraduates in Cairo University, unpublished typed manuscript, Demographic Centre, Cairo, September 1972;
Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education,
Little, G., The University Experience,
and,
Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly, Summer 1972, Vol. 26, pp. 317-331.

From this table, it is noticeable that the sample of students came to university for several reasons. The 133 frequency of the item 'Social status' shows that to be the main reason. Another reason frequently given was 'to gain a university degree' which presents 130 frequencies. In fact, there is a connection between these two reasons in that the university degree allows its holder to gain a white-collar job and so, in the view of many, a good social status. This realization of university education as a pass to life is a rational approach coinciding with the general trend in the society(1). The previous two reasons were followed by: 'To seek knowledge for its own sake', which was given many times. The frequency of 'Future career' was 78, so, primarily, in the Egyptian social concept one comes to university in order to obtain a degree for a better job. The university degree in this respect serves as 'the basis of selection for occupation'(2), or as a basis of differentiation among the labour force and its distribution in the Government Civil Service. Afterwards, it is quite difficult for a person to choose his job or change his career easily; graduates merely accept whatever the Government or other organizations might offer them. However, in practice, when

---

(1) El-Zomor, Wafaa, Report on some socio-demographic characteristics of undergraduates in Cairo University, p. 33.

(2) Hussain, A., 'The relationships between educational qualifications and occupational structure: a re-examination', in, Gleeson, D., (ed.), Identity and Structure: Issues in Sociology of Education, Nafferton Books, England, 1977, pp. 103-111.

several of the students' sample were asked what they understood by the term 'to seek knowledge for its own sake', their replies were that they wanted to know and to learn; they did not want to be ignorant. To be 'educated', therefore, needs a certificate or a degree in the eyes of young Egyptian men and women. Also, as a university degree is usually followed by the Government's responsibility to offer a job, this motive has a different meaning in the Egyptian context than its meaning among, for example, students of the United Kingdom, for whom finding a job is an individual responsibility.

A comparison of these results has been made with another relevant study conducted on a university level, which was carried out at Cairo University in 1966. 'To gain a university degree' was again given as the most popular reason, which represented 33.8%; the second reason being 'To improve my social and financial status', which accounted for 28.55%. This was followed by 'To seek knowledge for its own sake', representing 20.42%. 10.73% of the sample came to university because they 'wanted to carry out scientific research'. 3.10% came to university in accordance with their parents' wishes and some social pressures, and 1.36% of the sample did not know why they had chosen to come to university. Future career did not feature clearly as a reason in the Bidair[1] questionnaire.

---

(1) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, p. 21.

In more recent work, also conducted at Cairo University, a question relating to the motives behind coming to university was raised as an item of the form. According to this researcher's findings:

> 'the major motive stimulating almost all students to join university is to get a degree'(1)

As that research mentioned, Egypt shares the same attitude as other developing countries in valuing people by their degrees not by their merits. Therefore, the importance of a university degree in the Egyptian society is considerable. In fact, it is possible to say that the developing countries are in common with most of the rest of the world in this era, as the university itself is becoming 'compulsory' for many of today's university students, who have few alternatives in the labour market and who are pressured by the social atmosphere(2).

To return to our own research list of reasons, it was realized that some of the respondents may not have come to university on their own initiative, but in fact were influenced by their parents, or the family tradition. This being so, the respondents were asked whether they consciously tried to gain entrance to the university in order to fulfil the expectations of others, and 38 students mentioned 'family's wish' among their reasons.

---

(1) El-Zomor, Wafaa, Report on some socio-demographic characteristics of undergraduates in Cairo University, p. 35.

(2) Corwin, R.G., Education in Crisis, John Wiley, New York, 1974, p. 96.

Thirty-two students counted 'Social life in university' as one of their reasons for going to university. This reason, amongst a group of students in another country and in a different situation where the respondents were from Cambridge, Leeds and Southampton universities, accounted for 3% (Cambridge) and 5% (Leeds and Southampton)(1).

It might be said that social life in Egyptian universities was a feature which attracted 13% of the sample, as being one of their reasons for coming to university. In spite of the fact that the Egyptian university is a day-time community, there is more opportunity of meeting the opposite sex and developing relationships between them than in many institutions of the society. Nevertheless, those first year students who came from the secondary school,where the teacher still controls an essential part of their daily life, find in university life that they make their own decisions as to whatever they wish to do. They have the opportunity, which had previously never been available outside the university campus, to exercise their freedom and activities. As the student is still dependent upon his family for all his financial support, he cannot be completely free from family control or pressures in his social life. The university, from this point of view, is the best place to enjoy social life, as it is away from family dominance.

---

(1) Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, Appendix 3, Table 1, p. 200.

As a result of the previous discussion, the reasons given in Table XXXII may be ordered in a different way in order to fulfil another purpose than simply that of analysis of the findings. The reasons given may be grouped to follow students' responses and to make a distinction between those who chose (a) future career and not knowledge for its own sake; (b) knowledge for its own sake and not future career; (c) both or neither.

Table XXXIII shows this combination, giving the frequencies for each combination by university and by sex.

Accordingly, knowledge for its own sake among the students of Ain-Shams University constitutes a high proportion. If we look at the first two items only as separate purposes, 19 females out of 48 gave knowledge and not future career as their reasons. Two females from the sample of the Faculty of Medicine, for example, mentioned this as one of their motives for coming to university. In contrast, no females mentioned future career as a motive in this faculty, although it is clear that the Faculty of Medicine, in particular, leads to a professional career. This applies, too, to the Faculty of Education, where two females mentioned this as a motive and again no-one mentioned future career. In the Faculty of Engineering, five students out of nine gave knowledge for its own sake and not future career as one of their reasons. Most, if not all, of the students in the Faculties of Medicine and Engineering, gained a total

TABLE XXXIII

Reasons for coming to university, by sex, in both universities, Ain-Shams and Zagazig

Reasons	Ain-Shams			Zagazig			Total
	M	F	Both	M	F	Both	
(a) Future career and not knowledge for its own sake	17 14.1%	13 10.9%	30 25%	24 20%	5 4.2%	29 24.2%	59 24.6%
(b) Knowledge for its own sake and not future career	26 21.7%	19 15.8%	45 37.5%	26 21.7%	11 9.1%	37 30.8%	82 34.2%
(c) Both or neither	30 25%	15 12.5%	45 37.5%	35 29.2%	19 15.8%	54 45%	99 41.2%

mark higher than 80%. In this they exceeded others and were superior in their academic life to some extent. As a result of this, they found their way, via the Co-ordination Office, to these two faculties, because they wished to be educated in the eyes of society, and because of the system of employment which depends upon degrees or paper qualifications for selecting and distributing for jobs. The love of knowledge was, most probably, part of their ambition and may not be knowledge for its own sake. It might be said, as Peterson pointed out, that the students' concept of 'education for its own sake' is not an abstract view, or they did not mean that they wanted a liberal education according to Aristotle's view. But it would be possible, 'to call it an education pursued for the sake of the individual being educated'(1). The student response, as stated above and discussed previously, may reflect, to a large extent, the basic dilemma of university, as Rice put it. This dilemma, in his view, was,

> 'a conflict of values that appear always to accompany the exploitation of scientific discoveries and technological innovations, and those that give highest priority to the life and well-being of individual human beings'(2)

However, it is important to add that the students did not need only to master some branch of knowledge, but

---

(1) Peterson, A.D.C., 'Conclusion', in, Yudkin, M., (ed.), General Education, A symposium on the teaching of non-specialists, Allen Lane, Penguin Press, London, 1969, p. 166.

(2) Rice, A.K., The Modern University: A Model Organization, Tavistock, London, 1970, p. 88 and p. 22.

they wanted it also to satisfy their social being and many other external needs. It is essential to say, in our age, that the utilitarian or practical aspect of education - which enables the students to gain jobs and make a living - should be regarded(1).

In the same university, 30 students out of 120 chose future career and not knowledge for its own sake. The female proportion was quite considerably higher than the male in this context: for the men it represented approximately 11% of their total number as against 16% of the female proportion. The females' reasons of future career were more frequent than the males' by numerical comparison; this may be due to social climate rather than financial reward. Future career might ensure the women's independence and freedom, therefore it is more desired. It seems that most of the sample were not worried about their future careers, but some of them wanted a much brighter future than others, not only by individual merit but also according to the faculty and degree they would gain in the near future. Forty-five of this university sample (or approximately 35%) fell into the third category, which chose either both those motives or neither. Their proportion was quite high, which means that some of them might have felt that they had similar reasons to the previous ones, or might have

---

(1) Martain, J., Education at the Crossroads, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1968 (reprinted), p. 10.

had very different reasons altogether.

In the provincial university, the picture is similar on the whole, but differs in the point of distribution of male and female choices. The highest category here constitutes the students who have chosen both or neither reasons, which represented 45% and was quite similar in both sexes. However, the female students in Zagazig University who gave their reasons as those of future career and not knowledge for its own sake, were fewer in number than the males and fewer also than the Ain-Shams females. This may be due to the fact that women in the provinces are more inferior than their colleagues in urban university by the standard of community living and the way in which they enjoy their social life. A good future career and job prospects are really important in their view, and knowledge for its own sake may also be important. The third category, therefore, is higher in its proportion. The research inclined to this view because the proportion of this single item is higher than the others.

In a study carried out at the University College of Swansea, for example, a list of appropriate 'reasons' why students came to the university were given to a sample of its students. The reasons were grouped under four headings: occupational reasons, intellectual reasons, social reasons and personal reasons. Although the content of the two questionnaires was different in detail, the most important points of comparison here were

between the occupational reasons for coming to the university and the intellectual ones. The final results of this questionnaire are summarized in Table XXXIV.

TABLE XXXIV

A comparison between two reasons for going to university in two different societies (Egypt and Wales)

Swansea sample (U.K.)	%	Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities sample (Egypt)	%
Occupational	35.8	Future career	24.6
Intellectual	17.8	Knowledge for its own sake	34.2

Source:

Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly, Summer 1972, Vol. 26, pp. 317-331.

Accordingly, if we compare between future career and occupational reasons in the sample of Swansea University, it is noticeable that the percentage held by the latter is much higher than the Egyptian sample. On the other hand, the Egyptian students' percentage of knowledge for its own sake is double that of the intellectual reasons of the Swansea sample. As mentioned previously, the Egyptian students are certain of their future career; the only difference between the faculties or the course of study being what type of job the student will obtain at the end of the academic period. Hence, the pressure of future career is less strong and this, in fact, may give

the student full chance to enjoy the acquisition of knowledge as part of the function of university education. In the United Kingdom, however, it is usually an open competition between many different qualified people, and this may cause the undergraduate to take more seriously the question of his future career. This, in fact, was reflected in the students' reasons for coming to university.

It cannot be denied that the research shows that the Egyptian undergraduates were motivated by the love of knowledge, but the concern at this point of analysis is to show that the content of the notion 'knowledge for its own sake' in the Egyptian society is different, to some extent, from its meaning among the United Kingdom undergraduates in particular, and also of many other societies, just as every society is unique in many different circumstances and aspects of life.

The two reasons: 'Nothing else to do' and 'Never thought about it', represented only a very limited number among the students in both universities, Ain-Shams and Zagazig. Twelve students (or 5%) had chosen the first reason and only four (or 1.4%) of the whole sample had chosen the second reason. This means that approximately 6.5% of the sample showed that they were not sure at this stage why they wanted to go to university. This small proportion of undergraduates who were unsure about their purpose at university reflects that about 93.5% of the

sample knew the reasons for their choice of university education - whatever these reasons were. The research suggests that the students in General Secondary school in Egypt mostly bear in mind that the next step waiting for them is university, whatever the faculty and whatever their reasons.

The Co-ordination Office in Egypt has a major part to play in the candidates' directions and, indeed, has the final decision on direction to different faculties and other institutions of higher education, as has been mentioned previously. The questionnaire did not ask the sample about the reason why they were in this faculty, but, instead of this, the question was, 'What influenced you in your initial choice of faculty or subject before you knew the result of the General Secondary examination?'. The question (Question 19) contained eight different reasons, some of which may be adequate, followed by a space to allow respondents to specify any additional reasons they might have had. Most of the students gave more than one reason, the frequencies of which are shown in Table XXXV.

The frequency of some reasons in the table is connected to the result of the previous question. Desire to gain more knowledge in a particular subject was the most popular reason (106 times, or 44% of the sample mentioned this reason). The subject or course of study might not be desired by the graduate or his family only,

TABLE XXXV

What influenced students in their initial choice of faculty or subjects in Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities

No.	Reasons	Frequency
1	Desire to gain more knowledge in a particular subject	106
2	Financial future of its graduates	86
3	Reputation of the faculty or the course	81
4	The nature of study in General Secondary school	77
5	To be like my relatives	41
6	My parents' wish	29
7	To be with my friends	13
8	Admiration of a particular teacher	5
9	Desire to achieve a specific aim	4

but needed by society too, as for example, Medicine, Pharmacy and Engineering. The society's demand for these professions influenced the financial future of its graduates accordingly; this reason was given 86 times (35.8%). Social and academic reputation is attached to the graduate of that faculty's financial future, and this depends upon the degree and the subjects the student studied in his university years. Therefore, 'the reputation of the faculty or the course' was given 81 times (33.75%). The nature of study in the General Secondary school has its role to play in the decisions arena. This represented 77 frequencies (32%). Literary

branch students, in particular, could not join any scientific faculty. On the contrary, the scientific branch students could join literary branch faculties. Usually no one is ready to go to a faculty without a good reason. The most important reason is the students' total marks. The other social reasons for joining a particular faculty were 'To be like my relatives', 'To be with my friends' and 'My parents' wish'. These were given with less frequency but could shed some light on the previous reasons, for instance 'To be like my relatives',41 times (17%), shows how the reputation of the faculty or course is highly influential. It is difficult to make a separation between this good reputation and the admiration of the older generation, which is reflected in the choice 'To be like my relatives'. Parents' ambitions or wishes may follow this line, that the parents' wishes depend upon the reputation of the faculty; perhaps the failure of the parents to join it. Not forgetting their own hopes at the time, they have encouraged their sons or daughters to rectify this failure. In Bidair's research, parents' wishes was one of the main reasons which prevented a number of her student sample from fulfilling its own desire to join a particular faculty. This reason was classified as a social pressure(1). However, this reason was given 29 times (12%). 'To be with friends' was not an important

---

(1) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, pp. 29-30.

factor in the view of the sample; neither was the role of the teacher in the students' life before university. Five students only (2%) had mentioned admiration of their teacher as a reason. As mentioned previously, although the teacher plays a major part in the students' educational life in the secondary school period, he has no real effect on the students' choice of their future course of study. It is worth mentioning that 'Desire to achieve a specific aim' was the least frequently given reason and occurred only four times. One of these aims, to which a student referred, was: 'I have met very bad teachers, so I'd like to be a good teacher in order to help my students after graduation'; it is clear that he was a studnt in the Faculty of Education! One of the female students of the sample said she wanted to be a doctor in order to help her sick mother and to cure her disease, but unfortunately, she was one of the Faculty of Law students in the Zagazig University sample!

These reasons are not the most influential on the students' initial choice of a particular faculty before the General Secondary Certificate examination results. The most important reasons in the sample's view are as follows, in descending order:

1) Desire to gain more knowledge in a particular subject;

2) Financial future of its graduates;

3) Reputation of the faculty or the course;

The result of this question is relevant to the result of Question 6 which asked the students what influenced them in their choice of subject of specialization in the secondary school. The most popular reason was the 'desire to join a faculty', and, more relevant to this point, 'interest in a specific subject'. This correlation might show that the Egyptian student makes his choice initially by his interest in a specific subject and its usefulness to his future career. As a matter of fact, if the student's total marks do not enable him to satisfy his hopes, he will not be defeated, as the Co-ordination Office offers him a place to study for four years to gain the university degree, as other data will show.

The findings do not differ greatly from Bidair's research results in 1966(1). In this fieldwork, the reasons which affected the student's choice to join a particular faculty were given to be:

1) To fulfil his desire and wishes;
2) The student's total marks allowed him to join his faculty only (or in other words, according to his total mark);
3) According to the direction of the Co-ordination Office;
4) The future social status of its graduates;

---

(1) Bidair, Su'ad, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, pp. 23-30.

5) Financial future for its graduates;

6) According to his parents' wishes;

7) Other different reasons;

8) To be like his parents, brothers and sisters;

9) To live with his family.

One of the important results of Bidair's investigation was that the total marks, whether they were high or low, constituted the main reason for joining a particular faculty. For example, if someone wanted to go to the Faculty of Sciences, but he obtained a high total mark, which allowed him to join the Faculty of Engineering, then the family, the social status and financial future of its graduates played very important roles in the final decision(1). In other words, high or low total marks play a major part in the fate of a student as they may prevent, allow or even create another influence to interact at the time of decision.

Those students who wanted to join a different faculty for whatever reason, had their own recent experience with the Co-ordination Office, in connection with their total marks. The question put to them was: 'Do you think that relying only upon the total marks is an accurate criterion for acceptance in the different faculties?'. The choice of answer in this case was either 'Yes' or 'No'. The student was invited to specify

---

(1) Bidair, Su'ād, Evaluation of the recent admission system to the universities in Egypt, p. 26.

his reason if his answer was 'No' (Questions 20 and 21). Fifty students (20.8% of the sample) agreed that it was an accurate criterion. However, 190 students (79.2%) answered 'No'. Many of these students gave more than one reason for their answers. Table XXXV summarizes the reasons and their percentages.

TABLE XXXV

Why relying upon the total marks is not an accurate criterion for acceptance in the faculties

No.	Reasons	Frequency	%
1	This system is an impediment on the student and his own desire to join a particular faculty	83	43
2	The total marks reflect only the student's achievement therefore they do not measure any attitudes, interests, skills and ways of thinking which are important as well	61	32
3	The G.S.C. and the total marks in turn ignore the student's achievement during the whole academic year	59	31
4	The nature of study in the secondary school is different from the nature of study in the university	17	9
5	Acceptance in a particular faculty should depend on some subject related to the nature of studying in this faculty	3	1.5

According to the above results, one might say that although the current system of admission to the Egyptian universities ensures equality between the whole body of the students, in the view of the students themselves it is not an accurate criterion for acceptance into the different faculties of the universities. Several reasons were given to explain the students' point of view. Firstly, that the candidate, after the process of admission, might find himself in a different faculty from his desired one. This might affect the student's academic performance in the course of study, or his academic life in general. This reason was the most common and was given 83 times, or by 43.5% of this question's respondents.

The student's total marks in the General Secondary examination reflect only the student's achievement in this examination. Therefore, they do not measure any other important aspects such as the student's attitudes, interests, skills and ways of thinking, which are also important in academic life. This reason was given 61 times (32%).

More related to this was the reason which was given 59 times (approximately 31%), which pointed to the fact that the total marks were the only criterion for access to faculties and, in consequence, the future job and social status. As a result of this, together with the other expectations of the students, they were worried and

anxious, and this emotional pressure affected, in their view, their result in the final examination, which ignores the students' achievements during the whole academic year. Not only this, but sometimes the students' final results are affected by sudden or unexpected circumstances in the examination period. It cannot, therefore, be an accurate criterion.

Another group of respondents answered that the nature of study in General Secondary school is different from the nature of study in university. Accordingly, the total marks in the final examination of General Secondary Certificate do not forecast the students' success in education at a university. Hence, dependency on the total mark is not an accurate criterion for acceptance. The frequency of this reason was not very high; the number being 17 (9%).

Related to this is the final reason, which occurred only 3 times (1.5%). The respondents completed the previous point and proposed that the acceptance system in a particular faculty should depend upon subjects related to the nature of study in this faculty. This means that the total marks are not sufficient as an accurate and sole basis for acceptance into the different faculties.

As a result of the above, the student sample did not accept the total marks as the only means of gaining a place in the different faculties of the universities.

At this point one might ask the question, if those students were offered a well-paid job instead of gaining a place in a less desirable faculty or a university degree at all, would they accept it? If they want to gain the university degree rather than financial reward, is that because they seek knowledge for its own sake, as the responses to Question 14 seemed to reflect, or was it because of the social status of the job which depended, to a large extent, upon the university degree? Many other questions may arise at this point.

Fifty-four students (22.5%) of the sample would accept a well-paid job without a university degree; 8 of those students were women (i.e. approximately 14% of this group). On the contrary, 186 out of 240 (77.5%) respondents refused to take a well-paid job without a university degree, if given the opportunity. Many reasons were given by those students to explain their points of view, and these reasons are summarized in Table XXXVI which also shows the distribution of the responses according to sex.

Some of the respondents gave more than one reason for their choice. Their views on this point are reconcilable with the strong motivation to be an educated person. Money without education, on the whole, is undesirable to those graduates, 37 of whom were female (approximately 31.7%) and 80 of whom were male (68.3%). This reason was the most commonly expressed. This might imply that the Egyptian undergraduates were enthusiastic

TABLE XXXVI

Why the students of the sample in both universities refused to get a well-paid job without a university degree

No.	Reasons	Female	Male	Total	%
1	Money without knowledge and education, on the whole, is useless	37	80	117	70
2	The holder of a university degree is more respected in society	30	36	66	35
3	The standard of jobs for the university graduate is better than its standard for the non-university certificate. Accordingly financial considerations are not everything	5	9	14	7.5
4	Desire combined between getting a job and completing university education	3	1	4	2

for intellectual pursuits. This idealistic reason is also indicative of the attitude of the respondents, that the holder of a university degree is more respected in society. It is the social status or public appreciation of the university degree and university graduates, which counts; the proportion of female respondents was 45.5%, while the male proportion was 54.6%.

The female proportion is quite high, indicating that women, as much as men, regard a university degree as a means of self-respect and of appreciation by society. A university degree is a means towards earning money from a secure job and this ensures a woman's freedom and independence. This group of the sample may not be as interested in the academic subject, but they are not concerned only with the degree as a 'meal ticket'. However, some of the respondents regarded university as a career investment, and although this is a comparatively minor reason, it sheds some light on the relation between the degree and the future career. Fourteen students, five of whom were female, mentioned that the standard of jobs for a university degree holder was better than the standard of jobs for non-university certificate holders. According to this view, fourteen students of the sample were narrowly concerned with qualifying for a job, but it would seem, therefore, that financial matters do not seem to be the main pre-occupation.

A very small proportion mentioned the combined desire to gain a job and complete university education. There were four respondents, three of whom were female, and both these options were important in their view.

All the first three categories of respondents laid emphasis on the social status of the university degree and its effect on future career and social attitude.

Money is not the dominant reason for seeking a university degree, but rather it is the degree which is considered as an official certificate of these male or female students' experience of university education. With regard to the Egyptian situation, where more than half of the population is illiterate, it is possible to say that the university is a means by which to improve one's social standing. Some students regard a university degree as a guarantee against insecurity or a drop in social status, and for others it is a means of social improvement. No-one can say that university education is important only for young people who come from an uneducated background, as it is perhaps more important for the new generation of the highly educated families.

In Egypt, as in many other countries, there are important social factors at work, which do not depend directly on the growth of income and it is these factors which may tend to raise the place of education in the scale of individual preference. The most important of these social factors might be the educational level of parents, which is known to have a decisive effect on the educational aspirations and achievements of their children. By this means, education in general, and university education in particular, tends to spread wider and wider from generation to generation. Likewise, the spread of university education tends to make possession of a higher qualification a more indispensable status symbol. Nevertheless, the demand for, and

expectations of, a university education is high, not only amongst educated families, but also from uneducated sections of society.

Question 24 of the questionnaire may clarify this matter. It enquires about the parents' standard of education, which is reflected in the certificate - if any - obtained by them. Table XXXVII shows the parents' standard of education at both the universities of Ain-Shams and Zagazig.

It is clear that the standard of parents' education in the provincial university of Zagazig is lower than the standard in the capital's university of Ain-Shams. Generally speaking, according to the Egyptian social situation, if the father has no education, the mother will be of the same standard. This means that the percentage of uneducated parents of Ain-Shams' students was 25%, and for uneducated mothers only was 46.7%. This percentage becomes 40.8% in parents who have not had any education, and 73.3% in uneducated mothers in the provincial university. In the same university the mothers who had university education or its equivalent were 4% (i.e. 5 mothers), none of whom had a degree higher than a first degree. The percentage of this category is almost doubled in Ain-Shams, the graduate mothers of which were approximately 8.3% (i.e. 10 mothers), one of whom had a Ph.D. In both universities, the numbers of fathers who had a university degree or its

TABLE XXXVII

Parents' standard of education at Ain-Shams and Zagazig universities

	Higher than a first degree		Post-secondary education		Secondary school certificate		Preparatory certificate or its equivalent		Primary education		No education	
	A	Z	A	Z	A	Z	A	Z	A	Z	A	Z
Father	6	2	34	30	29	23	6	5	15	11	30	49
Mother	1	-	9	5	26	11	15	6	13	10	56	88

equivalent were similar, 28% (i.e. 34 fathers) in Ain-Shams, and 25% (30 fathers) in Zagazig.

Usually, General Secondary Certificate (or its equivalent) holders work in clerical jobs in the Government offices, or as teachers in primary schools or similar posts. They do not enjoy good positions, but at least they are often white-collar jobs or posts in the Civil Service. Amongst the sample at Ain-Shams, 29 students (24%) had fathers who held only the secondary school certificate, whilst the mothers numbered 26 (21.6%) with the equivalent qualification. At Zagazig University, the fathers holding the secondary school certificate totalled 23 (19%) out of the entire number, whilst the mothers only accounted for 11 (9%). There is not a vast difference between the fathers' numbers in this category in either university, but the mothers' numbers in this category in Zagazig University were less than half those of the Ain-Shams University mothers' sample.

The next group, the preparatory group certificate holders and those with only primary education, represented a considerable number. This does not imply that this group enjoyed good positions, but reflects only that they can read and write. These two groups represented, at Ain-Shams, 18% of the fathers (21) and 27% of the mothers (28) of the sample. Meanwhile, at Zagazig University, this is quite a small proportion: 13% (16) fathers and mothers alike.

The most interesting fact, from the previous statistics, is the percentage of illiterate fathers and mothers in both universities, which comprises 33% fathers and 60% mothers of the whole sample. This means also that 33% of the sample came from an illiterate background, compared with about 3% only (or 8 students) who came from a family in which the father held a certificate higher than a first degree. Moreover, it is customary that the highly educated father will have taken an educated wife who held a university degree or secondary certificate, or at least was literate. The percentage of fathers who held a first degree or its equivalent, in the two universities, comprised approximately 26.6% (65) of the fathers of the whole sample, while the mothers comprised approximately 5.8% (14) only of the whole sample. There is a group in between, without post-secondary education, whom we could not include in the category of semi-educated (preparatory and primary education). The parents who had secondary education only accounted, in both universities, for approximately 15.5% (37) mothers and 21.5% (52) fathers.

The final category - those who could claim to be able to read and write - in Ain-Shams and Zagazig, represented approximately 15.5% of the fathers' sample, and the proportion of mothers was approximately 18%.

As mentioned previously, the level of students' aspirations is affected by their parents' ambitions and

also by their standard of education or family tradition. It is difficult to separate the student's standard of achievement from his environment which makes the educational standard of parents, or of the fathers at least, influential. To examine this view, a comparison between two different faculties may be of assistance, both of which have a definite professional future, i.e. the Faculties of Education and Medicine in the two universities. The population of the two faculties of Education was 35, and the population of the two faculties of Medicine was 14 students. Table XXXVIII shows the parents' education of the students in those two different faculties.

The illiterate fathers of the Faculty of Medicine formed 7% and in the Faculty of Education they formed 57%. The illiterate mothers' percentage in the Faculty of Medicine was about 35.7% and they formed approximately 74.2% in the Faculty of Education. This implies that the proportion of the anticipated illiterate families in the Faculty of Medicine was 7% (or one family out of fourteen) and 57% in the Faculty of Education (or twenty families out of thirty-five). On the other hand, in the Faculty of Medicine 4 fathers out of 14 (28.5%) had a certificate higher than the first degree. One mother of the same faculty sample had a Ph.D. (7%). No father or mother of the Faculty of Education sample had a degree higher than a first degree. The fathers who

TABLE XXXVIII

The standard of parents' education of the students of the Faculties of Education and Medicine in the two universities

	Higher than a first degree		Post-secondary education		Secondary school certificate		Preparatory certificate or its equivalent		Primary education		No education	
	E	M	E	M	E	M	E	M	E	M	E	M
Father	-	4	2	6	8	2	1	-	4	1	20	1
%	-	28.5	5.7	4.3	22.8	14.20		-	14	7	57	7
Mother	-	1	1	1	3	5	-	2	5	-	26	5
%	-	7	2.8	7	8.5	35	-	14	14	-	74.2	35.7

held a first degree in the two faculties of Medicine sample were approximately 43% (6 fathers) and for the Education sample, 5.7% (i.e. only 2 out of 35). This means that the fathers who had university education - or its equivalent - experience in both faculties of Medicine were approximately 71.4% (or 10 out of 14), but were only approximately 5.7% for the two faculties of Education (2 fathers out of 35). The mothers who had this experience in the Medicine sample were 14.5% and in the Faculty of Education, 2.8% (or 1 mother out of 35).

However, the conclusion might here be reached that the Egyptian universities are open to every student who is able and willing. The equality of educational opportunity in practice in the field of university education, as mentioned previously, means that a place in any faculty depends upon open competition between the candidates of the same branch according to their total marks alone. The fathers' occupation or standard of education does not play any part in the admission process into university or upon the place offered in any faculty. But, as shown above, the family standard of education does have its effect on the students' achievement in the final secondary school examination. In turn, therefore, the parents' level of ambition and the students' aspirations are affected by this social environment.

The question may be raised as to whether there is any relation between the students' reasons for going to university and the parents' standard of education. In searching for an answer, it would help to return to Question 17 of the questionnaire to see to what extent the standard of parents' education might affect the students' attitudes in attaining university education. The samples were divided into four groups:

1) The students who have chosen to gain a university degree and not knowledge for its own sake or social status;

2) The students who have chosen to gain a university degree or social status, or both;

3) The students who have chosen to gain a university degree and knowledge for its own sake, or to gain a university degree and social status;

4) The students who have chosen not to gain a university degree, or knowledge for its own sake, or social status.

Table XXXIX shows the distribution of the sample according to their parents' standard of education and their reasons for coming to university.

TABLE XXXIX

The distribution of the sample according to their parents' standard of education against their reasons for coming to university

Reasons	Total	Higher than a first degree		Post-secondary education		Secondary school certificate		Preparatory certificate or its equivalent		Primary education		No education	
		F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
1) To gain a university degree and not knowledge or social status	30 12.5%	1	-	5	2	7	5	-	-	4	2	13	21
2) To gain a university degree or social status or both	84 35%	2	-	18	3	18	15	9	8	11	9	26	49
3) To gain a university degree and knowledge for its own sake or to gain a university degree and social status	104 43.3%	5	1	30	7	22	13	1	11	10	9	30	63
4) Not to gain a university degree or knowledge for its own sake or social status	22 9.2%	-	-	11	2	5	4	1	2	1	3	4	11

Key:- F - Father M - Mother

By contrast, it is interesting to refer to the group who has chosen not to gain a university degree or knowledge for its own sake or social status. These students represented only 9.2% of the sample, being, in number, 22 first year students. Not one of their parents had got further than the first degree; 18% of their fathers and 50% of their mothers were illiterate. This small proportion (i.e. 9.2%) came to university for other reasons, possibly connected with their future career or families' wishes. But they did not come to the university necessarily to obtain a degree or to seek knowledge or aim for a higher social status, though future career might be among their motives in coming to university. On the other hand, simply the reason 'to gain a university degree and not knowledge for its own sake or social status' comprised a small proportion, though they laid emphasis on this aim. Thirty students (12.5%) from the sample had chosen this. In fact, the highest proportion of these students' parents - 43% of the fathers and 70% of the mothers - had had no education. The university degree, therefore, has its own attraction and might enable them to enjoy a different or better future career than that of their fathers and the other uneducated members of their families.

The third category of the sample consists of those who wanted a university degree in particular, along with the other reason of knowledge for its own sake or social status. One-hundred and four students were in this category (43.3%). Five of the fathers (5%) had higher

education beyond that of the first degree; one mother of the whole sample had a degree higher than the first degree and her daughter was in the Faculty of Medicine. 60.6% of the mothers and 34.6% of the fathers of those groups had not had any education, in contrast to the 21.4% of the fathers and 3.6% of the mothers who had passed the post-secondary experience.

The second largest group of these categories was the respondents who had chosen to gain a university degree or social status or both. This represented 35% of the sample's students. In fact, the percentage of the non-educated fathers and mothers was relatively high, as in the previous category; the percentage of illiterate fathers, for example, was 31% and the mothers 58.3% of this group's parents. 2.4% of the fathers had certificates higher than a first degree. Of 18 students out of 84 (21.4%), the fathers had a university degree and 3.6% of their mothers had the same qualification. The group in between, whose parents had an educational certificate lower than the post-secondary certificate but who were not illiterate, formed a separate group, and the others illustrated in Table XXXIX.

From the previous analysis, one might conclude that university education plays a distinct part in Egyptian society. It serves to train a new and educated middle class, or what we should call a national intellectual and professional level of citizens who are able to carry the

responsibilities of advancement and development in the society. The aspiration of the parents' generation is to see that their sons and daughters receive a university education. University places in this context are for moving up in the community. Because the university in Egypt has been characterized, until now, by its relation to the State, it is used as an agent in the bridging of community differences. This social function is one of its important functions in the Egyptian society. To ensure equality of opportunity to enter university, however, does not depend only on removing the financial barriers, or using the total marks only as the major measure. It is not sufficient to raise the slogan 'university education for everybody who is able and willing'. But,as was shown above, in the comparison between the students in the two faculties of Medicine and Education, it is clear that:

> 'equality of educational opportunity as a goal has to be built into general thinking and in other institutions of society before education can do much'(1)

As the results of this questionnaire show by the sample's answers to Question 20, where 190 students (79.2%) pointed out - relying upon the total marks is not an accurate criterion. Although every student knows that the total marks is the fairest system of acceptance, many still believe it has many defects. The questionnaire

---

(1) Embling, J., A Fresh Look At Higher Education, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1974, p. 73.

raised this matter again and asked the sample whether or not the present system of admission to the Egyptian universities was suitable. Fifty-six (approximately 23.3%) replied that it was so and one-hundred and eighty-three (76.6%) believed it to be unsuitable; only one abstained. Those who thought it unsuitable were invited to indicate their reasons. The answers to this open question are arranged into six items listed in Table XL.

TABLE XL

Why the present system of admission to Egyptian universities is unsuitable in the sample's view

No.	Reasons	Frequency
1	This system does not give a chance to fulfil the student's interests	107
2	The total mark does not reflect the real ability of the student	36
3	The principle of equality of educational opportunities is disturbed by the exception groups	19
4	The total marks are related only to the student's circumstances during the examination period and ignore the student's achievement during the whole year	12
5	Some of those who gain the highest grades are admitted to faculties because of their higher status and prestige without taking into consideration their actual ability and interests	6
6	Private lessons in almost all subjects are prevalent since each student wishes to obtain better grades. Those who can afford payment for private lessons can make use of it and gain high marks; this in itself undermines the principle of equality and gives a better opportunity to the wealthy of a university place	1

The reasons given by the sample shown above, pointed out that allocation according to the total marks, as it is in the present system of admission, 'does not give a chance to fulfil the student's interest'. The incidence of this reason was higher than any other, being given 107 times. The total mark itself as the only criterion for selection or allocation in another view, 'does not reflect the real ability of the student'. This reason was given 36 times and although it occupied the second place on the list, it is given much fewer times than the first reason. Other respondents accepted this criterion as a fair way to equality of opportunity, but with reference to the status quo, 'the principle of equality is disturbed by the exception groups'. The answer was given 19 times, which means that approximately 10.3% of the respondents believe that the new approach with the expansion of the exceptional groups upsets the principle of equality. This was followed by another group who rejected total marks as a basis for acceptance because, 'the total marks take into account only the student's circumstances during the examination period and ignore the student's achievement during the whole school year'. Twelve students gave this reason (approximately 6.5%), who had their own reasons for criticizing the system on the grounds that some of those with the highest grades were admitted to faculties because of their higher status and prestige without taking into consideration their actual

ability and interests. This means that the student's achievement in the General Secondary examination reflected in the total marks should not be the only factor influencing the student's choice of faculty. But many students, however, when obtaining a result higher than anticipated, and above the average student's mark, will transfer the choice of faculty to one, not of their interest, but which will further their career opportunities. The student and his family might change their minds and seek a place in another more popular faculty on account of his high marks, and not his ability or initial desire(1). One student only referred to a critical phenomenon in this field in Egypt, where students and their families, being very anxious about the total mark, use private tuition. The respondent pointed out that in the hopes of securing results, private lessons in almost all subjects are available, as each student wishes to obtain a better grade. But only those who can afford payment for private lessons can make use of this means and gain high marks, which undermines the principle of equality, and gives a better opportunity to the wealthy of a university place.

It is possible at this point to ask the students about what the best system of admission in Egyptian society would be in their opinion (Question 27). Three

---

(1) See this chapter, pp. 218-219.

alternative systems were proposed and the students were asked to choose the most preferable. In fact, some students indicated more than one choice. Table XLI illustrates the replies and the comparative numbers.

TABLE XLI

The most preferable system of admission in Egyptian universities among the students' sample

No.	Proposed system of admission	Frequency
1	Acceptance on the basis of the marks of particular subjects related to the nature of study in the faculty	147
2	Holding an independent examination for each faculty disregarding the G.S.E. result	122
3	The total mark of G.S.E. with personal interview in the faculty	15

Acceptance on the basis of the total marks of particular subjects related to the nature of study in the faculty, as it is clear from the above table, was the most acceptable system. It is the marks criterion, but not the total marks of the subjects of the final school year. The new modified admission system, applied for the year 1977/78, is fairly closely related to this system, but still the main basis is the total marks while taking into account the subject of specialization as a recommendation for the admission of the student to a particular faculty.

Abolition of the General Secondary examination as the basis for access into university is the second proposed alternative. One-hundred and twenty-two students found acceptable the idea of holding an independent examination for each faculty disregarding the General Secondary examination result. This might give the university the chance to practise one aspect of academic freedom. But in fact, many are still suspicious, because they are used to the current system. The least popular proposal amongst the sample was the total marks of General Secondary with personal interviews in the faculty. Only fifteen recommended this, which indicates that the impersonal system of selection is considered the most desirable amongst the sample. This might reflect the social attitude on the matter, that the lottery method of selection is more acceptable than personal interview, as this sort of interview,in the view of the majority, opens the doors to what they call 'biased decisions'. The impersonal process of admission into universities and selection for the faculties is, therefore, the most respected method in the eyes of the sample.

The sample was given the opportunity to write suggestions on how to improve the present admission system in Egypt if they had any different ideas. One-hundred and seventy-two students answered that they had no suggestions. Others wrote their views, which are classified into the following table.

TABLE XLII

The sample's proposed system for admission to Egyptian universities

No.	Proposed system for admission	Frequency
1	Acceptance in faculties according to the student's choice irrespective of student's total mark	27
2	Programme of educational guidance should be initiated based on the study of general ability, differential aptitudes and interests, to help the students to choose types of education appropriate to their abilities and interests from any early stage	12
3	Personal and guidance tests with respect to the total mark	9
4	Acceptance in faculties according to the geographical distribution basis only regard less the total mark	2
5	Access to faculties according to the average of the previous Certificate relying not only upon the General Secondary certificate examination result	

Twenty-seven of the fifty-one undergraduates who availed themselves of this opportunity preferred the free choice of the students, wanting a system which could offer students a place for study wherever they wished. This radical view might be accepted by many, but how could this operate in practice as a system having to find a place in higher education for about one-hundred-thousand candidates every year (and seventy-

three-thousand entered the university only)? This is the most difficult question at the moment. Others expressed the need for guidance systems. Twelve students' suggestions show this to be an urgent matter. A programme of educational guidance should be initiated based on the study of general ability, differential aptitudes and interests, to help the students to choose types of education appropriate to their abilities and interests from an early stage. In fact, this is a constructive suggestion as it opens up greater opportunities for the students to decide upon a direction in future study and career on the basis of a clear vision of the students' ability and consequently the most suitable course of fulfilment. Others accepted the total marks as a just way for selection. This method should be augmented by personal guidance tests to make the admission process more effective. Nine proposed this modified method.

One only of the respondents proposed that access to faculties should be according to the average of the previous certificates and not only reliant upon the General Secondary Certificate examination result. Although this student did not explain what influenced him to think of this as an alternative, it might have been in order to avoid unexpected events which can affect the students' results in the General Secondary examination and also to prevent the students relying on private tuitition before the examination.

Two other students proposed that the acceptance basis should depend only upon the geographical distribution regardless of the total marks. In fact this needs free access to universities on the basis of a local system of provincial educational institutions.

This analysis might lead us to the conclusion that the admission system for access into university in Egypt needs a fresh assessment from many different angles. It is the student's right to enjoy his university experience according to his ability. The student's desire to study a particular subject is very important, but not according to the fashion of the time but rather, according to his capability. The equality of educational opportunity is strongly needed and recommended, but on what basis? Is the total mark alone sufficient; is the total mark itself really an equitable instrument for selection? Many other questions related to this point may be raised. Over and above this, society itself needs a wide opportunity for discussion. Egypt, like the developing countries, has many difficulties - economic ones in particular - so how can Egypt use this human capital properly and also provide those individuals with a suitable and valuable opportunity for study and for work too?

CHAPTER VI

Critical evaluation of the selection system procedure

Today, more than ever, education is inextricably involved in the quality of the life of a nation. For Egypt, it has become necessary to develop its leading intellectual institutions. Traditionally higher learning, immediately thought of in terms of universities, has been central to the concern of many educators and nations for several hundred years. For the developing countries, there is a basic fact dominating university education: the growing need for higher learning to develop the society and each individual's capacity, in order to face the unprecedentedly complex life of the modern world. The October Working Paper identified one of the problems of Egypt and of the developing countries as:

> 'we depend basically on imported science and technology; it is our duty to see to it that we do not continue to live dependent on the production of others in this field.'(1)

Therefore, universities are often the main source of supply of highly-trained manpower upon the availability of which depends the continued success of major development projects. This implies, for Egypt even more than for both developed and developing countries, that

---

(1) Arab Republic of Egypt, October Working Paper, p. 74.

Knowledge and know-how constitute the key to better life, not as an alternative to investment in financial projects but as a priority[1].

It may be true to say that the university's invisible product is knowledge which is the most important factor in economic and social growth. For developing countries in particular, new knowledge is very important, since the gap between them and the developed countries is not only wide but also is growing wider and will continue to grow. In the opinion of many the university as;

> 'one of the few intellectual communities aiming to direct knowledge to a genuinely human purpose',

is capable of confronting this challenge[2].

It may be argued that, since the university is one of many other institutions for learning, why have the developing and the developed societies seen it as a very important instrument for a better future for their people?[3]. It may also be said that both developing and

---

(1) Butler, Lord, Survival Depends on Higher Education, Indian Council for Cultural Relations, Vikas Publications, New Delhi, 1971, p. 10.

(2) Carrier, H., 'The Role of the University in the New Society', in, The European Universities, 1975-85, Fifth General Assembly of the Standing Conference of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities, convened in Bologna, Italy, from 1-7 September 1974, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1975, pp. 9-19.

(3) Nyrerey, J., Freedom and Socialism, Oxford University Press, London, 1969, pp. 179-186.

developed societies have expected too much from their universities. The answer, in fact, is simple, namely that universities as an 'extraordinary institution' played an immense part in modern civilization, therefore, such expectations are a 'mark of faith and respect'. Every nation expects much of the university - advancing knowledge, educating the society's leaders and serving the community - and no other educational institution in the society is better equipped than the university to carry these heavy burdens(1).

The question arises here, what is the university and for what does the university stand in society? In fact this is the basic question not only in this research but in any argument about university education. Those who are concerned about the university as an institution for higher learning tend to give many different views, and express in different terms the purpose of a university. Moreover, because of its long-standing position in the human civilization, many different ideas present themselves in any debate about the university and its function. As a result of this, we have to choose which are the most convenient concepts(2). What is the university for? This is also an important question in

---

(1) Gardiner, J.W., 'The Individual and Society', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, University of Utah Press, Utah, 1976, p. 51.

(2) Christopherson, D., The University At Work, S.C.M. Press, London, 1973, p. 33.

this research, first of all because every human institution has a purpose towards which it strives, otherwise there would be no institution(1). Secondly, no adequate selection of students is possible unless there is a common idea of the nature of the institution for which they are to be selected. This leads, as Kotschnig pointed out, to the establishment of a standard of values by which it would be possible to judge them(2). Likewise this applies to the various aspects of the university, whether organizational, financial or curricular.

The premise of this research is that there is no simple answer to the above question. This is because the university itself belongs to its society which it is supposed to serve in a given time. Hence, the concept of university and its functions may differ from time to time and from country to country, but this is not to say that there is no fundamental concept about the university and its function. Although it is clear that in a basic sense the universities have an unchanged duty, and that if, for any reason, a university has failed to discharge it, then that institution has ceased to be a university in anything but name, it would be

---

(1) Livingstone, H., The University: An Organizational Analysis, Blackie, Glasgow, 1974, p. 20.

(2) Kotschnig, W.M., 'Introduction' of Kotschnig, W.M. and Prys, E., (eds.), The University in a Changing World, Oxford University Press, London, 1932, p. 2.

unreasonable to expect the universities to conform to a single pattern(1). Also, owing to their long history, the universities have changed profoundly, according to the different situations of the social environment of which they are a part. This means that universities as centres of intellect have succeeded in adjusting very intelligently to the surrounding circumstances. And, in spite of this, they have retained their effectiveness as formative agencies needed in society(2). The following pages will not try to find answers to the general question posed here, but will concentrate on the purpose of the university in Egypt and its development.

Who decides the particular purposes of the university in Egypt? The system of decision-making involves many groups of society and each group has its role to play. These groups are, firstly, the national setters of purpose (in the Egyptian case, the official view is expressed in the national documents, official Decrees and publications of the National Research Centres); secondly, the academic community; thirdly, the consumers of learning and teaching, the students; all of these groups working in a difficult public, political environment(3).

---

(1) Kerr, C., The Uses of the University, with a 'post-script 1972', Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1972, p. 8.

(2) Cobban, A.B., The Medieval Universities, Their Development and Organization, Methuen, London, 1975, p. 116f.

(3) Kogan, M., 'Who Decides the Purposes?', in, Piper, D.W., (ed.), A National Purpose for Higher Education, Papers from a Conference organized by the Department of Higher Education, University of London, Institute of Education, U.T.M.U., London, N.D., p. 7.

All these aspects will be treated in this research with special interest, but the students' view, of course, is different from the authorities' view, and this point in particular is one of the most important parts of this research's concern which it is aimed to explore in detail according to the result of the field work.

In Ashby's view, 'the pattern of any particular university is a result of heredity and environment'(1). So, the realities of the present university concept and purpose in Egypt can be discerned in the light of the past. A previous chapter detailed the origin and development of higher education in Egypt and explained the first attempt made to introduce liberal education, in its European concept of the nineteenth century, at the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century(2).

In many Decrees concerning university education in Egypt, the preservation of the cultural inheritance and its transmission from generation to generation was one of the important aspects of university purposes. The advancement of sciences was the other part of its stated function in these Decrees, but there was no indication about how these advances should be made or in what

---

(1) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1974, p. 2.

(2) See Chapter II of this thesis.

direction(1). It is obvious that preservation of culture and its transmission is not the most important part of university work, but this should be accompanied by continuous re-examination in the light of new discoveries; thus the university can make an important contribution to the cultural life of its society in particular and the world in general.

1956 witnessed some important national events affecting the whole life of the country, such as the evacuation of the British occupation and the Suez expedition. A new Decree of Universities was issued and, in addition to the purposes stated by the previous Decrees, the service of the society and the national aim were specified(2). This was the first time the national goals or the service of society were mentioned in an official university document in Egypt. The university in Egypt became the focus of the revolutionary government's hopes. After the union with Syria, the two

---

(1) For example, see,
The text of the establishment of the Egyptian university and its discipline Decree, in, Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, pp. 344-348 (in Arabic),
and,
Hasanain, M.S., Egyptian Higher Education: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 93 (in Arabic).

(2) Republic of Egypt, President of Republic Decree of Law No. 345 of 1956, concerning the arrangement of the Egyptian universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1956, Article No. 1, p. 1 (in Arabic).

countries became the United Arab Republic and many laws were revised to fit the demands of the new state. A Republican Decree (No. 184) was issued in 1958 for university education. This, as one researcher pointed out, stated that:

> 'universities are scientific institutions concerned with meeting society's needs and demands for experts and specialists in different branches of science. Besides their main scholarly activities, universities are responsible for advancing the frontiers of knowledge through fundamental research. Their responsibility is to meet the national needs and to serve the society and its development goals. A part of the universities' responsibility also is to encourage Arts and each field of knowledge which is in the national interest'(1)

Accordingly, from that time the university's function and purposes from the official viewpoint was to meet national needs at large. This significant addition became an important feature of the universities' work and responsibility in Egypt (Southern region of the U.A.R.).

From the beginning of the 1960s, Egypt witnessed major change in its political, social and economic system. In turn, the university's place in society and its aim for education needed a rigorous examination of the reality of the role it had come to occupy in the whole society, especially after the issuance of the National Charter (1962). The Charter declared that: 'the universities are progressive leaders who pointed the ways of life out to the people'. Science in all its research centres should be, accordingly, in the service

---

(1) Hasanain, M.S., Egyptian Higher Education: Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 96.

of society:

> 'science for its own sake, is a responsibility which our national potentiality cannot shoulder'(1)

In 1963, a new University Decree (No. 159) was issued, which added to university education another responsibility, or adjusted the university's purposes to the new socialist state, and the university was more and more at the centre of public and national concern. This was simply because Decree No. 159 carefully decided that universities should not only produce new knowledge but should also prepare the students for specialization in different branches of knowledge and to be good citizens who would ensure the future of the nation and set up an Arabic socialist society, to train them and also to work for the prosperity of the whole nation. Universities should not only exist to transmit knowledge or merely to educate or train students, but should also serve national purposes and all their activities should be directed towards serving society(2).

In short, from the above, it might be said that with each new Decree introduced, the purposes of university education were enlarged but did not change, i.e. any one

---

(1) United Arab Republic, The Charter, p. 102.

(2) United Arab Republic, President of U.A.R. Resolution of Decree No. 159 of 1963, and modification of some regulations of U.A.R. universities, Alexandria University Press, Alexandria, 1964, p. 4 (in Arabic).

of these Decrees did not abolish any of the previous ones. Over and above this, these consecutive Decrees widened the university function to fit the new socialist society's demands and its policy(1). This indicated the Government's emphasis upon political socialization at university level(2). In turn, the university became bound to respond to the changing society. Social change in Egyptian society has played an important part in the changing or growing functions of the university in Egypt.

In October 1972, a new Republican Decree was issued covering Law No. 49, regulating the universities and replacing Law No. 184 of 1958 and its successors. With the massive increase in students and university numbers, the 1972 Decree placed great trust in the universities and requested them to respond to the demands and needs of their society and to prepare their students for change and the unknown future. The first Article stipulated that:

> 'Universities are concerned with all university learning and scientific research which its faculties and institutes carry out to serve the society and the progress of its civilization in order to share its cultural prosperity, scientific advancement to contribute to the humanitarian values, and to provide the country with the specialists, experts, technicians in

---

(1) Hasanain, M.S., Egyptian Higher Education, Evaluation and Its Future Direction, p. 97.

(2) United Arab Republic, The Charter, pp. 102-103.

> different fields, and the creation of human beings who are provided with the foundations of knowledge, advanced methods of research and moral values to share the building up reinforcing the socialist society, making the future of the nation and serving humanity. The universities are regarded, therefore, as fortresses of human thinking at its highest level, and a source for investment and development of the most important and valuable wealth of the society which is the human capital. Universities are also concerned with reviving the Arabic culture, the historical legacy of the Egyptian people and its genuine tradition, respecting the high standard of religious, moral and national education and strengthening the cultural and scientific relation with the other institutes.
>
> The state guarantees the independence of the universities which ensures the link between university education and the needs of the society and production'(1)

Regardless of the rhetorical language of this first Article of the 1972 Decree, Law No. 49, which the translation might misrepresent, the aims of university education and its function seem to be more an ideal than of benefit to the individual. Besides this, the aims of university itself may be said to be irrelevant to the needs of students in later life. It seems that there is a great deal of generalization which might reflect the great trust placed in the role played by universities.

However, one of the important points here is that which refers to the university along with any other scientific and educational institutions bearing the

---

(1) Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Arab Republic of Egypt for Law No. 49 of the year 1972 concerning the organization of the universities, p. 1 (in Arabic).

responsibility of preparing students to serve the socialist society. Educating the individual citizen according to this view is also an investment, and like any investment it should be guided to serve the country(1).

The independence of universities may mean in this context that they are independent in their academic affairs, but they are still regarded as an integral part of the society(2). In fact, no-one can say that the university can stay as an 'ivory tower', aloof from its country's problems, especially in a developing country such as Egypt. On the other hand, one cannot deny the university its historic commitments. It is evident, therefore, that the last Decree did not give the same weight of serving society as a purpose to the other element of the university educational process, i.e. the needs of the students, and also the classic assumptions about the purposes of university such as knowledge and its transcendent value, as was pointed out in Qasim Amin's speech (1908) at the opening of the Egyptian university(3). Scientific research and graduate education persisted to a greater or lesser degree at universities, and this is accepted as part of the university function. The results obtained by these efforts inside the university campus as well as its

---

(1) Arab Republic of Egypt, October Working Paper, p. 74.

(2) Ibid, p. 71.

(3) See Chapter II of this thesis.

outputs of trained personnel should contribute to the benefit of the whole society. Nevertheless, graduates who have university experience have become the shapers of important new procedures in the industrial and business world and have had important effects on the development process. It may be said that the response of the university to its society's demands and the national priorities, in developing countries in particular, has tended to give a particular end to its scholarly activities. The university in Egypt, as elsewhere, is losing its traditional religious and metaphysical sources of values and is entering another path of development which relates to economy, technology, modernization, national pride and democracy(1). This means that the university should make efforts to meet the transition from an elitist and relatively segregated institution to one with links with all aspects of society as a result of changing social values and government financing(2).

---

(1) See, for example,
Perkins, J.A., The University in Transition, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1966, p. 11ff,
and,
Al-Brulusi, 'A., University Education Trends in Modern Time, Ain-Shams University Press, Cairo, 1969, p. 15 (in Arabic).

(2) Ross, M.G., The University: The Anatomy of Academe, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1976, Ch. 6 in particular.

This stage of the development of the university's function in Egypt means that universities are not autonomous institutions and do not devote themselves to searching for knowledge and transmission of the high culture only, but have become service centres to other institutions of the society. It can be argued that all university activities are in some sense responsive to social interests. However, the service of its society is not an option for Egyptian universities but is defined as a duty. It is evident from the above also, that the official view is strongly committed to society's needs and demands, as they are optimistic about the usefulness of education; they present university education as primarily an economic tool rather than as a consumer good. Therefore there is an unavoidable relation between the university and the State. This relation, in turn, is one of the important factors in university policy and purpose in Egypt(1).

Those who are involved with university work also may have an important place in the decision-making process itself. University teachers usually have immense knowledge, but many of them in Egypt - apart from those who are members of the Higher Council of Universities, national centres and so on - are not interested in writing about these matters. Accordingly, the State or

---

(1) For details see,
Akrawi, M., 'The University and Government in the Middle East', in, Nader, C. and Zahlon, A., (eds.), Science and Technology in Developing Countries, p. 335ff.

official view usually shows itself in their reports or research findings and recommendations. From the content of many occasional lectures, conferences and academic university research, it is possible to draw a picture of this view which is not very far removed from the above.

Most works related to university purposes or functions in Egypt after 1962 (or the publication of the National Charter) were deeply influenced by its ideology and philosophy towards science, society and the service of development. Unfortunately, some of these works were couched in a rhetorical style rather than in academic language(1). Others were concerned with the traditional functions of the university which, it seems, faded under the pressure of expansion and the large numbers of students entering the university(2). Some researchers allocated a chapter or sections of a chapter to discuss the university purposes as a part of their research plan. Most of it was not more than a

---

(1) See, for example,
Conference of Development of Higher and University Education, Final Report of Specific Conference for Educational Studies and Teacher Training, held in the Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, 3-9 February 1967, Cairo, p. 5 (in Arabic).

(2) As an example, see,
Rashid, A.A., 'Introduction to study the problems of university education', A paper delivered to a Study Workshop Meeting about Problems of University Education in the Arab Countries, Second Meeting, Bierut, May 1964, Arab League, Culture Section, p. 304 (in Arabic),
and,
'Abid, A.H., Philosophy of Educational System and Construction of Educational Policy, Al-Anglo al-Misriyyah, Cairo, 1976 (in Arabic).

historical review or general survey about the development of the university's function in Egypt. Most of these works show the lack of a clear philosophical basis and are not more than a reflection of the State policy. This may be due to the nature and the objectives of these researches, so it is unfair to expect of them radical change or even innovation(1). In short, it has been accepted that the purpose of the university in Egypt,

> 'embraces almost all aspects of cultural, economic, scientific and technological life. It has become natural for universities to be fully integrated with the community and its requirements'(2)

The important assumption at this point is that the university should be practically useful to the Egyptian society itself, but this requires a society which would put it to use. Developments in society and in university are interrelated and important, but another factor is the expectation of the subject of this education and the

---

(1) As an example, see,
Hassan, H.M., Quantitative Wastage and Its Causes in Egypt's University Education: Field work study, unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1975, pp. 33-47 (in Arabic).

(2) Helmy, M.K., University Education in U.A.R., p. 4, and see also,
Shafi'i, M.Z., 'The Role of the University in Economic and Social Development', A paper delivered to The Second General Conference of the Association of Arab Universities at Cairo University, 7-14 February 1973, pp. 27-46 (in Arabic).

object of any development in both society and education, i.e. the students themselves who want education and also their parents who expect a better future for their young men and women. In addition, the students' view is important because, as a result of this type of education, they will either enjoy or not enjoy their promised future. The university is more dependent upon what the public expects from it than other educational institutions, for the image it fills in the national mind will affect the attitude of the students who are, in Ashby's words, 'the university's most important customers'(1). University products, from the national viewpoint, are not only new knowledge, but also graduates and both of them 'become for the first time of central importance to social stability or change and economic development'(2). If society needs able citizens to use the tools of a sophisticated world, those who want higher education have the right to the opportunity to benefit from the economic advantages conferred by education and also the right to the personal satisfaction derived from education. Thus, the social demand which is reflected in the interest of young citizens in having the opportunity of university education and in the thirst

---

(1) Ashby, E., 'Reconciliation of Tradition and Modernity in Universities', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, p. 22.

(2) O.E.C.D., Institutional Management in Higher Education, Report of a Conference to discuss the results of research initiated and co-ordinated by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation in the O.E.C.D., 1972, O.E.C.D., France, 1972, p. 13.

for degrees, has both vocational and social dimensions which lead to the pressure for expansion and a very strong demand from the public for one type of higher learning, i.e. university education(1). Before going further in this argument, it is important to look at the students' purpose in going to university and to what extent their purposes correspond with the stated purposes in the last University Decree of 1972 and many other official documents.

The previous chapter was concerned with the questionnaire's data analysis, and from this result it is possible to cast new light on the students' purposes of university education as a partner of decision-makers. In their responses to different questions, there were three clear features:

1) The intellectual or cultural objectives;
2) The social advantage of university education;
3) The professional advancement.

The social and professional purposes may come under the environmental forces which act on the system of higher education and make the young people exert growing pressure on the higher education institutions(2).

---

(1) Watson, J.S., 'Types of Higher Education: Comprehensive, Co-ordinated or Classified', in, Bell, R.E. and Youngson, A.J., (eds.), Present and Future in Higher Education, Tavistock Publications, London, 1973, pp. 129-137.

(2) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, pp. 136-137.

University development in Egypt is not like university development in European countries, in that the latter witnessed a profound transformation in the social function of higher learning, which may underlie the present crisis of expansion in university education(1). It is more difficult in the Egyptian society for university education to play a social and economic function at the same time, as is obvious from the students' answers as to their purposes in coming to university. Owing to the fact that universities award degrees which are considered as career investments, everybody's aspiration centres upon a place in university and society puts a premium on the value of education and a certificate in the labour market. In fact, this vocational and utilitarian approach to education is not confined to Egypt but it is a general trend now in developed and developing countries(2).

In accordance with the social nature of Egyptian society the 'social status' and 'to gain a university degree' were the highest frequencies among students' answers to the question, 'Why do you come to university?'. This was followed by 'to seek knowledge for its own sake' and, in the fourth place, by the answer, 'future career'. Because education and the possession of a university degree in particular decide who gains which job, it is

---

(1) Floud, J., 'The Demands of Society', in, Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber, London, 1965, p. 21.

(2) Ibid, pp. 22-23.

very difficult for the non-university graduate to obtain a place in the Civil Service, and much harder to gain a promised 'future career'(1). Generally, university degrees in Egypt offer high prestige, but do not mean high income jobs. These jobs offer a secure future and steady earnings even lower than manual workers(2).

Although 'to seek knowledge for its own sake' occupied the third place in the sample answers for the students' reasons for coming to university, the faculties in the greatest demand were professional(3). Moreover, only about 28% of the sample attained their first choice, and 72% failed to attain it; in spite of this, they accepted any place given to them in another faculty(4). It seems, therefore, that many candidates are ready to lower their aspirations to match the availability of possible places for them at any faculty because a university degree is better than nothing. It is interesting here to refer to research carried out in Ain-Shams University among the unsuccessful students to find out the reasons for their failure, and these results show that only 20% of the Faculty of Agriculture sought to join it, and 35% of them considered changing and applying to another faculty. Table XLIII

---

(1) See Chapter V of this thesis, Table XXXII.

(2) Blaug, M., Education and the Employment Problem in Developing Countries, I.L.O., Geneva, 1974 (Second impression), p. 62.

(3) See Chapter V of this thesis, Table XXIII.

(4) Ibid, Table XXIII.

shows the failed students' attitude towards their faculties.

TABLE XLIII

The attitude of a sample of unsuccessful students towards their faculties in Ain-Shams University

No.	Faculty	Students wanting to join it	Students content with it	Students thinking of changing it
1	Engineering	84.5%	48.5%	20.6%
2	Medicine	68.2%	61.8%	22.2%
3	Sciences	33%	52%	30.7%
4	Agriculture	20%	32.5%	35%
5	Commerce	51.2%	70%	23.4%
6	Law	68%	68%	19.8%
7	Arts	72%	56%	20.7%
8	Education	33%	57%	28%
9	Girls'	40.7%	44%	40.7%
10	Languages	70%	73.2%	33.8% (1)

Source:

Hassan, H.M., Quantitative Wastage and Its Causes in Egypt's University Education, Table 59, p. 264.

From the above table it is clear that the most desired faculties, as it is in the case of this research sample, were Engineering and Medicine for the scientific branch students and Arts for the literary branch.

---

(1) As it is in its original source, to correct the number it should be 26.8%, or the assumption is that although 73.2% were content with their faculties, but 33.8% desired to change them if they had had the chance.

University courses in the different faculties are, in a way, 'professional' in the context of the Egyptian labour market and also according to the State social philosophy. The difference between the Faculty of Engineering, for example, and the Faculty of Agriculture is, to a great extent, social rather than intellectual, just as the difference between 'liberal' and 'vocational', in the view of some, is social rather than intellectual(1).

The students in Egypt, therefore, chose their branch of study in the General Secondary school 'to join a particular faculty' and because they were 'interested in a specific subject'(2). Both of these reasons are related to their purpose of entering university for 'social status' and 'to gain a university degree' which helps in building up a 'future career' but they still believe that 'knowledge for its own sake' is a good reason. If we can interpret here the implications of 'knowledge for its own sake' as a means for personal development, i.e. 'enrichment of personality or the enlargement of imaginative, communicative and critical capacities', this idea of personal development is not sharply divorced from the social purposes of higher learning. But it is to some extent coloured by the type of society that is favourable for their realization, and

---

(1) Christopherson, D., The University At Work, p. 41.

(2) See Chapter V of this thesis, Table XXVI.

'therefore, for the educational process and institution thought necessary for such realization'(1).

The economic return was not the concern of 77.5% of the sample who refused a highly paid job without a university degree. It is not simply personal income which affected the students' choice or obtaining a place in university, but it is the social prestige of the university degree, as mentioned previously.

In fact, the graduate expects many things from university education. Everywhere, the student comes to university to read specific subjects and to prepare himself for the adult role and for a profession. He wants to arrive at truth and to gain a clear view of the world and people, but as Jaspers mentioned: 'one's expectations are only seldom fulfilled at university'. The individual student himself, if he is lucky, makes his own way, 'a way that leads to development and purpose, guided only by his personal intuition'(2). In that respect, the responses of the sample reflect that the Egyptian students were reasonable in their choices and practically had a clear vision of what they really wanted from the university education according to the circumstances of Egyptian society. In our time, if the

---

(1) Weinstein, W.L., 'Social Purposes In Search of Higher Education, or Higher Education In Search of Social Purposes', in, Piper, D.W., (ed.), A National Purpose for Higher Education, p. 11.

(2) Jaspers, K., The Idea of the University, Peter Owen, London, (Second impression), 1965, p. 52.

university has nothing more to offer its graduate than the chance to read, to search for truth without any promise of social advancement or prospect of a good future career or even a steady paid job which nowadays is difficult to obtain without higher education, no-one would be interested to spend some years of his or her youth in the peaceful world of the university(1). On the other hand, it is society which needs the university to preserve and transmit the highly prized elements of its culture, and also society which needs the university graduates and their specialized training for skilled manpower required by the age of complex technology(2). Also, for developing countries,the university is the centre which can or should make the fullest use of intelligence, as the human capital is the most valuable resource at national level and for national progress.

At this point it is important to consider the students' stated purposes in the light of the Egyptian Government's policy towards universities for the country's needs and the consumer's demands. However, over the last twenty-five years both Egyptian society and universities have been engaged in a process of transformation and also a process of modifications and adaptations which led the universities in particular to

---

(1) Ashby, E., 'Reconciliation of Tradition and Modernity', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, p. 19.

(2) Halsey, A.H., 'The Changing Functions of Universities', in, Halsey, A.H., Floud, J., (eds.), Education, Economy and Society, Free Press, New York, 1971, (Sixth printing), pp. 457-

undergo the impact of the change in the global society. As a Ministerial Report mentioned, expansion in university and other education became a part of the State policy to meet the individual's aspirations and to produce sufficient manpower for its social and economic development(1). Table XLIV shows the expansion of the student numbers, universities, faculties and expenditure in Egypt from 1952/1976.

TABLE XLIV

The expansion of university education in Egypt from 1952/1976

	1952	1970	1976
Universities	3	4	11
Faculties	25	58	115
Freshers	14,317	34,328	65,314
Registered	36,027	139,833	379,675
Expenditure (E.P.)	3,983,000	21,702,900	66,380,000

Source:

Ministry of Education, Development of Universities, the basic principles on which the university development depends, (unpublished), 1976 (in Arabic).

The figures demonstrate the explosive growth of the universities and the swelling enrolments especially after 1970. This leads us to ask whether this expansion

(1) Ministry of Education, Development of Universities, the basic principles on which the university development depends, Report on the Ministry fulfilment (Higher Education Sector) since 1970 until now, Ministry Office, unpublished, 1976 (in Arabic).

would be able to meet the national plan for social and economic development. If so, it is the planner for economy and social development who decides the purpose and the policy. But if we can argue that the main objective of expansion is consumer satisfaction then we can say that consumer demands became the determinants of policy in the Egyptian situation for higher learning. However, we cannot argue this before discussing the policy of higher education in Egypt for the last two decades in particular.

It has been suggested earlier in this research and mentioned in many other researches(1) that it was the pressure of parents and young people which had created the crisis in university education, hence, the expansion in the university was not to meet the country's needs for experts and manpower only but to respond to the social and political pressures which, in the view of some, were influenced to a great extent by economic forces(2). This expansion was necessary to postpone the problem of finding jobs for the General Secondary school leavers. Many other developing countries follow this expensive way of keeping thousands of young people off the labour market(3). But, indeed, the economic

---

(1) Ghonem, S. et al., Investigation about the General Secondary Certificate 1974/75, unpublished typed manuscript, Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo (in Arabic).

(2) Harbison, F. and Mayers, C., Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resources Development, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1964, p. 186.

(3) Blaug, M., Education and the Employment Problem in Developing Countries, p. 20.

factor is not the whole story for the Egyptian society and its people. If this is the Government policy, and maybe part of its purpose, it is not the only factor affecting the students' demand for university education in Egypt. For example, this economic factor could not explain why 77.5% of the students' sample refused to obtain a job with a high salary without a university degree if they had had the chance. Social and economic explanations are both important for explaining the strong demand for education and also represent part of the explanation of the expansion in higher education.

In spite of university expansion in Egypt, the numbers of students are beyond its capacity. The Minister of Education reported that in the last decade the numbers of students has tended to rise at a rate of 10% every year, but that this increase failed to occur for the first time in 1976/77. There were several important reasons for this reduction in the expansion of university student numbers. First of all, the standard of economic development in Egypt after the June War of 1967 dropped. This affected the capacity of the economy and in turn the problem of the surplus of educated manpower in many fields became clear. Secondly, the Egyptian universities became crowded with students, and there were not enough financial resources nor adequate staff and equipment to maintain the standard of university education itself(1).

---

(1) Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the Peoples' Assembly, 1977, p. 30 (in Arabic).

It is possible, then, to say that although most of the reports and university Decrees stated that university education should correspond with the manpower need, the expansion of university education was, in fact, to satisfy the demand of the public, the students and their parents, not the country's needs. Many faculties accepted more students merely to reduce the problem of the General Secondary school leavers numbers. As the first report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology mentioned, acceptances in the Faculties of Sciences, Engineering, Medicine, Veterinary Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy and Agriculture decreased from 54.8% in 1967/68 to 36% in 1972/73 of the freshers enrolled in university courses. In other Faculties such as Arts, Law and Commerce, the proportion of the freshers increased from 21.7% in 1967/68 to 41.5% in 1972/73. This was despite the shortage of some specialists, such as physical science and language teachers in particular. Table XLV gives a more detailed comparative picture of the numbers of students accepted per faculty.

According to the content of Table XLV, it is clear that the expansion was not in the Faculties of Science branch where the shortage of their specialists is obvious. In the Faculties of Medicine, for example, the number of students decreased to less than half of the 1968 academic year. On the other hand, the proportion of the freshers accepted in faculties such as Arts were doubled and more

TABLE XLV

A comparison between the total accepted number in different faculties in the Egyptian universities in 1967/68 and 1972/73

Faculty	1967/68		1972/73	
	Number	%	Number	%
Arts	842	4.5	5,427	11.3
Archaeology	-	-	454	0.8
Agriculture	2,059	11	6,220	13
Commerce	2,389	12.7	9,397	19.6
Dar al Ulum	782	4.2	896	1.9
Dentistry	443	2.3	417	0.9
Economics	166	0.9	378	0.8
Education	2,421	12.9	5,563	11.7
Engineering	3,329	17.7	3,985	8.3
Girls'	659	3.5	1,616	3.4
Law	821	4.4	5,099	10.6
Mass Communication	-	-	252	0.5
Medicine	2,458	13.1	3,683	7.7
Nursing	397	2.1	258	0.5
Pharmacy	721	3.8	981	2.1
Sciences	680	3.6	2,578	5.4
Veterinary Medicine	617	3.3	765	1.6
Total	18,784	100	47,919	100

Source:

National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, First Session, 1975, App. No. 9 (in Arabic).

than trebled in faculties such as Law. This phenomenon would be due to two reasons mentioned previously, i.e. to satisfy public demand, and the tendency to expand the

educational facilities, especially in liberal arts rather than to expand the economic opportunities for those who use those facilities.

The lack of statistical evidence showing the shortage and surplus of graduates in different branches of studies and the job market or in the ranks of the Civil Service presents a difficulty for the researcher. The cost of study in the literary and scientific branch faculties might explain this however. For what are called in Egypt the 'theoretical' faculties, such as Arts, Law and Commerce, for example, where there is no need for laboratory facilities, the cost of a student is approximately one-hundred Egyptian pounds per year and for the practical faculties where laboratories are needed, the cost of a student is approximately two-hundred and twenty-five Egyptian pounds(1).

In fact the danger here lies not only in the imbalance between the number of graduates and the capacity of the country's economy, or in producing a surplus of humanities students but also in different aspects of the academic life in the university itself. On many occasions and in many reports, those responsible for university education referred to the increasing problem of the staff shortage against the flood of

---

(1) The Egyptian pound = The official exchange rate in 1977, which was approximately $2.56 (U.S.)
Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the Peoples' Assembly, p. 15.

students which might threaten academic standards themselves. In the academic year 1974/75, the shortage of academic staff was estimated at 1,055[1]. Many faculties in the new universities opened for students without adequate numbers of staff, even demonstrators and assistant lecturers, which might strongly affect the quality of university graduates. Table XLVI shows, for example, the departments and teaching staff members in the Faculty of Education at Qina in the academic year 1974/75. In that year this Faculty accepted 203 students from the scientific branch and 126 from the literary branch[2].

In fact, the new faculties are joined with the nearest older university for co-operation in the different aspects of academic and managerial experience until the new faculties can depend on their own resources and facilities. Although the Faculty at Qina is affiliated to the Faculty of Education in Asyut University, the problem still exists when there is no permanent staff as shown above. According to Table XLVI and information which has been published in the Cairo

---

(1) Al-Siba'i, L., 'New year and old problems are waiting for solution', Al-Ahram al Iqtisadi, 15 October 1976, No. 508, Cairo, p. 30 (in Arabic).

(2) Higher Council of Universities, Statistics of enrolled numbers in universities 1974/75, Extract from Table 21 (in Arabic).

TABLE XLVI

Number of members of staff, assistant lecturers and demonstrators in the Faculty of Education at Qina per ranks and departments 1974/75

Department	Professor	Assistant Professor	Lecturer	Assistant Lecturer	Demonstrator
English Language	-	2	-	-	2
Foundations of Education	-	-	-	-	2
Curriculum	-	-	-	-	4
Educational Psychology	-	-	-	-	1
Geography	-	-	-	-	1
Total	-	2	-	-	10

Source:

The Association of Arab Universities, Statistical illustration of the students numbers and the teaching staff in the Arab universities, Secretariat General, Cairo, 1975, Extract from Table 150 (in Arabic).

newspaper, Al-Ahram[1] about the situation in the other new faculties of Education, it is possible to say that usually new faculties are merely places in which to absorb students[2], or, there are scholars with very few masters. In addition to this shortage, at least 15% of the academic staff teaching in the Egyptian universities are borrowed to work in the universities of the other Arab countries, and a few in some international organizations, which makes the problem seriously greater[3].

Many steps have been taken to recruit new members of staff, by sending suitable numbers of postgraduate students abroad to gain the Ph.D., which is the minimum qualification for members of staff in Egyptian universities. Most of those who are sent abroad are demonstrators and assistant lecturers in the universities.

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 21 September 1978.

(2) 'Abīd, A.H., Philosophy of the Educational System and the Construction of Educational Policy, pp. 242-243 (in Arabic).

(3) Ministry of Higher Education, Memorandum concerning the enrolment of General Secondary examination students in universities and higher institutes and the preparation for the academic year 1974/75, p. 34 (in Arabic);

National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, p. 70 (in Arabic),

and,

Hyde, Georgie D.M., p. 146.

They go to many famous universities and scientific centres in the world; their number in 1976 reached 8,424[1]. At the beginning of 1980, 1,579 of these students who are at present abroad may return to Egypt to teach in its universities, especially in the new ones[2]. This, as well as the activities in post-graduate studies in Egypt itself, should produce many holders of Doctorates to bear the academic responsibility of teaching in the Egyptian universities[3].

In spite of this massive expansion in university education in Egypt, the Egyptian society still needs more and more institutions for higher learning as well as functional education for more than half of the population which remains illiterate. The ratio of student numbers in the universities and higher education sector to the whole population of Egypt is 0.9% only. The National Specialised Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology recommended that this

---

(1) Ministry of Education, Development of Universities, the basic principles on which the university development depends, p. 7 (in Arabic).

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, See table, p. 227 (in Arabic)

(3) Ismail, H.M., 'Formation of the teaching staff at Cairo University', in, Onushkin, V.G., (ed.), Planning the Development of Universities, I.L.E.P., UNESCO Press, Paris, 1974, pp. 225-240, and,
Hyde, Georgie D.M., p. 139.

ratio should rise to 1.2% by 1990. Meanwhile they propose to increase the number of universities in Egypt to release the increasing pressure of the students' demand and to spread out the university education as a service throughout the country(1).

According to this report, therefore, Egypt needs not only more universities, faculties and staff members, but also expansion in the number of students. It is interesting to mention at this point that this phenomenon in Egypt is different from the recent trend in universities in the United Kingdom for example. Here the situation is completely different owing to the fall in the birth-rate since 1964. It is expected that, by 1990, the universities may not find suitable numbers of young men and women, and they have now begun to consider other solutions completely different from the trend in Egypt and many developing countries(2).

It is appropriate at this point to tackle one of the fundamental questions of this research, which is concerned with the relation between the purposes of

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, pp. 38-40 and p. 190,
and also see, p. 304 of this thesis.

(2) Department of Education and Science, Higher Education in the 1990s: A discussion document, February 1978, p. 4.

university education in Egypt, as stated previously in this chapter, and the policy of access to university education.

It has been proposed recently that the purposes of the admission policy should be:

1) To satisfy the demand of manpower in Egypt and in other allied countries;

2) To improve the standard of the academic educational process to produce graduates of high quality(1).

In fact, there is no need to argue here the second point stated above. Meanwhile, it is easy to notice an essential change in the first point to the Presidential Decree of 1972, Article No. 1. The purpose of the university is not confined to providing the country with specialists, experts and technicians in different fields, but is also expanded to include supplying the allied countries, mainly the Arab countries, with their needs of qualified manpower from the Egyptian graduates.

It is very difficult to justify this extension. It may be said that the contemporary economic crisis in Egypt forced the policy-makers to search for any subsidiary solution to solve the problem of the graduate surplus in the domestic labour market. The planners also go along with this quick solution to unemployment of

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 43.

university graduates and other manpower, although they also agree that this policy of exporting the manpower has no benefits for the Egyptian economy(1). Other researchers doubt the effect of this policy in reducing the unemployment problem. More importantly, it has been said that,

> 'it is probable that the limited benefits of remittances, when weighed against the potential drawbacks which might accrue from the losses of Egypt's most highly qualified manpower do not in themselves justify the migration'(2)

Therefore, spending money on educating thousands of students in university and exporting them to other rich Arab countries may bring about a negative effect for the economic and social development of Egypt. This attitude of the policy-makers and planners is a masked 'brain drain' rather than investment in the Egyptian human capital. Usually, the allied countries need university teachers, school teachers and doctors, for which there is a shortage in the domestic market, and other highly skilled manpower very necessary to Egypt's own future(3).

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I, p. 14 and Vol. II, p. 183.

(2) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Country Case Study, Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 68.

(3) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 252,
and,
Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Country Case Study, Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 67.

As a matter of fact, these external markets have even greater need for highly-skilled, semi-skilled or intermediate personnel, who are not university graduates(1). In addition to this, the other Arab countries which represent most of the consumers of Egyptian manpower will need very few of the Egyptian graduates as most, if not all, of them have opened their own universities. Sooner or later, therefore, they will satisfy their needs from their own graduates. Thus, it is likely that 'the period of marked expansion of exports of Egyptian manpower is probably over'(2), and according to this view a very small proportion of Egyptians may find opportunity for employment in the rich Arab countries.

More serious is the imbalance of the educational situation in Egypt, which offers places in university for several thousands of the new generations while more than half of the Egyptian population remains illiterate. Moreover, the Government itself, as the largest provider of education, guarantees employment for the university graduates and certificate holders but, at the same time, does not guarantee the same right for unemployed, illiterate men and women. This, in fact, raises the

---

(1) Lewis, W.A., 'The University in Developing Countries, Modernization and Tradition', in, Tompson, K.W. et al.,(eds.), Higher Education and Social Change, Vol. II, Case Studies, p. 523.

(2) Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Country Case Study, Arab Republic of Egypt, p. 69.

pressure on the educational system as a means towards job security. At the same time, while the report of the National Council for Education proposed this future policy for the graduates and where there is a surplus of graduates in certain fields, there is a shortage at the skilled manual level in the domestic labour market. More importantly, the status quo of the economic situation in Egypt with its limited financial resources, even for the near future, does not justify exporting the highly educated people in a developing country such as Egypt to other, richer countries merely to reduce the pressure of the job seekers. Instead of opening the university faculties, especially humanities studies, to absorb numbers beyond its capacity to become a burden on the country's economy after their graduation, the policy should be changed to attract those who knock on the university doors to other productive fields needed in the domestic labour market firstly, and not to rely upon exporting the human capital.

It is true that change or improvement in the educational system, from the policy-makers' viewpoint, needs considerable effort in order to change, initially, the social attitude in order to reduce the demand for university education as an entry ticket for the Civil Service. It would be difficult to eliminate the 'certificate mindedness', as Blaug said, of the job seekers without a change in the system of payment in the

Government service as it is in terms of paper qualification(1). Egypt needs a practical and long-sighted policy to supply the demand of the country initially from all types of manpower at all levels and to pay them in the light of supply and demand rather than to impose on the external labour market uncertain demands of the Egyptian unemployed or inservice manpower. The co-operation with the other countries and transfer of human capital from country to country is accepted policy in our time, but it is a mistaken policy if Egypt accepts it as a remedy for the ill-planning of its educational system, or to counter its contemporary economic crisis. Therefore, the solution of the policy-makers in the specialised councils was to develop the policy which depends upon exporting the surplus of graduates.

The planners of the Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, recommended this policy as a part of the solution of the problem, but they were opposed to the expansion policy. As this plan pointed out, 'university enrolment will be limited'(2). Accordingly, 'the universities must train graduates for specific societal functions'. This

---

(1) Blaug, M., Education and the Employment Problem in Developing Countries, p. 65,
and,
Lewis, W.A., 'The University in Developing Countries, Modernization and Tradition', in, Thompson, K.W. et al., (eds.), Higher Education and Social Change: Promising Experiments in Developing Countries, Vol. II, pp. 516-529.

(2) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, The Egyptian People, Vol. II, p. 199 (in Arabic).

also, in their view, is accompanied by the policy of 'distribution of employment (which) must be firmly planned and enforced in order to ensure the most efficient use of our manpower resources'(1). To put this into action they proposed also to stop the expansion of provincial universities and, instead, vocational training should be developed and promoted to satisfy the country's demand and supply the other African and Arab countries with experts and specialists(2).

The above may reflect the difference between the planners and the policy-makers but it also reflects that the economic function or economic return of education, and the university in particular, is the dominant element in the scene. The importance of human capital also is very clear as both of them proposed exporting manpower as part of the short-term employment policy for the Egyptian graduates.

However, what university education in Egypt needs is to reformulate its purposes rather than reform, and this pattern should be followed in other aspects of society affected by university education. Indeed, any kind of change or adaptation has far to go before it meets the aspirations of the people.

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, The General Strategy for Economic and Social Development, Vol. I, p. 48.

(2) Ibid, Vol. II, p. 199.

The question again is what should the university stand for in Egypt?

This question has no easy answer, either for Egypt or for other developed and developing countries in particular. It involves many aspects and demands a wide debate(1). But the important matter here is whether the answer would be for Egypt, or any other country, to cut itself off from the rapid progress of knowledge and technology and its effect upon societies and individuals, and perhaps lose clear sight of the near future; or, in short, as it has been said,

> 'it lacks the imaginative force which will see tomorrow's society through the man of today rather than the man of tomorrow through the society of yesterday'(2)

On the other hand, any answer about the university's purposes in Egypt should be related to the Egyptian society itself, its past, the present challenge and the demand of the future. Egyptian universities should not seek a formula for themselves which reflects American, English, Russian or other universities but one

---

(1) See, for example,
Carrier, H., 'The Role of the University in the New Society', in, The European Universities 1975-85, Fifth General Assembly of the Standing Conference of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities, Pergamon, Oxford, 1975, pp. 9-20,
and,
Part IV of Thompson, K.W. et al., (eds.), Higher Education and Social Change: Promising Experiments in Developing Countries, Vol. II, Case Studies, pp. 439-535.

(2) Lauwerys, J.A. et al., Present Problems in the Democratization of Secondary and Higher Education, UNESCO, Paris, 1973, p. 110.

which reflects to some extent national tradition or temperament(1).

This does not mean that the purpose of the university is merely to reflect the fashion of the time or to respond to the pressures of the public and immediate societal demands or needs. In fact, these powerful non-academic external forces may enlarge the university's involvement with society but at the same time the university itself may lose its distinctive value and will do harm to both itself and the other institutions of higher learning in that society(2). Also, universities are not, and should never become, a 'system' such as those educational institutions for compulsory education. This means that the university in Egypt, and in many other countries, should protect itself and keep itself as the apex of the educational system, not as part of its compulsory schooling system or simply as a successive stage. The university should refuse to lower its standard to the school level simply in response to outside pressures of many different groups in the society(3).

---

(1) Luria, Zella and S.E., 'The Role of University: Ivory Tower, Service Station or Frontier Post?', in, Daedalus, Winter, 1970, pp. 75-83.

(2) Minogue, K.R., The Concept of a University, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London, 1973, p. 60.

(3) Jaspers, K., The Idea of the University, p. 134.

Although the university in Egypt plays an immense part in its society, it mainly serves aims set by others. This may define the problems of university education in Egypt, that undergraduate education in particular is shaped by the pressure of circumstances and not by clear thought directed towards definite ends. If we examine the list of university purposes in Egypt, in both official documents and scientific research, it becomes obvious that the purposes include many cultural activities which are not confined to the university alone but which should be the concern of many other organizations in the society outside the university. It must be emphasised at this point, that the university has a distinctive part to play in education which it does not share with other educational institutions. Any expansion of university extension work should be confined to its fundamental purposes, and the fields in which the university has particular advantages(1). Whatever the importance of the practical results of university education, no-one can ignore the important classical aspect of education, education for its own value, education that is intrinsically good. Building up its students' character in its community is very important as a part of its central mission, as the students' personality is an essential element of university work;

---

(1) Brook, G.L., The Modern University, Andre Deutsch, London, 1965, p. 15.

traditionally the real production of the university is man[1]. Perhaps one should ask 'Why?' and the answer is simple. Those students will carry these characteristics with them into the society outside the university gates. As university education is expanding as never before, the influence of thousands of graduates in the nation's social values is likely to be great[2]. Society can depend upon those men for building up its future, so the service of man as an individual and as a social being is the comprehensive way in which the university can serve its society and scientific progress[3].

To develop the university purposes in Egypt or to seek any change or adaptation to the society's new demands, it is inevitable to stress the traditional, fundamental function of the university. Most of the university Decrees after the 1950s were keen to link university and society. The most traditional function was stated in an obscure manner simply to stress the relation between university and society[4]. This, in some

---

(1) Evans, D.E., Universities Past and Present, University College of Swansea, October 1953, pp. 12-15.

(2) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, p. 148.

(3) Carrier, H., 'The Role of the University in the New Society', in, The European Universities 1975-85, p. 19.

(4) See this chapter, pp. 256-7.

scholars' views, shows that,

> 'the university as an institution has become the object of an endless domestic guerrilla, part organized, part fortuitous'(1)

However, the education of the university scholar was not as clear as the relation between university and society. So, to paint a new picture of university functions in Egypt it should be attached to the universities' historical or traditional functions.

Throughout the history of the university, until recently, there was one single dominant function, but this is not to say that the university was isolated from its society. Plato's Academy, for example, was not an 'ivory tower'; and even if it was, it has a social purpose. It was not a professional institution except for one supreme profession, that of the statesman guiding his State. The pursuit of wisdom, therefore, was for the sake of the State and the Civil Service, and these were the aims of the Academy(2). For the universities in the Middle Ages, as for the medieval Oxford University, the aim was to serve the Church (which indeed was also the world). It may be said that these medieval universities aimed to educate a small fraction of people but those well educated persons were practically motivated also to a definite vocational bias towards those

---

(1) Barzun, J., The American University: How it runs, Where it is going, Oxford University Press, London, 1969, p. 2.

(2) Evans, D.E., Universities Past and Present, p. 4.

professions most needed in their society, for example, to enter Law, Medicine, the Church and Governmental posts[1]. Even Newman's definition of the function of the university stated, 'it is a training for good members of society'[2]. We can see it in the broad sense of 'good members' implying that the university would be fit for their society's social and intellectual demands[3].

Whatever the purposes were, it is obvious that the students are the university's centre of concern. The university existed for educating its students, whether this was to teach them knowledge for its own sake or for research to seek the discovery of new knowledge; the main purposes were designed to develop qualities in scholastic thinking, and to produce cultivated men and women, good or useful members of the society.

> 'It is the students who are taught to follow the facts wherever they may lead, to distinguish the essential from the irrelevant, never to suppress unwelcome evidence, not to rely uncritically on the judgement of others, to have tolerance for the sincerely held views of other people, even if they do not share them, or however the objective may be

---

(1) Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber, London, 1965, p. 17.

(2) Newman, Cardinal John Henry, The Idea of a University, Discourse VI in particular, Image Book edition, New York, 1959.

(3) Livingstone, R., Some Thoughts on University Education, National Book League, Cambridge University Press, 1948, p. 11.

> defined. It is the student who will receive either the good basic general education or the highly specialized instruction or the direct professional preparation'(1)

Accordingly, the university, as it was, should be a selective institution(2). This selectivity may make a crucial difference between university and other institutions of higher education. The university should also be free to defend its own criterion of selection which is related to its own function and philosophy. For Egypt in particular it is beyond its capacity to ignore selection and follow the pattern shown by other countries' universities who depend upon 'survival of the fittest'(3). To 'drop out' is a policy which the Egyptian society cannot afford(4), and from the students' point of view also it has a bad effect on their personalities. Although university education in Egypt is free, the student depends upon his family for financial support, and, therefore, he usually hopes to

---

(1) Empling, J., A Fresh Look at Higher Education, pp. 25-26.

(2) Habakkuk, H.J., 'The university at the approach of the twenty-first century', Paper delivered to the Sixth General Conference of the International Association of Universities, Moscow, 19-25 August, 1975, I.A.U., Paris, 1976, p. 99.

(3) Hilton, I., 'The Legacy of '68', The Sunday Times, 14 May, 1978, p. 17.

(4) See, for example,
Astin, A.W., Preventing Students From Dropping-Out, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1975, p. 13,
and,
Hearnden, A., Paths to University: Preparation, Assessment, Selection, Macmillan Education, London, 1975, p. 15.

finish his degree course at least in order to give his family emotional reward by his success. Perhaps some students were driven by a heavy sense of obligation to their families, where the extended family in Egypt still exists. Hence, the student feels that he must gain a professional position which will enable him to help his family and still live at least a modestly affluent middle-class life(1).

It is not always the cultural aspects of university education or its social benefits, but in the contemporary literature of university and higher education the question arises about the relation between the number of graduates and the jobs available in the society. Few can deny the economic returns of university education or the danger of producing graduates in numbers which may exceed job opportunities in their societies. Egypt, as many other developing countries, is facing the question: 'Are we producing the wrong number of graduates for the available jobs? If so, should we change the number of graduates or should we change our ideas of what jobs they are to do?'(2). According to this view, the university is a post-school training, or as it has become in some

---

(1) For some clarification, see,
Wollacott, M., 'Middle class holds the key to the nation's open door', and, 'The Cancer eating Egypt', in, The Guardian, 23 and 25 May, 1978, p. 5 and p. 7.

(2) Greenaway, H., 'Future Problems in the Employment of Graduates', in, International Journal for Higher Education and Educational Planning, Vol. 2, No. 2, May 1973, Elsevier, Amsterdam, p. 274.

countries, 'a functional vocational school'[1]. The question is whether this training should always be the university's responsibility.

The economists usually have an answer to this question. In one view,

> 'learning for the sake of learning is a noble objective of a few scholars, but learning in order to prepare for jobs and careers is the goal of the vast majority of the people'(2)

The right of work cannot be isolated from the right to education; both the needs of society and the personal qualifications of students should be taken into account. The guarantee of each citizen's basic right to education is very important, but can this apply to university education too? If the answer to this question is 'Yes', then the following question must be 'How?'; if the answer is 'No', then who should be given the chance of university education? The answer to these questions is the purpose of the next chapter.

---

(1) Wagner, G., The End of Education, A.S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1976, p. 17.

(2) Harbison, F. and Mayers, C.H., Education, Manpower and Economic Growth, p. 186.

CHAPTER VII

Recommendations for revising the university selection system

The social demand for university or equivalent higher education in Egypt, as in many other countries, reflects not only individual needs resulting from the contemporary way of life, but also economic necessities. The previous chapter examined the economic function of higher education, and the problem of the growing unemployability of youth and of university graduates. But university education in Egypt is not only an economic problem; it is also, and above all, a sociological and political problem, so it is highly dangerous to ignore the attitudes of the people and their expectations of university education. The educational institutions may be regarded as primarily designed for people, they must therefore be open to all and they must try to allow each individual to proceed as far as his or her particular abilities permit. The notion of 'education as an investment' may indicate the relative economic benefits of university education to individuals and to the nation(1). Yet, it is impossible to solve the problem of employment of university graduates on a purely economic basis; human and political factors must be taken into account.

---

(1) Hausman, L., 'Pressure, Benefits and Options', in, Wilson, L. and Mills, M., (eds.), Universal Higher Education, American Council of Education, Washington D.C., 1972, p. 11.

The objectives of the national plan of education itself and educational policy differ from country to country according to the priorities of problems with which the nation has to cope[1]. Among the many 'policy' objectives of university education in Egypt, as the previous chapter has shown, is the stress upon the university's commitment to society: the university has a duty to serve in the area of 'investment' the most valuable wealth of Egypt, 'human capital'[2]. Human investment may indicate in this context that it is to enable the population to take full advantage of progressively advanced and more complicated degrees of knowledge production mainly by the developed countries. But this is accompanied by a strong emphasis on the economic function of university education and its relation to the manpower needed. The university, therefore, is to be viewed not simply as consumption by the policy-makers but as an indispensable concomitant of a developing and expanding economy.

From the point of view of socio-economic development, increasing the quality and availability of education is vital to both national security and domestic well-being. The most important task of the educational system is to provide not only the required numbers of graduates for all sectors of economic and social activity, but also to

---

(1) Panitchpakdi, S., Educational Growth in Developing Countries, p. 6.

(2) See Chapter VI of this thesis, p. 257.

provide graduates possessing the required knowledge, technical skills, motivation and understanding of social realities(1). In fact, among developing countries, Egypt is not an exception: the aim is not only technical progress or economic growth but also national security and domestic well-being. The battle for modernization and national survival in Egypt will be won or lost on the road from primary school to the higher institutions of education.

Education for developing countries, in particular, is the surest and most profitable investment a nation can make. The accumulation of intellectual capital is comparable in importance with the accumulation of physical capital. It is essential for politicians and planners to understand that,

> 'a development plan which does not give high priority to human capital formation is simply unrealistic and almost certainly destined to fail. For example, experience has shown repeatedly that high-level manpower does not appear automatically or magically as dams, roads, factories, hospitals, radio stations and airports come into existence'(2)

It is true that education alone has no magic power to change a nation from developing to developed, and it is too much to expect education to change the society's

---

(1) Singer, H.W., 'Education and Economic Development', reprinted in, Livingstone, L., (ed.), Economic Policy For Development, p. 51.

(2) Harbison, F.H., 'The Strategy of Human Resource Development in Modernizing Economies', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Washington, 16-20 October, 1961, p. 11.

culture and life by itself. However, with the recognition that education is only one strain in culture,

> 'educational reforms are likely to be the result, rather than the cause, of the alteration of social perspectives'(1)

Meanwhile, if we bear in mind that the aim of education at any level should be the individual himself rather than economic development and technological growth then the influences of the educational system with those of the other elements of the culture, might gradually change the face of the nation.

In spite of the attractiveness of the idea that education, and in particular scientific and technical training, is the road to economic growth in developing countries, this research does not look at education only in the abstract concept of 'education as the goose that lays the golden egg', as many politicians in the developing countries see it. It is also very dangerous to accept that the necessary resources could not be used until they were created because this may lead us to ask, if there is an answer, do the resources come first or education? It seems, in some views, that the politicians of the developing countries have no option but to lay emphasis on education(2). From reading the literature on the subject as well as from surveying the

---

(1) Hutchins, R.M., The Learning Society, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1970, p. 125.

(2) Richmond, W.K., The Industry of Education, Methuen, London, 1969, p. 28.

international scene, it remains an act of faith to believe that, in all advanced industrial nations, there is an association between affluence and a wide range of educational services(1). In spite of this recognition of the importance of education in supporting the nation's economic growth, it is not simply a matter of cause and effect(2). Therefore, directing the Egyptian system of education or university education in particular to provide sharp and superficial means of training for economic growth may probably fail to produce economic growth, as it might fail to meet the consumer's demand. As one of the O.E.C.D. reports pointed out,

> 'education is regarded as a priority objective which cannot be subject to hard-and-fast financial constraints, and which demands sustained efforts to improve its quality and increase its resources'(3)

However, the previous chapter shows that there is an over-production of university graduates in Egypt which forced the policy-makers to propose exporting the graduates and others to the allied countries. Although this argument sounds correct to many, it does not mean to

---

(1) Komarov, V.E., 'The Relationship between Economic Development and the Development of Education', in, Boman, M.J. et al., (eds.), Reading in the Economic of Education, UNESCO, Paris, 1971, pp. 85-93.

(2) Berg, I., Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1973, Foreword.

(3) O.E.C.D., Education Policies and Trends, Paris, 1977, p. 18.

say that Egypt really has a surplus of graduates. To outline the situation, as seen in this research, it is more accurate to consider the phenomenon as a mismatch between employment opportunities and job expectations.

The real unemployment in Egypt is not among the university graduates or even the secondary school leavers but among the uneducated. The ratio of unemployment, as an example, in 1976 was 12.63% of the total manpower numbers. In 1980, the planners expect that it will be 10%(1). The reason behind this is that until now the Government has still been following a policy of full graduate employment; this applies also to the secondary school leavers(2). Hence, the appearance of graduate over-production must not be taken simply as evidence of over-qualified manpower, but it may be seen as a symptom of general unemployment which might have resulted from the weakness of Egyptian economy rather than anything else.

In fact, the quick solution, which might be proposed, to reduce the demand for jobs, is to reduce the number of students who enter university, as it is in the view of Egypt's policy-makers(3). Reducing numbers by any ways and means may reduce the numbers of students but

---

(1) Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. II, p. 186.

(2) See Cairo newspaper, Al-Ahram, 7 February 1978, p. 1, and 12 March 1979, p. 1.

(3) Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Speech before the Peoples' Assembly, February 1977, p. 21 (in Arabic),
and,
Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 2 June 1978, p. 5.

might not reduce the demands of the students and parents, or the university education prestige in Egyptian society. This policy may build up a strong wave of frustration among many groups in the society.

The concept of demand for university education is not easy to define. It has various quantitative and qualitative characteristics: it is understood as,

> 'the aggregate of private demands resulting from complex individual choices, or as the collective expression of the requirements of groups, social classes or societies as a whole'(1)

So, the demand for any particular kind of education is not usually a static phenomenon, but is influenced by many factors in the society.

On the grounds of the questionnaire's results, it is possible to say that the demand for better educational services, particularly at the upper levels, will increase. First of all, the level of expectations from higher education is steadily rising, so that what was good enough for the parents is not held to be good enough for their children. The problem of fulfilling the social demand for university education appears to be growing, particularly as levels of real income increase. The expansion in university education in Egypt, at the present, is not simply due to the choice of the Government but to a large extent to the determination of the students, families and the rest of the society. This

---

(1) O.E.C.D., Education Policies and Trends, p. 14.

research acknowledges that it is very difficult for the politicians, as well as the planners, in Egypt to propose and exercise a policy of strict control over entrance to university because this will oppose social attitudes. For example, any proposal for expansion in post-secondary education usually appears in the university pattern, i.e. increasing the number of universities or higher institutes affiliated to the universities. The National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology (1977) has recommended that the number of universities be increased to between fifteen and twenty-five by 1990 by establishing a new one, or by dividing the large universities into two or three campuses(1). Moreover, although the Higher Council of Universities in Egypt announced that the universities would accept 65,980 freshers for 1978/79(2), this number became 76,200; 8,600, or as the Minister of Education mentioned, about 10%, of these from the exceptional categories(3). These latter will be offered

---

(1) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, pp. 38-40, and see, Fig. VIII, for more details about this proposed expansion from 1976 to 1990.

(2) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 8 August 1978.

(3) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 14 August 1978.

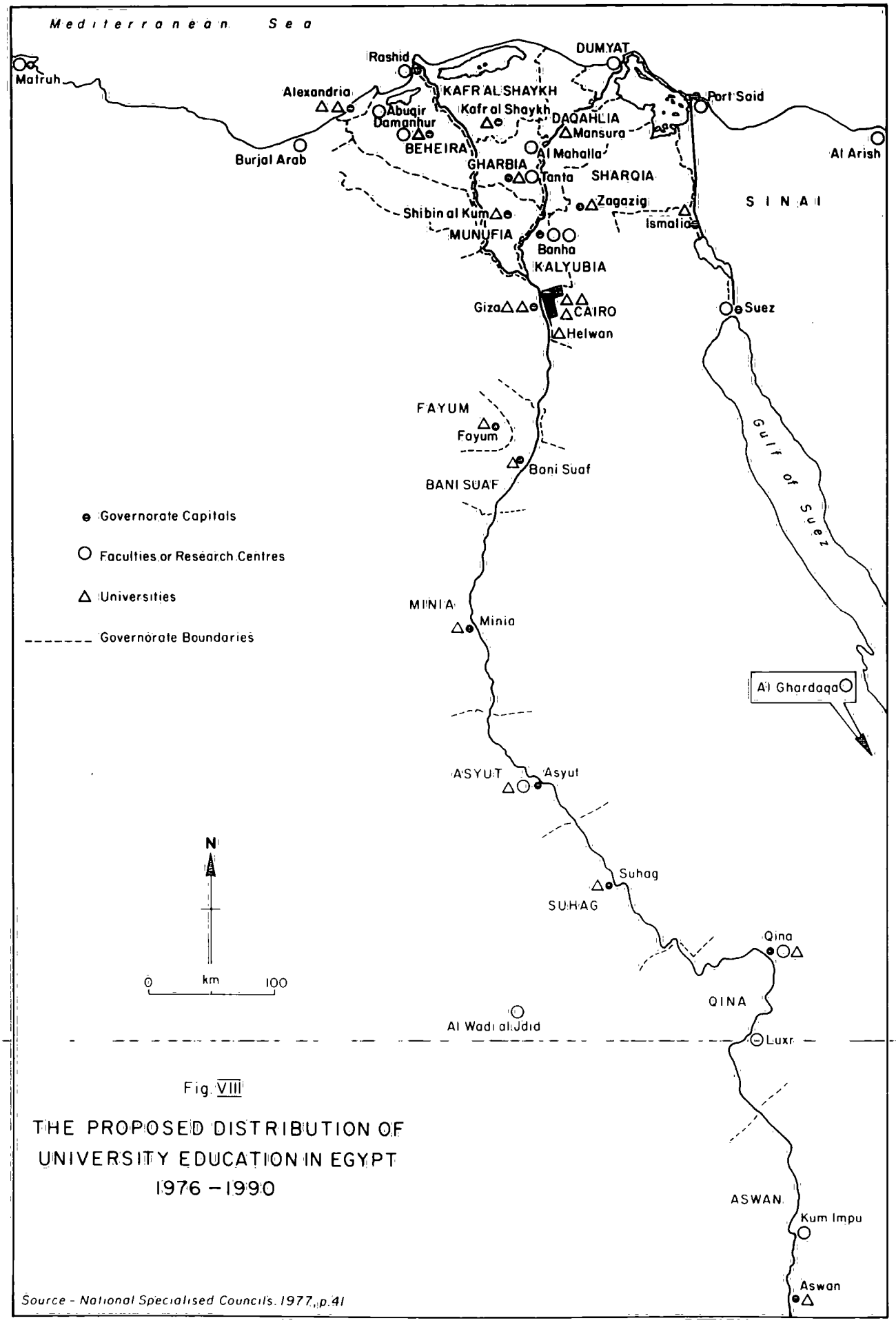


Fig. VIII

THE PROPOSED DISTRIBUTION OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN EGYPT 1976 – 1990

Source - National Specialised Councils. 1977, p.41

places in university although they did not gain high enough grades to reach the standard of the other students. Non-academic factors, therefore, may open a back door to allow many more weak students to gain places in university, which is against the announced policy in the five year plan(1).

From the Egyptian university undergraduates' view, as has been reflected in the results of the questionnaire, their demand for university education is not as economically important as the social status or as knowledge desired for its own sake. This contrasts with an affluent society such as the United States of America, for example, where the students seek more education for three identifiable types of reason: money, status and rewarding work(2). Any change in university education policy in Egypt, therefore, should be determined in the light of many interdependent factors. Only if university education becomes part of a closely

---

(1) Al-Siba'i, L., 'The Minister Confesses', in, Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 2 September 1978, p. 5 (in Arabic).
and also see,
The introduction of this thesis, p.xxxiv.

(2) Reubens, B.G., 'College and Jobs: International Problems', in, Vermilye, D.W., (ed.), Relating Work and Education, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1977, pp. 182-194,
and,
Bowles, S. and Gintis, H., Schooling in Capitalist America, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1977 (Reprinted), pp. 215-216.

integrated and comprehensive plan for development involving both the governmental and private economic sectors and including all levels of society, can it play its full part in the development and modernization of Egyptian society. Expansion in higher education in Egypt is not a waste of Egypt's limited resources if it is planned carefully. The assumption is that the investment in man or 'human capital' for developing countries is not less important than the investment in 'physical capital'(1). In Egypt, as well as in other developing countries, where time is less valuable than in the developed nations, the earnings differential after education means a contribution to the educated person and to the national product. As Singer pointed out,

> 'the productivity of educational investment is in fact considerably higher than the average yield of physical investment'(2)

It is not a luxury to give the most able students a university education; it is not a luxury to reserve some financial resource for this purpose - it is an absolute necessity. In the light of the democratic spirit of our time, the massive increase of knowledge and sciences, the

---

(1) Paners, H.S., 'Planning Education for Economic and Social Development', reprinted in, Baxter, C. et al., (eds.), Economics and Education Policy, Longman, London, 1977, p. 114.

(2) Singer, H.W., 'Education and Economic Development', reprinted in, Livingstone, L., (ed.), Economic Policy For Development, p. 61.

technological progress and the strong need for Egypt to develop its wealth of potential human capital, higher education is a must. University education must be available, to be sure, not for all but certainly, as Brubacher pointed out, 'for many more than the previous few'(1). It might be worth noting here that even when we are talking about much more higher education or mass higher education, this does not imply that it is for all the age groups or for most of them, but still only for a minority or the few(2).

On the other hand, scholarship is not an end in itself, and the university should not merely serve the State and its development goals. It is very dangerous to open universities merely as a means of achieving a technological regulation or economic development alone. In fact, to supply the State with trained personnel is a narrow economic and political end(3). Therefore, if the main purpose of the university in Egypt is to serve the status quo only, there is no need for the university

---

(1) Brubacher, J.S., Basis for Policy in Higher Education, p. 6.

(2) Burgess, T., 'Excellence or Equality: A Dilemma in Higher Education', in, Higher Education Review, Vol. 10, No. 2, Spring 1978, p. 49,
and,
See the introduction of this thesis, Fig. II.

(3) Stoneman, C., 'The Purpose of Universities and Colleges and Their Government', in, Rubinstein, D. et al., (eds.), Education For Democracy, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, reprinted 1972, pp. 201-

at all and any other educational institution might achieve this single purpose better. The nation that fails to develop its human talents fails to develop much else as well. The university in Egypt should respond to the challenge of our age and the very near unknown future by becoming purposefully and actively engaged in the adventure of social development as well as economic growth. It is important for Egyptian students not just to gain qualifications for jobs or social status or even knowledge for its own sake; university education for personal development and cultural enrichment for the whole society is important too(1).

The question for Egypt, as for many other countries, is not whether we can afford university education, but whether we can afford to be without it(2). If the choice before many nations at the present time is the choice between quantity and quality in university education, for the Egyptian society an effective balance must be struck. Until now, universities in Egypt have basically been conservative institutions. Traditional methods of slow change in university education policy, methods and structure not practical for the developing countries.

---

(1) Luria, Z. and S.E., 'The Role of the University: Ivory Tower, Service Station or Frontier Post?', Daedalus, Winter 1970, pp. 75-83.

(2) Butler, Lord, The Responsibilities of Education, Longman, London, 1968, p. 38.

Therefore, lack of innovation might mean the failure of universities to adapt to the social climate which might lead to sterile institutions. Innovation and change will help the university to respond and make it ready to adapt its function to the national industrial and academic demands rather than being a reactionary institution against any new vision of national policy(1). A radical re-examination of Egyptian university organization, policy, purpose, content and method of selection is essential to the fulfilment of its task in society(2). More innovation in the university will not produce support, but its absence will preclude it except from those with the courage to oppose these agents of cultural uniformity(3).

It seems that most of the world's countries, not only the developing ones, are facing the same situation in their search for a solution to problems such as the character of higher education or the role of the university

---

(1) Belknap, R.L. and Kuhns, R., Tradition and Innovation: General Education and the Re-integration of the University. A Columbia Report, Columbia University Press, New York, 1977, p. 6.

(2) Vaizey, J., 'Some of the Main Issues in the Strategy of Educational Supply', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Part III, p.69.

(3) Ashby, E., 'Reconciliation of Tradition and Modernity in Universities', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, p. 13.

in society or both. Within the higher education community itself, the central question which needs answering is about the objective of university education[1]. The university in our time is threatened not only by the external dynamic pressures of expansion or by the statesmen and others concerned with the future of the nation but also by rapidly expanding knowledge, its application and implications[2]. So, how can these two-fold threats be met without causing any harm to the university's traditional missions and its essential features? The combination of innovation and conservatism each in its respective context, is the paradoxical situation facing university education in Egypt.

The questions that pose themselves strongly here might be, university education for what and for whom? The previous chapter detailed the policy objectives of university education in Egypt which are based upon the

---

(1) Dungan, R.A., 'Higher Education: The Efforts To Adjust', Daedalus, Winter 1970, p. 141.

(2) Elliott, L.H., 'Changing Internal Structures: The Relevance of Democracy', in, Caffrey, J., (ed.), The Future Academic Community, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1969, p. 47,
and,
Carrier, H., 'The Role of the University in the New Society', in, The European Universities 1975-1985, p. 12.

traditional objectives of university education. These objectives were a result of cumulative growth over the whole period since the beginning of the 20th Century, according to the stage of university development and the expectations of the country's intellectual and political leaders. University education in that is not unique. In Ashby's book, Technology and the Academics, he wrote about the purpose of the university, that:

> 'There has been an accretion of functions over the centuries. From Bologna and Salerno comes the function of the university to train students for certain professions, like the church, medicine and law. From Oxford and Cambridge comes the university's function as a nursery for gentlemen, statesmen and administrators. From Gottingen and Berlin comes the function of the university as a centre for scholarship and research. From Charlottenburg and Zurich and Massachusetts comes the function of the university to be a staff college for technological experts and specialists. Some of these functions were created by the scientific revolution; others were deeply influenced by it. The universities have responded to all of them and repudiated none; but adaptation is by no means complete. Form is not everywhere fitted to function. Indeed the cardinal problem facing universities today is how to reconcile these four different functions in one and the same institution'(1)

Accordingly, universities as social institutions have purposes like many other social institutions. If one accepts these common purposes already given, there is no single purpose but many, and many groups, therefore, to

---

(1) Ashby, E., Technology and the Academics, Macmillan, New York, 1966, (reprinted), pp. 68-69.

be served[1]. The minimal functions of the university are the advancement and transmission of knowledge. Firstly, then, the university might be regarded as an agency of intellectual and cultural transmission and dissemination. The second important function is as a research institution. Research in this context means the discovery of new knowledge and the extension of existing knowledge. The importance of scientific research lies in personal and national development, and even for no purpose at all beyond the realization that most knowledge eventually comes to serve the human society. Actually these two functions are becoming inseparable, because up-to-date teaching must continually be fecundated by the original contributions of research[2].

Meanwhile, the university is an institution whose essential purpose is education which has students as its main input, and teaching or transmission of knowledge and the search for truth as its main activity. Its

---

(1) Goodlad, S., Conflict and Consensus in Higher Education, Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1976, p. 6.

(2) Corwin, R., Education in Crisis: A sociological analysis of schools and universities in transition, John Wiley, New York, 1974, p. 104,
and,
Brook, L., The Modern University, Andre Deutsch, London, 1965, p. 16.

invisible product is knowledge and its real output is cultivated men and women, those graduates who have completed certain types of education and professional training. This intellectual aspect of the university mission has a very important social implication because educating a young man or woman means preparing a citizen. A well educated man is a good citizen, and this is a prerequisite for building up a good society which requires some contribution from each individual in his own sphere of interest(1). In the eyes of some:

> 'one does not make a man except in the bosom of social ties where there is an awakening of civic understanding and civic virtues'(2)

Human investment can enable the population to take advantage of progressively advanced and more complicated degrees of knowledge. On the other hand, an alternative view might arise, not apposed to the above, but reminding us not to rely too much on the university alone. Vaizey writes that social problems can rarely, if ever, be solved by education alone or by educational fashion(3).

---

(1) Newman, Cardinal, The Idea of a University, Image edition, New York, 1959, p. 164.

(2) Martain, J., Education At The Crossroads, p. 15.

(3) Vaizey, J., Education in the Modern World, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London, 1969, Second impression, p. 187.

With rapid social change and economic development there is a growing need for engineers, doctors, scientists, lawyers and many others trained in new professions. The university in Egypt, as elsewhere, has always undertaken this task of preparing most of its students for certain professions and different fields of specialization(1). It is Jasper's view that university is not only aiming to educate the whole man, or seeking new knowledge by the means of research only, but should be an institution for professional training These three functions are united, and 'by isolating them the spirit of the university perishes'(2). The profession itself, in others' views, 'gains its identity by making the university the port of entry'(3). In many countries, and Egypt is no exception, the attachment over the years of professional expectations to what are basically academic qualifications created a critical situation(4). This professional qualification is used by society as a qualification for jobs and the occupational structures. In Egypt, in particular, the university

---

(1) Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, p. 71.

(2) Jaspers, K., The Idea of the University, pp. 53-54.

(3) Keer, C., The Uses of the University, p. 111.

(4) Fletcher, R., What's Wrong With Higher Education?, Methuen, London, 1975, p. 5.

degree is the direct route of entry to occupational advancement. The expectation is that the demand for job-qualification will increase and, in turn, degrees and jobs 'will increasingly become blind alleys'(1). It is not only the individual's demand for university education which increases his earning power for living and personal development, but it is part of the university's function in Egypt also to 'ensure the link between university education and the needs of the society and production' as the law of 1972 pointed out(2).

The need of society for leadership, educated experts, technologists and professionals demands a continuous flow of new knowledge. Such demands and expectations reflect the vital role that knowledge has to play in the economy in market terms and in social implications. The increasing responsibilities of the academic community have thrust universities into the midst of social issues that in turn are creating a new commitment for the university(3).

---

(1) Holloway, B.J., 'Higher Education and Employment', in, Jevans, F.R. and Turner, H.D., (eds.), What Kinds of Graduates Do We Need?, Oxford University Press, London, 1972, p. 29.

(2) See Chapter VI of this thesis, p. 257.

(3) O.E.C.D., Institutional Management in Higher Education, Report of a Conference to discuss the results of research initiated and co-ordinated by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation in the O.E.C.D., Paris, 1972, p. 16.

At this point a question may be asked about the place of the undergraduates themselves in the purposes of university education. As mentioned previously, the students were the most neglected element in the stated function of the university in Egypt(1). It is this researcher's view that individuals themselves are the cornerstone of a university, and this in turn helps us to think of them as a valuable target. A university is not merely buildings, classrooms, laboratories, libraries and halls of residence. It is the character of the university community itself where the teacher and the taught work together and all the above can help to create and, to a certain extent, fulfil university objectives(2). Teachers are important, and scientific research as well, but they cannot be at the same level of importance without scholars, without active communication with the young seekers of truth.

The university's productive intellectual efforts should consist of preparing today's youth to solve their society's problems of tomorrow. University education in Egypt should be aimed at developing in the student the capacity for independent and critical thought, and interest in pursuing the root of a problem. In addition

---

(1) See Chapter VI of this thesis, pp. 257-258.

(2) Oakeshott, M., Rationalism in Politics and Other Essays, Methuen, London, 1962, pp. 311-312.

to fostering this general attitude, the university provides the student with specialized knowledge in given fields and teaches methods of scientific inquiry. While the reality may fall short of this ideal, it is felt that university education, on the whole, has produced not only research workers who in their turn will advance knowledge, but more generally, people with a broadened outlook, possessing many of the abilities and qualities necessary for leadership in a variety of fields. The professional preparation of graduates should be 'for jobs that can only be filled by people with a basically scientific outlook'(1).

Indeed, the university is a community within the whole community and it cannot remove itself from the problems of society. However, individual development should not be sacrificed to technological or cultural advancement; or, as some see it, 'not conducted for the purpose of maximizing the lifetime of earnings of its graduates'(2). The development of the individual is not only a major purpose of the university but an essential aim of the political and social order itself.

---

(1) Jaspers, K., The Idea of a University, p. 58.

(2) Blaug, M., 'The Productivity of Universities', reprinted in, Blaug, M., (ed.), Economics of Education, Vol. II, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1969, p. 314.

In short, the major functions of the university would be grouped, as Sanford put it, under three main headings:

> '(a) the development of the individual;
> (b) the preservation and advancement of culture, and
> (c) the maintenance and future development of technology'(1)

These functions are interrelated; each depends to some extent on the other.

As the university has the right to maintain its control over academic matters, the university in Egypt should enjoy a similar right in selecting its candidates. In connection with the university's objectives in Egypt, the citizens and the Government expect that more education with equal access to university will provide social mobility and increasing opportunity for participation in the fruits of a socialist society. It might be possible to say that the mass clientele of a university is not concerned with the intrinsic quality of education or university experience itself, or with its ethical and spiritual contribution to society. Their concern focuses rather on the distribution of faculty places and prestige. In education, it is difficult to separate the interest of the individual as a consumer from his interest as a future producer and income earner.

---

(1) Sanford, N., 'The Contribution of Higher Education to Society', in, Niblett, W.R., (ed.), Higher Education Demands and Response, Tavistock, London, 1969, pp. 8-9.

This applies to Egypt and many other places[1]. The university is not an egalitarian political institution; its campus is not the place where social justice, in a narrow sense, can be practised. Social reform should take place primarily in the whole society. Equality of educational opportunity, as this research sees it, means that the university should encourage everyone with the required aptitude and ability to take up university education regardless of their family's financial means. The distribution of Egyptian students into the different faculties according to their total marks, in the rigid process described previously, may provide a just basis in the eyes of the public, but it may not provide equality of opportunity[2].

One of the main steps which could be taken to avoid the pressure of sheer numbers of students in universities would be that,

> 'the national concern must move beyond a focus on access to a concern with the effectiveness of the educational process in relation to the individual'(3)

---

(1) Wilson, B., 'The Needs of Students', in, Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber, London, 1965, p. 50,
and,
Reubens, B.G., 'College and Jobs: International Problems', in, Vermilye, D.W., (ed.), Relating Work and Education, p. 184f.

(2) See the analysis of Question 24 of the questionnaire, Chapter V of this thesis, p. 231f in particular.

(3) The Second Newman Report: National Policy and Higher Education, Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, N.D., p. 5.

It is important, too, to give the student a place to learn at any institution according to his ability and desire. The strong motivation towards education 'for its own sake', as pointed out in the questionnaire, should be invested, not wasted due to barriers or obstacles.

For Egypt to face the future, the solution is not more university education, nor is it to reduce the numbers of students: the call is for diversity in the nature of our future provision for post-secondary education(1).

As a matter of fact, it is not possible to start from the apex of the education system, i.e. tertiary education, and ignore the previous stages of education and the mass of the whole society. As the experience of many countries shows, education begins as being thought of as a privilege for the few and ends as a necessity which is taken for granted by all(2). The slogans, 'higher education for everybody', or 'university for all', or even 'mass higher education' reflect this state of affairs in the advanced countries(3). A similar course of events is now in the

---

(1) Eustace, R., 'Diversity and Esteem in Higher Education', Journal of Social Policy, Vol. 3, Part 4, October 1974, pp. 317-325.

(2) Pedley, R., Towards Comprehensive University, Macmillan, London, 1977, p. 13.

(3) See, as an example,
Furniss, W.T., Higher Education For Everybody? Issues and Implications, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1971,
and,
O.E.C.D., Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas,
and,
Skarabel, J., 'Perspectives on Open Admission', in, Wilson, L. and Mills, O., (eds.), Universal Higher Education, pp. 265-286.

process of repeating itself in the developing countries. The main concern in Egypt, for example, was compulsory education, followed by expansion in secondary schools and the tide of student numbers and demand reached the university gate. A series of continuous comprehensive and flexible changes in the structure of education should, therefore, be the purpose of the planners, policy-makers and educators also, for the possible future changes(1). The university alone could not adapt its purpose for the changing future, but society must decide what role the university can play in the context of social development.

The official statements, policies or decrees could not play a strong part without support from the whole society. The decision on gaining places in university, as the analysis of the questionnaire shows, was a pre-university process. Entering university for young people is, therefore, 'almost an unquestioned act of faith', for Egyptian students as well as for the students of the United States(2). The choice of faculty reflects, to a large extent, the students' career expectations in Egypt's student sample(3). This early choice is not merely the

---

(1) Onushkin, V.G., (ed.), Planning the Development of Universities, Vol. I, UNESCO and IIEP, Paris, 1971, p. 279.

(2) Sandeen, A., Undergraduate Education: Conflict and Change, Lexington Books, Massachusetts, 1976, p. 1.

(3) See the analysis of Question 6 of the questionnaire, Chapter V of this thesis, p. 171f.

young person's decision, his own interest and ideals, but it also reflects his family's aspirations, the other adults' expectations and the favourable attitudes among pupils towards academic subjects and education in general(1). Accordingly, the number of students who enter and complete the admission process is affected by non-academic forces and are not related to intellectual values which operate outside the formal selection procedure(2).

The question of who gains a place in university, therefore, is more than a matter of admission requirements or even finance. It is also more than a question of talent or aspirations; it depends essentially upon the society's total concept of what education means and what it can be expected to accomplish. In short, as in Ashby's view, if there are social or economic benefits of post-secondary education, the answer to this question is 'everyone may claim a right of access to it'(3).

---

(1) Vernon, P.E., 'The Pool of Ability', The Sociological Review, Monograph No. 7, October 1963, pp. 45-57.

(2) Thresher, B.A., College Admissions and the Public Interest, College Entrance Examination Board, New York, 1966, p. 6,
and,
Reid, W.A., 'Choice and Selection: Social Process of Transfer to Higher Education', Journal of Social Policy, Vol. 3, Part 4, October 1974, pp. 327-340.

(3) Ashby, E., Any Person, Any Study: An essay on higher education in the United States, The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1971, p. 24.

Questions like this are relevant to Egypt as they are to other affluent societies(1).

In the light of the above, one can understand the policy of access to university in Egypt during the last decade in particular. The main concern of this policy was to absorb the General Secondary school leavers into the different faculties of the university above the capacity of the faculties themselves(2). In the context of the admission process itself, the minimum qualifications for entry to university, published by the Co-ordination Office, are the total marks in the General Secondary examination. Therefore, anyone possessing this qualification is regarded as fit to pursue a course leading to a degree. The law of student supply and demand, rather than any educational or vocational considerations, has determined the range, choice and weighting of such faculties, and, in turn, of subjects. The university itself has no chance to control the standard of its candidates, but lowering the standard or raising it is a matter of student competition.

---

(1) Thresher, B.A., College Admissions and the Public Interest, p. 6,
and,
Belknap, R.L. and Kuhns, R., Tradition and Innovation: General Education and the Reintegration of the University, p. 32.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 43 (in Arabic).

It is a process also which is controlled by the Co-ordination Office and centralized outside the university faculties or departments. To win a place in the most popular faculties is becoming more and more a matter of very strong open competition among the General Secondary boys and girls. On the other hand, many students may gain their second, third or any place in university(1). The insistence on the secondary school performance, which is the practical side of equality of opportunity, did not produce satisfied students. As the questionnaire findings have shown, some 79.2% pointed out that the techniques currently being used for distribution prevented them from achieving their choice, and factors of individual consideration are not in existence. At the same time, as a response to a different question, 23.3% of the sample believed that this mechanical and routine process of distribution may be the best way of granting equality for university entrance, rather than any method which might leave space for personal judgement and intervention(2).

The General Secondary Certificate examination is already sufficient target for criticism(3). The weakness

---

(1) See the analysis of Question 6 of the questionnaire, Chapter V of this thesis, p. 171f.

(2) See the analysis of Questions 20 and 25 of the questionnaire, Chapter V of this thesis, p. 239f.

(3) Faraj, Aliyah A., A comparative study of the role of higher education in cultural development for some Arab and developing countries, p. 202,
and, for example,
Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 10 June 1978, p. 3.

of this method of allocation rather than selection may be because attainment tests are not reliable as predictors of future performance in the university. Although it has been accepted by some researchers that it is generally observed that the students who do well in examinations at school also tend to follow this trend in university, this is not wholly accepted by some others. It might be said that the candidate's achievement in General Secondary Certificate examination grades is not sufficiently reliable as a predictor of future performance in the university, but can be evaluated as an item in a series of assessments(1). The transition to a new educational environment may prove more or less stimulating for the student, while the new pattern of social interaction may affect his motivation and lead to changes in his personal circumstances(2).

---

(1) Himmelweit, Hilde T., 'Student Selection: An Experimental Investigation: I', British Journal of Sociology, Vol. I, 1950, pp. 328-346,
and,
Batock, A. and Smithers, A.C., 'Success and Failure Among Social Scientists and Health Scientists at a Technological University', British Journal of Psychology, No. 40, 1970, pp. 144-153,
and,
Davey, A.G. and Randell, G.A., 'Ways of Improving Selection', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1, 1971, pp. 66-76,
and,
Brook, L., The Modern University, p. 40.

(2) Westland, G., 'Selection, Performance and Assessment', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 25, No. 3, Summer 1971, pp. 344-352.

Over and above this, the Egyptian system not only denies the very right to go to a faculty by one's own particular choice, but has also not possessed any of the important elements of academic freedom(1). The Egyptian university is not like the British equivalent in respect of the candidate's choice of subject or department. The Egyptian university is compelled to accept the candidates who gain the minimum entrance requirements and offer them a place in certain faculties through the Co-ordination Office. Therefore, neither the Egyptian university nor the faculties have the right to decide who would be awarded a degree. The Co-ordination Office, as an impersonal contact between a university and its candidates, provides no information about the candidate's fitness for a university or as a human being. On the other hand, since the students' choice is made for faculties in order of priority, they are denied the right to say by whom they should be taught. The members of staff also have no right to say whom they will teach(2).

---

(1) Egerod, S., 'Freedom and Equality in Universities', in, Seabury, P., (ed.), Universities in the Western World, Free Press, New York, 1975, pp. 12-15.

(2) It is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that the academic universities could not exercise the right of selecting their candidates, all the Military Academies in Egypt insist strongly upon their rights of selecting their candidates by different means besides the General Secondary examination grades, e.g. personal interview, ability tests and many other methods. No rejected student has the right to question their decision.

However, the explanation of the above might be that the objective of the present system of admission is to give the secondary school leavers the widest opportunity of receiving a university education, even if some of them do not possess the required abilities to do so(1). This might be, in some views, good in itself that,

> 'it is not a crime for even the stupid to seek high levels of education, and social customs which reject such aspirations can hardly be repositories of ultimate human wisdom'(2)

However, this, from the economic viewpoint, might be unrealistic for Egypt or for any developing country to spend a good deal of its financial resources on places in university occupied by persons who are not gifted enough to benefit from the education which faculties provide. In spite of that it seems, from the questionnaire's findings, that every one of the sample had the aspiration and motivation to gain a place in university even if his total marks would prevent him or her from obtaining his own original choice(3).

---

(1) Thresher, B.A., College Admission and Public Interest, p. 4.

(2) Bereday, G.Z.F., Universities For All, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1973, p. 144.

(3) See Chapter V of this thesis, p. 170f.

The question here is, should everyone who wants university education and displays enough motivation attain it? The quick answer at this stage might be a straightforward 'Yes', since justice in higher education means equal opportunity 'for all those who are qualified by ability and attainment to pursue them and who wish to do so'(1). But justice here is wearing, for some people, 'a strange face'(2). It does mean that, in Egypt's egalitarian social philosophy, a place for the candidate in any faculty regardless of other social factors or economic obstacles. However, equality of opportunity is not an abstract concept: it has turned out to be as difficult in practice as it was simple in theory(3). Equality in education is not equal access to a university experience. Ability to profit from education in itself is increasingly seen to be a result of social experience(4). Students not only differ in their social

---

(1) Robbins, Lord, Higher Education Report, p. 8, and, UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, UNESCO, Paris, 1966, p.

(2) Fletcher, R., What's Wrong With Higher Education?, p. 5.

(3) Lucas, J.R., 'Equality in Education', in, Wilson, B.R., (ed.), Education Equality and Society, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1975, pp. 39-61.

(4) Halsey, A.H., (ed.), Ability and Educational Opportunity, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1961, p. 17, and, Husen, T., 'The Relation Between Selectivity and Social Class in Secondary Education', International Journal of Educational Sciences, Vol. I, 1966, pp. 17-27.

background, but also in abilities, motivation and different goals[1]. Moreover, such equality can hardly be established within the educational sector alone[2].

Although the assumption of this research is that the question of equality is essentially political in nature, this does not make the role of the university a passive one, as it has to articulate its own policies. One must be aware of its limited effect as compared with developments elsewhere in society.

> 'The problems of inequality and equality of opportunity are, in short, best dealt with not through educational reform but rather by the wider changes in economic and political life that would help build a socialist society'(3)

Equality of access in different institutions of higher education could only be frustrated by forces in the labour market - salary scales, for example, which differentiate between the various types of degrees and institutions. In Durkheim's view,

---

(1) Tyler, W., The Sociology of Educational Inequality, Methuen, London, 1977, p. 13,
and,
The Second Newman Report: National Policy and Higher Education, p. 4.

(2) Vaizey, J., (ed.), Whatever Happened to Equality?, B.B.C. Publication, London, 1975, p. 123 and pp. 95-98,
and,
Bowles, S. and Gintis, I., Schooling in Capitalist America, p. 89.

(3) Karabel, J., 'Community Colleges and Social Stratification: Submerged Class Conflict in American Higher Education', reprinted in, Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H., (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977, p. 250.

'absolutely homogeneous and egalitarian education is impossible in today's societies'(1)

However, in a research carried out in Ain-Shams University of Egypt among the failed students in its different faculties, a question was raised to discover whether there is a connection between attainment and the fathers' standard of education, that is to say, the socio-economic standard of the students or not. The research found that a high proportion of the Faculty of Engineering's failures were due to a low economic income with a limited standard of education and modest occupation standard families. The distribution of failure in some faculties according to the fathers' standard of education is shown in Table XLVII.

TABLE XLVII

The distribution of the failed students in some faculties of Ain-Shams University against their fathers' standard of education

Fathers' standard of education	Education	Engineering	Languages
1) No education	10.7%	15.7%	1.5%
2) Can read and write	33.3%	36%	21.1%
3) Less than a first degree	37.7%	25%	43.6%
4) With a first degree	18.3%	23.3%	33.8%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source:

Hassan, H.M., 'Quantitative Wastage in University Education in Egypt and Its Causes', unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1975, p. 303 (in Arabic).

(1) Durkheim, E., Education and Sociology, translated by Fox, S.D., Free Press, Illinois, 1956, p. 69.

The above table shows that the highest proportion of failures was among the students with fathers who had less than a first degree, which, in turn, usually affected their socio-economic background.

The standard of parents' education reflects on the access to different faculties among this research student sample too, where the students with educated parents were concentrated in faculties such as Medicine and Engineering, in contrast with Education and Law for example(1). Egypt is not an exception in this situation. In the U.S.S.R., as in Western Europe, in some views, a parents' educational level or occupational status affects the educational attainment and in turn the chance of access to higher education of the children(2). The social background of the candidates, therefore, is already an unwritten condition of selection and screening which has to be taken into consideration(3).

To fulfil equality of opportunity, which is an act of faith in the developing countries, it is necessary firstly to ensure that no-one is deprived of university

---

(1) See Chapter V of this thesis, p.231f.

(2) Dobson, R., 'Social Status and Inequality of Access to Higher Education in the U.S.S.R.', in, Karabel, J. et al., (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, p. 256.

(3) Pellegrin, J., 'Admission Policies in Post-Secondary Education', in, O.E.C.D., Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas, p. 96.

education through lack of financial support, inadequate schooling, or through the drawback of a low socio-economic background(1). The success of the Egyptian Government in removing financial barriers such as university fees is not sufficient as evidence of equality of opportunity and not sufficient to guarantee equal access to university, but may have created other social problems in that thousands of students are exposing themselves to universities and accepting places, which has created many difficulties, such as the lack of student housing and the long period of student dependence upon his family.

To overcome many of these hidden factors in the selection process, financing university education should include the system of student grants or loans. The suggestion is that Egyptian students urgently need a system of financial assistance which might help to make university education the right of all who qualify, whatever their family background. The argument may be used that considers the students as social workers and this gives them the right of gaining wages not grants(2).

---

(1) Embling, J., A Fresh Look At Higher Education, p. 37 and p. 46.

(2) See, for example,
Robbins, Lord, 'Fair Selection For A Degree', The Financial Times, 21 August, 1971, p. 14,
and,
Richmond, W.K., The Education Industry, p. 42,
and,
Silver, H., 'Salaries For Students?', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 19, No. 4, September 1965, pp. 409-415.

Needless to say, the economic burden on the Egyptian public may well require a flexible system of financial aid for students to fit the Egyptian circumstances.

Moreover, according to the Egyptian system, university is confined mostly to a section of Egyptian students who completed a particular type of schooling within the whole system. Since the educational system is not the most powerful factor in promoting equality, social environment and cultural forces play a major part in affecting entrance to General Secondary school and in turn access to university(1). Advancement of social equality or political democracy is not the only purpose of higher education, or the university in particular, but it may be accepted as one of many goals of the higher educational system(2).

On the other hand, equality of opportunity is determined more, not at the point of transfer from stage to stage of the educational system, or from the General Secondary school to university only, but rather at the point of entry to the world of work. For example, 66,000 out of 96,000 (68.75%) technical school leavers in the year 1974 did not find jobs until the Government offered them jobs in 1978 in the public sector. At the

---

(1) Neave, G., Patterns of Equality: The influence of new structures in European higher education upon the equality of educational opportunity, N.F.E.R. Publishing Company Ltd., England, 1976, p. 77.

(2) Scott, P., Strategies For Post-Secondary Education, Groom Helm, London, 1975, p. 8.

same time, 18,000 out of 36,000 (50%) university graduates of 1975 and 1976 were offered jobs[1]. The proportion of those finding jobs without Government support, therefore, was much higher among the university graduates than among the technical secondary school leavers. It seems that those who have already achieved General Secondary school and university education are at an advantage in attaining the qualifications needed for jobs in Government posts, compared with those who have not. This may spell out that, to a large extent, the degree to which educational opportunity might become a reality depends upon aspects of social dynamics more than the educational institutions themselves[2]. Equality of educational opportunity could not by itself create social justice and equal chances.

In fact, the technical schools, from the policy-makers' point of view, are meant to be a terminal stage for the majority of their students. Because these schools are a 'dead end', their students see themselves as a less privileged group. It is not only that, however, which makes the student press hard to join the general academic school, but also, from the above, there is another non-academic factor - that technical employment

---

(1) Al-Ahram, Cairo newspaper, 7 February 1978, p. 1.

(2) Neave, G., Patterns of Equality, p. 115.

possibilities for the technical school leavers are limited(1). To change the attitude of youth towards academic school, university education or employment, change should start firstly in the society and economy rather than in the educational institutions alone.

The change of the policy of admission, or of the selection system for the university alone, is not the solution to many problems in the area of university education. It is an important element in working towards a better university education, but the selection of one is the rejection of many. Therefore, it is not a matter of providing some with places in university, but of giving an open and equal chance to those who want higher education and who are qualified to find an alternative. It is not only the student demands; it is important to take into account, too, the country's need for qualified manpower and cultivated people for economic, social and cultural development(2).

---

(1) Foster, P., 'The Fallacy of Vocational School in the National Planning', reprinted in, Karabel, J. et al., (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, pp. 356-366,
and,
Myint, H., The Economics of the Developing Countries, Hutchinson University Library, London, 1974, pp. 147-149.

(2) National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Third Session, 1977, p. 44,
and,
Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education, Vol. I, p. 103.

This research assumes that the requirements of higher education demand a post-school training for a large number of people rather than for the few (or the élite). This might lead us to the suggestion that what Egypt needs are various types of structural innovation within the framework of higher education. Diversity of standards and of institutions is important as well as education at university, not only for the growth of society but also to match human diversity and the difference of intellectual ability and talents; people themselves are equal, but different. Accordingly, it is advantageous to offer them different levels of study.

The university as a specialised organization of advanced education cannot do everything asked of it today(1). It is true that university education has vocational advantages, but the university must resist the purely vocational training which might alter its nature. To protect the university as a unique institution for higher learning and as an agency charged with the conservation of the most highly prized beliefs and intellectual skills of the cultural heritage, other types of post-secondary institutions outside the university might perform better than the university.

---

(1) James, Lord, 'For and Against University Expansion', in, Niblett, W.R., (ed.), The Expanding University, Faber, London, N.D., p. 38.

Diversity might not only benefit the adults but also support the society with different types of intellectuals and more trained people. Alternative institutions should be established outside the university, to offer alternative functions and not be bad copies of universities. These proposed post-secondary institutions should be established primarily with vocational goals. The university should no longer be the apex of the educational ladder, but remain a vital part of the educational system.

Structural innovation, organizational changes and the creation of wide diversity in higher education might be the sure way for realizing greater educational opportunity, rather than the policy of expanding the university model alone more than any other sector of post-secondary education. The rapid expansion of university education in Egypt resulted in a new group of problems affecting different levels of education(1). This type of expansion shows that equality of opportunity is defined in terms of student access only. In Neave's view,

> 'programmes intended to facilitate greater access to education are not themselves likely to achieve their goal'(2)

---

(1) See series of articles published in Cairo newspaper, Al-Ahram, about the problems of university education in Egypt, 19, 21, 22 and 23 August 1978.

(2) Neave, G., Patterns of Equality, p. 61.

Diversity in the quality of education and in the standard of achievement might bring qualifications closer in line with the demand for skilled manpower needed for economic recovery. Creating a different type of institution of post-secondary education to subscribe to the priority of the need for manpower, does not deny its influence in creating greater equality of educational opportunity, and would satisfy the ambitions and demands of young men and women.

It is easier for any country to continue old patterns of education than to invent new ones: besides, real innovation takes more time and money than simply copying. But if the university is to remain properly a university, doing its real job, it should almost certainly have to stand firmly against any short-term non-academic solution or political decision. The university is a beacon of culture, therefore, and for developing countries it has an important role to play. Apart from teaching, a university contributes to its community through the participation of its teachers in the life of the country and through its research into local problems(1). Diversification in forms and functions of higher education is especially important in a country with a tradition of centralization such as Egypt has.

---

(1) Lewis, A., 'Priorities For Education Expansion', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Part III, p. 46.

The university, and other organizations of higher education as Halsey pointed out,

> 'must be seen as partially independent of, but functioning in relation to, such other aspects of social structure as government, the economy and religious and military organizations'(1)

Innovation in post-secondary education is necessary to bring into action the purpose of the university as a service and to make genuine progress in Egypt's own circumstances.

Some feel that a policy to reduce the private rate of return on university education might discourage the demand for it(2). In practice this might be done by narrowing pay differentials between more and less educated people. In other words, salaries and wages must be paid according to scarcity and productivity rather than a degree or any other paper qualification awarded. Society must do everything possible to encourage access to education for all and try to disassociate the purely cultural aspects from the aspects of technical knowledge (or aspects of job

---

(1) Halsey, A.H., 'Changing Functions of Universities', reprinted in, Halsey, A.H., Floud, J. and Anderson, G.A., (eds.), Education, Economy and Society, A reader in the Sociology of Education, Free Press, New York, 1971 (reprinted), p. 456.

(2) Blaug, M., Education and Employment Problems in Developing Countries, p. 64.

qualification)[1]. One of the most important steps to be taken is that career development must be disassociated from the level of entry into that career, and this disassociation must be made known by clear examples. This is, in fact, a long-term policy but should be undertaken without delay if we want to change the attitude of youth towards degrees, careers and status in particular, and also to encourage them to accept going to any other post-secondary institution. The diploma or any other certificate of these institutions should be a criterion of fitness only for a first job, and another later criterion should be made, ignoring this qualification. The period during which the level of salary and type of qualification are related should not exceed five years, for example. In fact, this practical solution may help with the vocational aspects of university education and the graduates' expectations of the future career only.

As mentioned previously, the aim of the university is not only to produce professionals or specialists, but rather 'cultivated men and women'[2]. To prepare a man for the future, he should be given an education which does not make him into a specialist but enables him to

---

(1) Ginzberg, E., 'Manpower Needs: Are universities training the right people for the right jobs?', Seminar Report, Columbia University, 1975, pp. 37-40.

(2) Robbins, Lord, Higher Education Report, p. 6.

move easily from job to job. In the future - perhaps in the near future - technology may revolutionize or abolish workers' existing jobs several times during their lifetime(1).

Whatever is said about university education in Egypt, the universities in practice are concerned at present, to a large extent, with professional and vocational education. This is not because they include such faculties as Law, Medicine, Engineering, Education and so on, but because the students themselves mostly expect particular jobs in the Civil Service or Government departments(2). The distinction between vocational and non-vocational studies lies not in the content or the method of teaching but in the 'intention'. The study of medicine or law can be part of a liberal education, just as the study of Latin, Greek or Theology can be a vocational one(3).

The increasing numbers and the pressures of students should not prevent the Egyptian universities from carrying out their fundamental and traditional tasks. Expansion of higher education should not involve the

---

(1) Brubacher, J.S., Basis for Policy in Higher Education, p. 8.

(2) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, p. 141.

(3) Peterson, A.D.C., 'Conclusion', in, Yudkin, (ed.), General Education, Allen Lane, Penguin Press, London, 1969, p. 167.

destruction of the university as an élitist institution. More students does not mean worse, but it does mean different(1), and this involves the creation of different and extended functions and activities; to reflect the diversity of students in a similar diversity of educational provisions with relation to Egypt's economic circumstances, rather than the disappearance of the university with its traditional functions and unique characteristics(2). The university, therefore, should not bow down to egalitarian values. Society should be prepared to accept it as a selective, expensive and discriminatory institution. As Habakkuk put it, 'it is the essence of the university that it is selective'(3). University should not be a successive institution for all or most of those who have completed the General Secondary school. It should be for those who meet its standards only and who can profit from its studies. The university should remain the institution where the nation can protect and keep the small percentage of the highly talented. Accordingly, to conserve Egypt's human resources, it is important to offer the mediocre

---

(1) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, p. 137.

(2) Scott, P., Strategies For Post-Secondary Education, p. 5.

(3) Habakkuk, H.J., 'The university at the approach of the twenty-first century', A paper delivered to the Sixth General Conference of the International Association of Universities, Moscow, 1975, Report of the General Conference of the International Association of Universities, p. 99

students a generous chance of development as well as the smaller proportions of the talented.

Accordingly, the university should limit its enrolment to a fraction of those meeting the entrance requirements and reserve for itself the final decision as to which students to accept. Since the university's responsibility is to produce highly qualified and cultivated people, it would deal with the minority who are capable of being trained as the new professionals in our advancing technological age. This élite, in that sense only, has the responsibility as leaders to serve in every branch of the national life which has wide social benefits(1).

Needless to say, the above is a debatable point; some would reject the argument for centres of excellence reserved for the intellectual cream of the nation. Excellence, according to this view, should not be reserved for a particular institution. From the opposite view, 'there was a danger that systems which were too highly selective would exclude real talent'(2). It is not a

---

(1) Belknap, R.L. and Kuhns, R., Tradition and Innovation, p. 4.

(2) Crouther-Hunt, Lord, in his speech at Bradford University on the future of British universities, see, 'Reject Interference, Crouther-Hunt Says', T.H.E.S., 24 October 1975, p. 3.

matter of waste and loss of great talent but this might cause frustration among the new generation(1). Moreover, no-one can be certain about the criterion of selection in our search for talent. The answer to the question, exactly how should the selection system operate? might be as it is in Ashby's view: 'there is no right way', therefore, 'it is vain to seek one'(2). Whatever the efforts to find the right methods of selection, every selection is in some way unjust(3).

However, the 'passive' admission policy in Egypt, as the results of the questionnaire have shown, is not in fact the right way to fulfil equality of opportunity as the general public of Egypt has been convinced for many years. Perhaps it is the 'fair' method of allocation of places in relation to the student numbers and the available places, rather than the satisfying of individual aspirations. If the problem of access to university in Egypt is partly a moral problem, then the system should give young people the chance to find a place in the faculty of their first, or even third, choice, but not any one of among thirty-two choices! If not,

---

(1) Report of the Fourth General Conference of the International Association of Universities, Tokyo Conference, 1965, I.A.U., Paris, 1966, p. 115.

(2) Ashby, E., Adapting Universities to a Technological Society, p. 21.

(3) Jaspers, K., The Idea of the University, p. 124.

open chances should be available for everyone who has the motivation to fulfil his aspirations for higher education. The claim of individuals to be afforded an opportunity to attain their full human stature is a moral right universally conceded. Education is seen as the principal means of self-development. University education is not only for teaching or for training research workers and working for scientific progress and its implications. The most important goal is the quality of the human himself, 'for the knowledge that is of most worth is never wholly external to the knower'(1).

To propose any change in the pattern of higher education or in the university admission system in Egypt requires a major change in the arrangement of secondary education and Government policies. The operation of the admission process in Egypt reflects both the structure and purpose of the educational system. For example, the selection process, as we have seen in Chapter I of this research, has begun as early as the end of primary school. It is more rigid at the end of the preparatory school where the examination grades of the student are the only criteria of distribution for the different types of secondary school. Hence, this school plays a 'filtering' or 'screening' role regarding the university education.

---

(1) Niblett, W.R., (ed.), The Sciences and the Humanities, London University Press, London, 1975, Introduction, p. xiii.

The policy towards vocational and academic secondary schools in Egypt should be revised in the light of rapid technological change simply because it will not be possible to predict which specific vocational attainments will be needed in the future. All over the world, as a result of technological change, questions have been raised about 'utility'(1). The secondary schools in Egypt should be limited into one type of school with comprehensive aspects of general education which help the student to choose for himself the subjects he wishes to study. Narrow specialization from this early stage contains an explosive danger. Egypt should learn the hard lesson well in advance from the developed countries, whatever is said about the gap between the developed and developing countries which implies that rapid technological change made training for specific jobs seem useless. General education and vocational training will be more interconnected. As the Columbia Report pointed out,'education without training is impossible, but training without education is disastrous'(2). Giving training in a specific skill after a general basis of education, according to this view, can have a direct practical effect. Moreover, continuing education generally,

---

(1) Hutchins, R.M., The Learning Society, p. 27.

(2) Belknap. R. and Kuhns, R., Tradition and Innovation, p. 3 and p. 29.

and vocational training in particular, might soon become a necessity in adult life[1].

Accordingly, any change, or proposed change, needs to be viewed from the perspective of continuous social, economic and technological change, which may demand more emphasis on continued education, and which may be accompanied by changes in patterns of employment or unemployment. This research suggests that dissolution of the different types of secondary school in Egypt might play a role in providing educational opportunities for less privileged groups. The new single type of secondary school would act as a selection mechanism for streaming students into different types of higher education institution. Hence, higher education in a case such as this might consist of:

I. Non-university sector

II. University.

The non-university sector might branch into different lengths of period of study:

(a) Four years

(b) Two years.

---

(1) Harrington, F.H., The Future of Adult Education, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1977, pp. 83-103, and,
Husen, T., The Learning Society, p. 201.

I. (a)

Higher Institutes of Technology to provide specialized training for higher technicians.

Access to these four year institutes might be determined by geographic and demographic considerations. Its courses should be vocational and practical, with particular emphasis on the applied sciences. These institutes might occupy a position that is equivalent to, but outside, the traditional university system.

I. (b)

Two years of post-secondary comprehensive institute offered to those who complete their education in the secondary school's various standard courses in vocational training. Many secondary school leavers should find, in the period of transition from school to work, short training schemes to ensure better preparation for the new jobs available in their community. These courses may provide initial or further vocational training for the young as well as for the adults(1). To motivate the young to join these short-cycle, free access technical institutions - as many European countries have discovered - they could offer a system of 'scholarships' or allowances in different forms(2).

---

(1) O.E.C.D., Education Policies and Trends, p. 16.

(2) UNESCO, Access to Higher Education in Europe, Paris, 1968, pp. 108-109,
and,
International Association of Universities, Report of the Sixth General Conference, Moscow, 19-25 August 1975, I.A.U., Paris, 1976, p. 145.

These intermediate vocational institutions might also play the role of preparing students or motivating mature students for university, so that those who are looking for degree courses might gain work experience firstly before joining university. These institutions can, therefore, provide students with orientation courses as well as with vocational preparation for jobs. Moreover, these institutions could engage actively in non-traditional education, evening classes or external departments to provide liberal and vocational studies for those in-service adults and enable the members of the surrounding community to continue their education. In the near future, adult education will be required at the highest intellectual level, so these colleges should be prepared to carry out this responsibility. In-service programmes or extra-mural studies should not need any formal qualifications, examination passes or certificates. This might put into practice the concept of 'life-long learning'.

This non-university sector of higher education should be varied in its standards, courses and objectives. This proposed policy for a non-university sector is badly needed in Egypt to set up a regional educational network to meet the increased demand for higher education and also to encourage the decentralization of the educational sector and other related services. Moreover, it is needed to meet the educational requirements of particular geographic areas, which had been previously neglected by the university sector.

These intermediate community colleges could give a greater chance for the applicants to be accepted somewhere. They might serve as a safety valve, diverting students who are clamouring for access to institutions away from more selective ones. By a sufficient system of guidance services and flexible conditions of entry, it might be easier for the students to attempt to match their choices and specific courses in specific institutions. Students decide themselves what they wish to read; this variety of different standards of institution may be more likely to help individuals to make applications where they have a reasonable chance both of being accepted and of being suited to a course at least of their choice. The university drop-outs might find a second chance in these post-secondary institutions. Moreover, after two years in these colleges, the later developing student might find his way to a university degree course if he could satisfy the university's conditions,and also give the university a variety of candidates from which to choose. Accordingly, the diploma of these institutions would be no 'dead end' but an intermediate link in a chain of institutions leading qualified students to higher courses at any time of the individual span of life. It might also be worth noting that these intermediate post-secondary colleges would help in solving the problem of the majority of students, i.e. the mediocre students.

Indeed, it is as some see it,

> 'the great majority of students entering a university are not research types and do not need to be carried to the frontiers of knowledge'(1)

The importance of this arrangement is two-fold: firstly, from the long-term standpoint, it would provide a practical basis of study, grounded in current economic requirements even for those students who, later, would continue into university; secondly, from a curricular standpoint, it would provide a means of integrating academic and technical education, for those who would later have entered major managerial and administrative positions in society.

One of the fundamental points is that the future policies of admission will have to take into account those who are unfit to attend selective institutions. To put equality of educational opportunity into action, the main problem to be solved might be put simply as follows,

> 'today we select those best fitted for education, tomorrow we have to give those worst fitted a real chance to be selected'(2)

Needless to say, these colleges might be started on an experimental basis before becoming permanent institutions.

---

(1) Lewis, W.A., 'Priorities For Educational Expansion', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Part III, p. 47.

(2) O.E.C.D., Educational Policies for the 1970s, General Report, Paris, 1971, p. 73.

II. The University

It is more relevant to the circumstances of the developing countries to try to seek different solutions to the aspirations of their students. The growing tension between the university, occupations and students may need a redesigning of the institutional structure of university, to promote the wholeness of people and to provide the country with professionals and highly trained specialists(1). It is part of the universities' purpose to engage in high quality research and offer a high quality of degree. But this will not be possible unless the university holds to its right to choose among its applicants those who meet its standards.

Universities in Egypt should differ in standard, policy and conditions of entry, in order to meet the variety of peoples' demands, of changing goals and changing environment. All non-academic considerations employed by the Co-ordination Office to keep the candidates in their provincial university should be abolished; Egyptian universities should resist the growing tendency towards uniformity. Each university should promote its own policy to fulfil its own unique personality. University would not be a real university if it became like a plain mirror whose function is simply to reproduce what is presented to it. The service

---

(1) Wirth, A.G., 'The Philosophical Split', in, Vermilye, D.W., (ed.), Relating Work and Education, p. 13.

relationship to the university community (international, national and local) should be re-examined and needs more clarification for the survival of the university itself. It should be clear that the university could not be everything the society asked. As Heshurgh put it,

> 'the university cannot become the Red Cross immediately attending to all manner of social emergencies; it is not an overseas development corporation or a foreign or domestic peace corps. It may well have strong intellectual educational ties to those and other service organizations, but it should never confuse its university identity or task with theirs'(1)

If the university in Egypt wants to meet its obligations, each university should search out the most suitable way to offer its contribution to its community. Each university should have the autonomy to identify which part of national or local development it can play(2). The university's vision of its purpose is widely connected with the selection method of its candidates(3). A diversity of quality of educational

---

(1) Heshurgh, T.M., 'Closing Remarks', in, Kertesz, S.D., (ed.), The Task of the University in a Changing World, University of Notredame Press, Notredame, 1972, Second impression, p. 493.

(2) Rees, M., 'The Ivory Tower and the Market Place', in, McMurrin, M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, p. 99.

(3) Sanders, G., 'University Selection: Its Theory, History and Psychology', The Australian Journal of Education, Vol. 1, No. 3, November 1957, pp. 145-167.

standard of achievements for university degrees all over the country might protect the oldest university standard in Egypt and also serve a variety of purposes and students. In the United States, for example, some universities are highly selective and have international standing, others meet the modest students' aspirations by an open admission system(1).

Obviously what is good for one nation is not necessarily good for another. For the Egyptian university the picture might be outlined as follows:

II. (a) The four year degree universities

Universities in Egypt are relatively homogeneous in their structure which consists of the traditional four year faculty. The purpose of the two year comprehensive community colleges is to channel the less able students away from the traditionally structured university. The four oldest universities in Egypt may be highly selective (i.e. Cairo, Ain-Shams, Alexandria and Asyut), with the four year faculties model, particular faculties or departments may insist on a certain standard in their own or other subjects. The General Secondary examination grades may satisfy the minimum entrance requirements, but it does not carry with

---

(1) Wechsler, H.S., The Qualified Student, John Wiley, New York, 1977,
and,
Karabel, J., 'Perspective on Open Admission', in, Wilson, L. and Mills, M., (eds.), Universal Higher Education, pp. 265-286.

it the right of entry to any particular university or faculty; it should only be a general prerequisite. These selective universities, by their own criterion of selection, might follow a system of 1 + 3 years, i.e. the first year may become a foundation year for some faculties. Those who satisfy the university standard can complete the following three years. Those who failed to satisfy the university standard may turn to other suitable post-secondary institutions which meet their standard.

II. (b) Provincial universities: 2 + 2 year model

The other new provincial universities might become less selective universities which assume to introduce a home-based policy for university education. This policy might be better than the introduction of non-academic considerations into students' selection(1). These provincial universities might decide which students to receive according to a definite standard of achievement in the secondary school. For example, they can decide to accept those who gain 70% of the total mark, or a definite standard in some subjects. The main function of the secondary school grades is to be as a 'diagnostic' and not a 'predictive' agent. For all the students, the first cycle offers a wide range of subjects. The student himself chooses a subject which might qualify

---

(1) See Chapter IV of this thesis.

him to do a particular course in the second cycle if he should satisfy the standard of the chosen specialization. This first comprehensive cycle might end with a 'half-way degree' for all the students. Those students who wish to complete the course and who are able to do so, can apply to the departments and faculties for another two year course. This course will provide them with professional qualifications(1).

Accordingly, the university or its different departments might put into practice their academic right to select their candidates from those wanting to do its course in the light of the candidates' performance in the first cycle subjects(2). The student himself will have an opportunity to check his decision to join a particular department with regard to his achievement and desire in the first academic cycle. The transition to a new educational environment may prove more or less stimulating for the student, the pattern of social interaction may affect his motivation. It is the student

---

(1) For more details about the meaning of 'professional' see,
Rice, A.K., The Modern University, Tavistock, London, 1970, p. 73,
and,
Holloway, B.J., 'Higher Educational Employment: A View From Interface', in, Jevons, F.R. and Turner, H.D., (eds.), What Kind of Graduates Do We Need?, p.34.

(2) Davey, A.G. and Randell, G.A., 'Ways of Improving the Selection of Students', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1, Winter 1971, pp. 66-76,
and,
Westland, G., 'Selection, Performance and Assessment', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 25, No. 3, Summer 1971, pp. 344-352.

himself who will have the chance to adapt his choice and might easily adjust to his own academic situation on the basis of his first two years in university, most of which consists in laying the foundation to his main subject(1).

For a large proportion who might not satisfy the standard of the second academic cycle (or for any other reason), there could be a finishing vocational training in the other proposed comprehensive community colleges. Those who finished their courses successfully in these community colleges and satisfied the second cycle of university standard would be offered a place in the first cycle to study the different courses of the 'half-way degree' at any time of their lives, and gain a university degree.

Postgraduate students would be chosen from those who completed two cycles of the university education or gain a four year university degree and have the intention and qualifications to do so. The university would carry out its mission as a place for teaching and research and be really a house of intellect.

---

(1) Holliday, A.K., 'University Courses: The Present Position', in, Jevons, F.R. and Turner, H.D., (eds.), What Kindsof Graduates Do We Need?, p. 76.

In contemporary society, where we used to think of liberal education for the élite and vocational or manual skill for the mass, this can no longer exist. These proposed changes might fulfil the need pointed out in the October Working Paper (1974),

> 'to avoid one rigid form of education, instead it should be diversified as much as possible to respond to the need for various expertise, specialisations and skill required in development in order to promote it all along a broad front.
>
> To link certain types and stages of education to the environment, rural or urban, field or factory ... We would also avoid (another) problem, namely the immigration of the educated individual from the environment, thus constantly impoverishing this environment by depriving it of the advantages resultant upon the spread of education therein.
>
> To eliminate the theory of the social difference between one form of education and another ... and we can also get rid of this overwhelming disease whereby many consider education as the instrument for acquiring a special social privilege'(1)

---

(1) A.R. of Egypt, October Working Paper, pp. 70-72.

CONCLUSION

It is a world-wide phenomenon that higher education is becoming more popular and fashionable and a requisite qualification for an increasingly wide range of occupations. This recognition might indicate that the higher education institutions may or can choose their intake from a large number of qualified applicants.

The prime concern of this research is the selection system for university education in Egypt. This single feature of university education has demanded the discussion of university education in particular and the educational system as a whole in the context of Egyptian society, which is unique in its ancient civilization but developing in respect of economic and modernization measures.

Education and the educational institutions in Egypt, as in many other societies, are not an independent part of that society. Education has political consequences, and is of importance to the politicians as well as to the people. In the developing nations, and Egypt is no exception to this, education has a vital role to play in order to meet the challenges of development and modernization. In that respect, higher education in particular has been seen as an instrument to achieve many national goals. Although universities did not play an essential part in the industrial revolution nor in the

accumulation of the developed nations' wealth, the developing nations are focusing many of their hopes on this type of educational institution.

Regarding the Egyptian situation, it has been noticed that expansion in education generally, and universities in particular, is a very strong feature of the Government's policy. This is not only because the politicians or the policy-makers regard education as an essential cause of economic growth and social development but also because of the attitude of the citizens themselves towards education. In a country such as Egypt, where the absolute number of illiterate people is increasing, despite all efforts to the contrary, and in which until the last two decades university education was available only to a very small proportion of its population, the university degree has become the passport to economic security and the key to social recognition. It opens doors and opportunities which otherwise would be entirely closed. Although the desire for knowledge for its own sake is, no doubt, an important factor among many students, for others the driving force is social and economic benefit. In the light of the questionnaire's results, it could be said that the financial returns were not the most important motivation for university education. If the students wanted economic return only they might accept a good salary job without a university degree, but in their view, money without a degree is useless. So, they

want a university degree as a material witness to their standard of education. Owing to the steady policy of the Egyptian Government to offer jobs to higher education graduates, it may be understandable why the social pressure for obtaining a degree as well as the aspiration for knowledge for its own sake were much clearer in the questionnaire's results. Accordingly, university education is a chosen instrument to achieve security and social well-being both for the students and their families. It is possible to say that a university degree is a useful status symbol, in both the students' and their parents' view.

Education today, more than ever, is the turning-point of everyone's life, so equality of opportunity as a goal has shown itself in the educational institutions more than in any other institution in the society. In spite of the fact that equality of opportunity is a political matter or has its political consequences, it can more easily be applied within the educational institutions. However, the result of this research's fieldwork indicates that equality of opportunity, in Egyptian terms depending on the examination grades, in the absence of financial assistance, is not usually the correct device. Access to university on the basis of academic attainment tends to favour more the chance for those who come from well-educated or well-to-do families rather than those of a poor and uneducated background. Free university education in Egypt might subsidise those who have rather than those who are unprivileged.

Expansion in university education in Egypt, therefore, should not only ensure equality of opportunity among the citizens, nor should it be primarily motivated by governmental need for specialists, but it should satisfy the strong demand of the public for more university education. The heavy demand for university education and the strong competition among the students seeking places for gaining job qualifications does not alone indicate the success of the university conversely. It might be seen as evidence of the failure of the other higher education institutions in Egypt in winning the confidence of the society. However, the quest for knowledge itself is a strong motive among young Egyptians, indeed it was one of the most important purposes for coming to university, as the questionnaire's data shows, along with the social return to be gained by education. The Government, in turn, responded to this, as much as was possible, and practised a policy for expansion. In fact, the Government recognized that the training of highly qualified scientific specialists is an indispensable condition for the improvement of the level of education, culture and the efficient use of science as an essential productive force. Moreover, the scientific, technological and social progress of the present time has set complex tasks before the Government in solving which great role is to be played by higher education institutions.

Scientific progress is at such a pace that the gap between the developing and developed countries will

continue to grow, with no hope for the former to catch up. The only alternative left to the developing countries to stop this growing gap is education. At this point, many researchers cast doubts on the relationship between the expansion in education and economic development in the developing countries. This relationship is very difficult to measure. However, this is not to say that education is not important. For a time it would be advantageous to separate education and its economic output. Part of the humanitarian spirit of our age is to see people as equal, and education as a right. Education is not a magic key for progress and modernization but without education and more education for its own sake, there is not much hope for the future. What is described as over-production of manpower or graduates in Egypt may indicate among other things that the economy of the country could not absorb them all whether educated or not. So, unemployment or the economic measure may not give a real picture about the situation in Egypt and this has influenced some researchers to see education for the developing nation as the 'white elephant' or as a waste of the country's limited financial resources. The future may open the door for a more sudden crisis for the developing and developed countries as well, a crisis more inescapable than past crises. Hence, the challenge for the developing countries to cope with the future may be more difficult, and education is needed, more than ever, both as a necessity and as a right. Strong innovative

aspects of education from the primary school to university and after, as well as informal education are needed, otherwise there is little hope for modernization and development. Egypt and the developing countries should continue both in a process of trial and error for themselves as well as learning through the experience of others, until they stand on their own feet. Although this is not an easy process it should start in any case and continue for a considerable period. Human capital is the principal part of any nation's wealth, so education is the surest way for national security and prosperity.

It may be argued that university education is not the standard for everybody, because paradoxically university education for all becomes education for none. Basic or functional education is more important in the case of the developing countries. The latter need first of all universal literacy, and the right for education should be strengthened by the right to employment. However, as this research has shown, the graduate who fails to find a job in Egypt or many other developing countries, does so not because he or she has a university degree but rather as a result of a weak economy. This is a vicious circle. There cannot be a meaningful development in the economy while the great majority of the population must serve as unskilled manpower because of illiteracy. Moreover, if the economy cannot absorb the great majority of the highly qualified graduates and the school leavers,

with their high level of expectation as a result of their education, this may lead them to be frustrated citizens. There is a danger that this might become the greatest cause of social unrest rather than a factor for social stability. Hence, education can become a destructive element rather than a constructive one in the developing countries. However, this should lead not to a reduction in expenditure on education but to the raising of many important questions. A solution should be sought for finding a balanced formula within the developing countries to satisfy the demands of the people, their country's economic situation and the pace of modernization.

It is important to say that the right of young people to acquire education cannot always be completely sacrificed to economic ends. On the other hand, the attainment of universal literacy cannot be given the highest priority in an underdeveloped economy. It might be asked, which comes first - education or resources? If there were no resources there would be no education, and, in turn, if there were no education there would be no resources, and even if there were resources it does need human ability to invest and use properly.

It is not only on the basis of economic or social return that the importance of education must be stressed however. There is also the assumption that education has its own intrinsic worth. Education is a prime objective

demanding sustained efforts to improve its quality and increase its resources. In other words, education is something to which expenditure may be devoted without any ulterior justification since it is the choice of the people to gain more education. For Egypt, as an example, the question is not whether Egypt needs expansion within education or not, but rather what kind of education, and what kind of educated people does the society need.

In the modern era, when mass higher education has become a challenge for the nations, it is for the Egyptian universities to find an answer to many questions related to the purpose of higher education. Indeed, the question is not only what the students and society demand from the university, but rather that the university should ask itself what it can offer to both of them.

In many countries, developed or developing, university educational reform is now the subject of earnest discussion. Egypt needs, first of all, a flexible system for education and post-secondary education in particular. The universities, as unique institutions, have historically demonstrated their capacity to adapt to the nation's scientific research and professional needs and it seems natural to expect them to adapt also to the demands of both society and students. For a university meets its society's needs not by responding to its demands, but by subjecting those demands, and the

values on which they are based, to responsible and rigorous questioning.

In the contemporary world, since higher education is considered as one of the most valuable assets of the nation, fulfilling as it does more functional utilitarian and transient roles, universities must undertake ceaseless discipline of discovery and seek the means of changing the world. Today more than ever knowledge is depreciated and replaced rapidly, so universities themselves have the responsibility of keeping pace, in their teaching, their research and their organization, with changing conditions and with the changing needs of society. The university of the past gave pride of place to the accumulation and transmission of knowledge as its specific function. It is obvious that the new concept of science compels us to revise our view towards many aspects of university education.

Meanwhile, the university as an institution is different from other learning institutions in its character and goals. The university is not merely a place for teaching its students different types of knowledge or accumulated information, since knowledge itself is available in many different places. Universities, throughout the centuries, have some central activities which are, as mentioned above, the searching after knowledge and scholarship. Knowledge, therefore, is its main concern and intellectuals are its main outputs.

As has been shown previously, since the 1950s the purpose of universities in Egypt has been coloured by the country's new demands and its hopes for changing and modernizing the society. The university sector has expanded in order to satisfy manpower demands and academic, consumer and personal goals. It is now time for the Egyptian university to choose its main purpose among the many purposes and functions imposed upon it. The fact is that the university did not succeed in satisfying the manpower need, perhaps because of the lack of manpower planning. The university in Egypt offers places for the General Secondary school leavers without regard for the economic demand or society's capacity for absorbing the graduates. This, in turn, imposed on the Government the difficult burden of providing a masked unemployment for many of them and also the imposition of a dependence upon the external market of allied countries for their employment. It might be said that the university in Egypt is working to satisfy the personal goals of its customers, i.e. mostly, the students' demand for a degree and a chance for higher education. Indeed, it offers them a place, but usually not the place of their own initial choice. It seems also that the university's academic goals are lowered under the pressures of huge student numbers and the shortage of staff and facilities.

It has been pointed out in this research that the concern of the university should not be with the pursuit of the policy objectives which are mostly based in Egypt

on short-term economic considerations, political factors and social demand. At the same time, the university should be allowed to sustain its distinctive role in education and society, which it does not share with other institutions, such as the level of student attainment and character over which the university should yield to no other institution. At university, it is possible to study a wide range of subjects but this does not imply that all subjects should be studied at university. The university, as virtually the only choice of further education available to the General Secondary school leavers, is not enough. Alternatives should be open to them. It is advantageous to see university education in Egypt in the light of the future rather than the past. The past experience should help the policy-makers in thinking about the real purpose of expansion of universities rather than putting the blame upon the increased number of students, and offering them simply any place in any faculty, followed, later, by any job in the artificially expanded Civil Service.

However, the data of the fieldwork conducted in two of Egypt's universities outlined a picture of the students' demands in the area of university education. The response of the university itself to this demand is a passive one in that the Egyptian universities simply accept the students who are directed to them by the Co-ordination Office for Admission. Meanwhile, the selection system itself is not an isolated element but it

is strongly connected with the purpose of university education and the motivation of the students themselves for attaining this kind of education. The position of the students, who accepted any place offered to them and any faculty according to their total mark, indicates that students are ready to study any subject at any place, whether according to their choice or not. A place in university is better than nothing, and may satisfy the student's desire for knowledge for its own sake and also lead to a university degree with its social advantages. If the above is correct, then this might mean that the current system of access to university is accepted among the students despite its disadvantages. This is not to say that what is going on in the Egyptian admission system is right for Egypt's students. Allocation rather than selection is the correct word to use where the selection is meaningless.

Nevertheless, the university should not yield to the politicians and serve the status quo alone. This indeed undermines the real purpose, and many other educational institutions might achieve this single purpose better than the university. What makes the university a real university is its function as an institution for research and the transmission of intellectual certainties and knowledge: scholarship which offers to its graduates the chance to master the creative intellectual skills. To satisfy the students' desire for

understanding and to develop their autonomy in seeking knowledge is the function which distinguishes university education from training. The professional aspects of university as a place which offers a specialised kind of knowledge does not mean that it is a finishing institute. University does not prepare its graduates to fill the governmental jobs but for a profession. The university should not offer open access for all those who desire it, but only for those who can reach the standard which the university itself demands. This means that the university is a community which can make its own decisions without interference from any authority except the discipline of academic values. In this light, it is conceivable to pose the question, is it possible to consider higher education,and universities in particular, as a right for everyone? If the answer, from an egalitarian view, is yes, then open access to university is not the solution which suits the university's character and purposes. Higher education,as a right for all those who desire it, might demand a diversity of higher education institutions to satisfy the demands of the different standards and talents of students. No single pattern can offer the variety needed. Expansion in university education alone in Egypt, therefore, is not the solution, but it is important to build up different standards and purposes of higher educational institutions. No other post-secondary institution can tackle the university purposes.

Universities in Egypt should, therefore, stand firm and defend themselves against any pressure from outside which might impose upon them irrelevant functions.

Regarding the selection for university education, more attention must be paid to making the choice process meaningful. As was seen in the survey, 73% of the sample did not attain their initial choice, and for 39% of the sample, any choice eventually lost its meaning and they accepted any place in any faculty. The important principle that must be observed is that of freedom of choice on the part of the potential students. This research is opposed to measures which compel students to study a subject not of their choice. Any non-academic conditions should be revised and altered, such as the exceptional categories and the geographical conditions.

The university itself should make use of its autonomy. A Co-ordination Office may be needed not to distribute the candidates according to their total marks but to allow each of them to find his way to the faculty he desires to join. It is morally dangerous to allow the candidate to write thirty-two choices in order of priority and to give him any one of this thirty-two. Freedom of choice should not be a symptom of a lottery system. The open competition should not be seen as a sign of good or bad luck, and more importantly, the interpretation of equality of opportunity as it is practised in the admission system should be revised.

The loose freedom of choice is, in fact, very narrow, in that it depends upon the student's total mark, the student's demand according to the fashion of the time and the limited number of places in the faculties. Many of the students know which faculty they want, but not many of them have a clear idea about their real talent and abilities. The high grades of the General Secondary Certificate may reflect merely the student's ability to memorize and reproduce facts rather than an ability to use facts creatively. In other words, this General Secondary Examination measures, simply, the ability to pass examinations and not intellect and originality. This might cast doubt on the validity of this examination as the sole criterion in selection or indeed allocation to the different faculties of Egypt's universities.

It has been pointed out that this lottery system of distributing the candidates is accepted by the society as a fair method for selection. This might indicate also that the students and their parents have little confidence in the academics themselves and the academic institutions' decisions. The mass media have succeeded in convincing the public that the academics may not be responsible! Even if this method is the cheapest one, it makes student choice meaningless and also gives the student the impression that any decision concerning his future may be seen as invalid.

Competition for places in university, which allows the university to choose the best, is very important if the university itself and its different faculties have the right to decide upon which candidates to offer places and also if the university has the authority to put forward its conditions and standards. This means that both the individual and the institution have a passive freedom of choice, according to the current system: the freedom to accept what is offered to both of them through the arbitrary system of the Co-ordination Office.

Freedom of choice from both sides - the student and the institution - is the corner-stone of academic freedom itself. The university should have the right to reject those who are not qualified. Those rejected students, in turn, should find an alternative if they missed the chance to gain their own initial choice. The freedom of choice, therefore, would be meaningful if the institutions of post-secondary education were varied. The diversity of standards, goals, period of study, etc., might give the student the chance to think about his own choice and future. The responsible and fulfilled choice from the student's side would have a positive function of developing the student's sense of commitment to a personally-made decision which in turn might raise the standard of his motivation and also his performance once he had joined his chosen institution. Diversity of post-

secondary institutions might help also in the process of development and modernization. Expansion in university education alone to enlarge educational opportunities is not sufficient. But this also should match the increase of specialization and occupational differentiation characteristic of a modern society. On the same level of importance, the diversity of institution is desired to match the diversity among the students themselves in talent, purpose and ability. Indeed, the students should be seen as equal but different.

Expansion in numbers is a very simple solution. A radical change in higher education structure is recommended. Egypt does not need more of the same, but rather different: the four year degree system should, therefore, be revised to cope with the changing demand and different purposes of a changing society. A flexible system of choice accompanied by a variety of different institutions is needed. It is advantageous to think of two year courses which are not terminal qualifications but provide the entry standard for another course. In addition, if the students wish university education for its own sake, it may be appropriate to offer them new alternatives in the form of an education at a university without a degree, but with a different standard of certificate to indicate the students' attainment. This might help to eliminate the acquisition of a degree as an entry to many jobs in the Government service. In addition, this might open the opportunity for those who are putting

pressure on the university's limited number of places to again ask themselves why they desire university education. If their answer is for the sake of knowledge alone, then the informal second route would offer them a chance to develop this constructive attitude. Organizational innovation should take place in educational policy in Egypt.

This, in fact, brings into question not only the future of the whole higher education system in Egypt, but also its entry requirements. The higher education system can no longer restrict its function to catering for the needs of a specific age group for a specific period; it must widen its scope to reach other people. It must extend its mission to the whole community. This research, however, is not in favour of easy entry to university or to raise the slogan of 'university for everybody'. More important than this slogan is to reject the policy which confines entry to university at eighteen years of age. The right of entry to university and higher education as a whole for people of mature years with a strong motivation for learning, whether they have formal qualifications or not, is recommended.

Since Egypt has, firstly, well-established difficulties, particularly in the university education sector, and, secondly, owing to the increasing volume of knowledge in the world, this makes full-time education

for a certain number of years not enough. We must think about other means to provide chances of higher education for the maximum number of Egyptian citizens and above continuous education for a wider section of the population.

Educators in Egypt, as others in the developed countries, should also start to think of education in the future (in its formal sense as planned processes of learning undertaken by the learner) as not limited to childhood and adolescence. Accordingly, this research is not only suggesting 'binary systems' for higher education, or the return of this system to the educational scene in Egypt, but also states that even these two main institutions - universities and technical higher institutes - are not sufficient. What Egypt's policy of higher education should insist upon is a major change in the field of adult education as a whole. This area in Egypt is mostly confined to illiterate adults and the activities of illiteracy eradication. This concept should be expanded to include literate and illiterate adults. University and higher institutes as post-secondary institutions are not sufficient to meet the demands of the future, because these post-secondary institutions are concerned only with those who have formal qualifications. It is time to say that those who missed the chance of formal schooling should be encouraged to find their own way of advancing their standard of education. To allocate the eighteen-year-olds only or those who gain the General Secondary Certificate for university and, more rigidly, to

confine acceptance to those who gained the General Secondary Certificate in the same year, is not appropriate for the future and is unfair in the case of late developers or those who wish to work for an initial period of time, and for many other reasons. No single model for higher education will, in the future, be able to cope with such diverse aspirations and motivations.

It may be hoped that Egypt's future will be better than its present, so great demand for education in all its forms and standards is to be anticipated. Continuous education is important in Egypt for those unprivileged in the past, and also for those who are going to live and work in the twenty-first century. It is advantageous, therefore, to think about an open sector for higher education which might include different kinds of institutions to offer a variety of higher education for those without formal qualification. Education should no longer be seen as one chance in a lifetime.

It is true that changing the character or the trends of a national educational system is a difficult task, involving as it does the traditions, habits and values of an immense number of people. However, the present time is the time to think about the future. For Egypt to survive, the future should not be like yesterday and must be different from today.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

English translation of the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics Resolution No. 36 for the year 1977, and its Arabic photocopy

Regarding Miss Nadia Yussef Ibrahim Gamal al-Din, a member of a study mission in England to obtain a Ph.D., to carry out a questionnaire in Zagazig and Ain-Shams universities concerning the students' experience with the Co-ordination Office for Universities.

President of Agency

After studying Law No. 35 for the year 1960 regarding mobilization and statistics, and the President of the Republic's Resolution No. 2915 for the year 1968 concerning carrying out statistics, mobilization, questionnaires and investigations, and the latter from the General Department of Missions No. 135 of 15 January 1977, it was decided that:

Article 1 : Miss Nadia Yussef Ibrahim Gamal al-Din, a member of a study mission in England to obtain a Ph.D., could apply for a questionnaire upon the students of Zagazig and Ain-Shams Universities concerning the experience of students with the Co-ordination Office for Universities.

Article 2 : This investigation is passed upon the students of Zagazig and Ain-Shams Universities.

Article 3 : This investigation should be carried out within three months of this resolution publication.

Article 4 : The necessary information for this questionnaire should be collected according to the material which was prepared for this purpose and authorized by the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics.

Article 5 : This resolution should be published in Al-Waqāiʿ al-Misriyyah.

Issued on 5 February, 1977

Gamal Askar

Published in Al-Waqāiʿ al-Misriyyah, Vol. 49, 26 February 1977, p. 5 (in Arabic).

See the Arabic photocopy attached to this Appendix.

وعلى ما قـــرره مجلس إدارة الغرفة التجارية لمحافظة الغربيـــة بجلسة ١٩٧٦/٣/٢١ ؛

وعلى مذكرة المراقبة العامة للغرف التجارية المؤرخة فى ١٩٧٦/١١/٣؛

قـــرر :

مادة ١ ـــ إعتماد الحساب الختامى للغرفة التجارية لمحافظة الغربية عن العام المـالى ١٩٧٥ حيث بلغت جملة الإيرادات مبلغ ٢٥٥٩١ جنيها و٩١٠ مليمات وجمـــلة المصروفات مبلغ ٤٠٢٠ جنيها و٥٠٧ مليمات وبلغت زيادة الإيرادات عن المصروفات مبلغ ١١٥٧١ جنيها و٤٠٣ مليمات أضيفت إلى الاحتياطى العام للغرفة الذى بلغ فى ١٩٧٥/١٢/٣١ مبلغ ١١٩٢١٨ جنيها و ٣٨٠ مليما .

مادة ٢ ـــ ينشر هذا القرار بالوقائع المصرية ؛

تحريرا فى ٨ صفر سنة ١٣٩٧ (٢٧ يناير سنة ١٩٧٧)

سيد المصرى

قرار وزارى رقم ١٣٥ لسنة ١٩٧٧ "بالتفويض"
بإنشاء شعبة لتجار المواد البترولية بمحافظة الجيزة
واعتماد نظامها الأساسى

وكيل أول الوزارة

بعد الاطلاع على المـادة ٢١ من القانون رقم ١٨٩ لسنة ١٩٥١ بشأن الغرف التجارية ؛

وعلى القرار الوزارى رقم ١٣٠ لسنة ١٩٧١ بشأن لائحة النظام الأساسى للشعب التجارية ؛

وعلى القرارين الوزاريين رقمى ٢١٩ لسنة ١٩٧٢، ٥٠٤ لسنة ١٩٧٣ بشأن تعديل بعض أحكام القرار الوزارى رقم ١٣٠ لسنة ١٩٧١؛

وعلى القرار الوزارى رقم ١٣٤٨ لسنة ١٩٧٥ بتفويضنا فى ممارسة السلطة المنصوص عليها بالمـادة ٢١ المشار إليها ؛

وعلى ماقرره مجلس إدارة الغرفة التجارية لمحافظة الجـيزة بجلسته المنعقدة فى ١٩٧٦/١٢/٢٠ ؛

وعلى مذكرة المراقبة العامة للغرف التجارية المؤرخة فى ١٩٧٧/١/٢٦ ؛

قـــرر :

مادة ١ ـــ تنشأ شعبة لتجار المواد البترولية مقرها مدينة الجـيزة تحت إشراف الغرفة التجارية لمحافظة الجيزة وفى حدود اختصاصها .

مادة ٢ ـــ تعتمد لائحة النظام الأساسى للشعبة المشار إليها بالمـادة السابقة وفقا للنموذج المرافق للقرار الوزارى رقم ١٣٠ لسنة ١٩٧١ والقرارين الوزاريين المعدلين له .

مادة ٣ ـــ ينشر هذا القرار بالوقائع المصرية، ويعمل به من تاريخ صدوره ؛

تحريرا فى ٨ صفر سنة ١٣٩٧ (٢٧ يناير سنة ١٩٧٧)

سيد المصرى

الجهاز المركزى للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء

قرار رقم ٣٦ لسنة ١٩٧٧

فى شأن قيام السيدة / نادية يوسف إبراهيم جمال الدين ـــ عضـــو البعثة الدراسية بانجلترا ـــ للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه بتطبيق استبيان على طلبة جامعة الزقازيق وعين شمس ـــ خاص بتجربة الطلبة مع مكتب تنسيق الجـامعات

رئيس الجهاز

بعد الاطلاع على القانون رقم ٣٥ لسنة ١٩٦٠ فى شأن الإحصاء والتعداد ؛

وعلى قرار رئيس الجمهورية رقم ٢٩١٥ لسنة ١٩٦٤ الخاص بانشاء وتنظيم الجهاز المركزى للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء ؛

وعلى قرار رئيس الجهاز رقم ٢٣١ لسنة ١٩٦٨ بشأن إجراء الإحصاءات والتعدادات والاستفتاءات والاستقصاءات ؛

وعلى كتاب الإدارة العامة للبعثات رقم ١٣٥ المؤرخ ١٩٧٧/١/١٥ ؛

قـــرر :

مادة ١ ـــ تقوم السيدة / نادية يوسف إبراهيم جمال الدين ـــ عضو البعثة الدراسية بانجلترا ـــ للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه بتطبيق استبيان على طلبة جامعة الزقازيق وعين شمس خاص بتجربة الطلبة مع مكتب تنسيق الجامعات .

مادة ٢ ـــ يجرى هذا البحث على طلبة جامعة الزقازيق وعين شمس .

مادة ٣ ـــ يجرى هذا البحث خلال ثلاثة شهور من تاريخ صدور هذا القرار .

مادة ٤ ـــ تجمع البيانات اللازمة لهذا الاستبيان طبقا للاستمـارة المعدة لهذا الغرض والمعتمدة من الجهاز المركزى للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء .

مادة ٥ ـــ ينشر هذا القرار بالوقائع المصرية ؛

صدر فى ١٧ صفر سنة ١٣٩٧ (٥ فبراير سنة ١٩٧٧)

جمال عسكر

APPENDIX II

Questionnaire
(English translation and the original copy in Arabic)

Dear Student,

Part of my research is to get in touch with you, since we need information about your first choice of study subject and your experience with the Co-Ordination Office and university education in general. Our concern here is not your names as we use no names, but your replies, which will be treated in confidence. We hope that you will help us by answering these questions.

Please read this carefully and do not hesitate to write your own views.

Thank you.

* Remember that:

There were four stages of admission to universities in the academic year 1976/77; the next table shows these in detail:

Stage	Sciences		Arts	
	Marks	%	Marks	%
The minimum marks for the first stage	295	79.8%	185	66%
The minimum marks for the second stage	244	65.9%	158	56.4%
The minimum marks for the third stage	204	55.1%	145	51.8%
The minimum marks for the fourth stage	185	50%	140	50%

Instructions:

1) Please place your answer in the box provided.

2) If your answer is Yes put a tick ✓ inside the box

Yes ☐

3) If your answer is No put a cross ✗ inside the box

No ☐

4) You may tick more than one box in the case of multiple choice questions.

5) In answering an open question, which requires a detailed answer, please write in detail. If there is not enough space, you can write on the back, making clear the number of the question being answered.

6) Please answer all questions.

Thank you.

University .....

Faculty .....

1. Age in October — Year ☐ Month ☐

2. Sex — F ☐ M ☐

3. Specialization (if known) .....

4. Percentage in the General Secondary School Certificate — % ☐

5. Specialization in General Secondary school — Arts ☐ Sciences ☐

6. Before choosing a certain specialization in the secondary school, did you wish to enter a certain faculty? — Yes ☐ No ☐

7. If yes, what was this faculty? .....

8. What were the reasons which made you choose the type of study in the secondary stage (Arts, Sciences)? (Tick the appropriate boxes.)

- My parents' wish ☐
- Desire to join a particular faculty ☐
- Interest in a specific subject ☐
- Marks in the first year of secondary school ☐
- Admiration of a particular teacher ☐

Other reasons, please specify :

9. Before joining the university, was all your information about university education and the various faculties taken from the booklet distributed through the Co-Ordination Office?

Yes ☐ No ☐

10. If no, mention the sources which made you familiar with them:

11. Do you live with your family?

Yes ☐ No ☐

12. Did your residence with your family, or staying away from them, have any influence on your choice of a particular faculty?

Yes ☐ No ☐

13. At which stage did you submit your application?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

14.

	Med.	Eng.	Pharm.	Dent.	Sc.	M.Comm.	Econ.	Comm.	Arts
The faculty I wished to enter BEFORE I knew the result of the G.S.S.C. was									
The faculty I wished to enter AFTER I knew the result of the G.S.S.C. was									
The faculty I wished to enter IMMEDIATELY before applying to the Co-Ordination Office was									

* If this faculty is not represented in the above table, or is not included in the Co-Ordination Office booklet, what is it?

BEFORE .....

AFTER .....

IMMEDIATELY before applying .....

15. Is this university the same one which you wanted to enter? Yes ☐ No ☐

16. If no, mention the name of the university you wished to enter .....

17. Why do you wish to gain a university education? (Please tick ✓ in the appropriate boxes.)

To gain a university degree	☐	Future career	☐
To seek knowledge for its own sake	☐	Family's wish	☐
Social life in university	☐	Social status	☐
Nothing else to do	☐	Never thought about it	☐

18. If you have other reasons, please specify:

19. What were the reasons for your initial choice of faculty (or subject) before you knew the result of the G.S.S.C.? (Please tick ✓ in the appropriate boxes.)

- The nature of study in secondary school ☐
- My parents' wish ☐
- To be like my brothers and relatives ☐
- To be with my friends ☐
- Reputation of the faculty or the course ☐
- Financial future of its graduates ☐
- Desire to gain more knowledge in particular subjects ☐
- Admiration of a particular teacher ☐
- Other reasons, please specify:

20. Do you think that relying only upon the total marks is an accurate criterion for acceptance in the different faculties? Yes ☐ No ☐

21. If no, why not? (State reasons.)

22. If you had had the chance to work in a well-paid job without a university degree, would you have accepted? Yes ☐ No ☐

23. If no, why not? (State reasons.)

24. Degree obtained by both of your parents, or by one of them. (Tick under the appropriate answer and mention the degree even if your parent(s) is dead.)

Parent	Higher than a first degree, Ph.D. or Diploma	University degree or its equivalent	G.S.S.C. or its equivalent	Preparatory Cert. or its equivalent	Primary Cert. or its equivalent	No education
Father						
Mother						

25. Is the present system of admission in the university in Egypt suitable? Yes ☐ No ☐

26. If no, why not? (State reasons.)

27. In your opinion, what is the best system of admission in the Egyptian universities? (Tick ✓ in the appropriate box.)

i) An independent examination for each faculty (disregarding the G.S.S.C. result) ☐

ii) Acceptance on the basis of the marks of particular subjects related to the nature of study in the faculty ☐

iii) The total marks of the General Secondary School Certificate with personal interviews in the faculty ☐

28. Do you have any other suggestions to change the admission system in Egyptian universities? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please give details:

Thank you.

((بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم))

= استبيـــــان =

عزيـزى الطالـــب ..

جزء من بحثى أن أكون على صلة بك للتعرف على موقفك من التعليم الجامعى ونتائج خبرتك مع مكتب التنسيق فى اختيار الكلية التى التحقت بها . أرجو أن تعبر عن رأيك بصراحة ودقة ، حيث أن الاسم غير مطلوب هنا ، وما تكتبه سوف ينظر اليه باهتمام وتقدير ، وسيكون عاملا ايجابيا فى البحث العلمى حول نظام القبول فى التعليم الجامعى المصرى .

تذكر أن :

مراحل التنسيق للعام الجامعى ٧٦ ـ ١٩٧٧ كانت أربع مراحل تفصيلها كما هو موضح بالجدول التالى :

المرحلة	علمى		أدبى	
	مجموع الدرجات	النسبة المئوية	مجموع الدرجات	النسبة المئوية
الحد الأدنى للمرحلة الأولى	٢٩٥	٧٩,٨٪	١٨٥	٦٦,١٪
الحد الأدنى للمرحلة الثانية	٢٤٤	٦٥,٩٪	١٥٨	٥٦,٤٪
الحد الأدنى للمرحلة الثالثة	٢٠٤	٥٥,١٪	١٤٥	٥١,٨٪
الحد الأدنى للمرحلة الرابعة	١٨٥	٥٠ ٪	١٤٠	٥٠٪

تعليمـــات :

(١) فى حالة وجود هذا الشكل ☐ امام السؤال الرجا كتابة الاجابة داخله .

(٢) فى حالة الاجابة بـ (نعم) توضع علامة ✓ داخل الشكل ☐ نعم

(٣) فى حالة الاجابة بـ (لا) توضع علامة ✗ داخل الشكل ☐ لا

(٤) فى حالة الاجابة على الاسئلة التى تحتوى على أكثر من عنصر ، الرجا وضع علامة ✓ داخل الشكل ☐ المقابل لما توافق عليه .

(٥) فى حالة الاجابة على السؤال المفتوح ـ أى الذى يحتاج لاجابة تفصيلية ـ المرجو ان تكتب بالتفصيل واذا احتجت الى مساحة اكبر يمكنك الكتابة فى ظهر الصفحة مع مراعاة الاشارة الى رقم السؤال .

(٦) الرجا الاجابة على جميع الاسئلة . ولكـــرا

جامعـــة : .....

كليـــة : .....

(١) السن فى اكتوبـــر ١٩٧٦ : شهر ☐ سنة ☐

(٢) الجنـــــــــس : ذكر ☐ انثى ☐

(٣) التخصص فى الكلية (ان وجد) : .....

(٤) كم كانت النسبة المئوية لمجموعك فى امتحان الثانوية العامة ؟ ☐ %

(٥) التخصص فى الثانوية العامة علمى ☐ ادبى ☐

(٦) قبل اختيارك للتخصص فى المدرسة الثانوية ، هل كنت ترغب فى الالتحاق مستقبلا بكلية معينة ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(٧) فى حالة الاجابة بنعم ما هى الكلية التى كنت تفكر فى الالتحاق بهـــــــا ؟

.....

(٨) ما هى الاسباب التى دفعتك الى اختيار نوع الدراسة فى المرحلة الثانوية (علمى /ادبى)؟
(ضع علامة ✓ داخل المربع امام اهم الاسباب المطابقة لرأيك) .

- رغبة والـــــــدى ☐ - الرغبة فى دخول كلية معينـــة ☐

- حب مادة معينـــــة ☐ - الدرجات فى السنة الاولى الثانوية ☐

- الأعجاب بمدرس معـــين ☐ - اسباب اخرى (حـــــدد)

.....

.....

(٩) قبل الالتحاق بالجامعة ، هل اقتصرت معلوماتك عن التعليم الجامعى وكلياته علـــى الكتيب الذى يوزعه مكتب التنسيق ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(١٠) فى حالة الاجابة بـ (لا) اذكر المصادر التى تعرفت منها على أنواع التعليم الجامعى وكلياته :

---

(١١) هل تقيم مع اسرتك ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(١٢) عند اختيارك للكلية ، هل كان عامل وجودك مع اسرتك او ابتعادك عنها مؤثرا فى اختيارك ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(١٣) فى أى المراحل قدمت أوراقك لمكتب التنسيق ؟ ١ ☐ ٢ ☐ ٣ ☐ ٤ ☐

(١٤)

طب	هندسة	صيدلة	أسنان	علوم	اعلام	اقتصاد	تجارة	آداب	حقوق

الكلية التى كنت أرغب الالتحاق بها كرغبة أولى قبل معرفتى لنتيجة الثانوية هى .....

- الكلية التى كنت أرغب فى الالتحاق بها كرغبة أولى بعد معرفتى لنتيجة الثانوية مباشرة هى .....

- الكلية التى كنت أرغب فى الالتحاق بها قبل التقديم لمكتب التنسيق مباشرة هى .....

- اذا كانت الكلية التى كنت ترغب الالتحاق بها ليست موجودة فى الجدول السابق او ليست تابعة لمكتب التنسيق فما هى .

قبل معرفة نتيجة الثانوية العامة : ---

بعد معرفة نتيجة الثانوية مباشرة : ---

قبل التقديم لمكتب التنسيق مباشرة : ---

(١٥) هل الجامعة التى انت بها الآن هى التى كنت ترغب الالتحاق بهـــــــا ؟

نعم	لا
☐	☐

(١٦) اذا كانت اجابتك بـ (لا) اذكر اسم الجامعة التى كنت ترغبهـــا اصـــلا

---

(١٧) ما أهم الأسباب التى دفعتك للالتحاق بالتعليم الجامعـــى ؟

(ضع علامة ✓ داخل الشكل المقابل لأهم الأسباب فى نظـــرك)

ـ الحصول على شهادة جامعية	☐	الحصول على وظيفة أفضـــل	☐
ـ رغبة فى العلم الذاتـــه	☐	ارضـــاء لرغبة اسرتـــى	☐
ـ الحياة الاجتماعية داخـــل الجامعة	☐	الحصول على مركز اجتماعى افضـــل	☐
ـ لا يوجد شىء اخر افعلـــه	☐	لم افكر فى هذا الامـــر	☐

(١٨) اذا كانت لديك اسباب اخرى للالتحاق بالتعليم الجامعى اذكرها من فضلـــك

---

(١٩) ما الاسباب التى جعلتك ترغب فى الالتحاق بكلية معينة (او تخصص معين) قبل الاعـلان عن نتيجة الثانوية العامة ؟

(ضع علامة ✓ داخل الشكل المقابل لاهم الاسباب فى نظـــرك)

ـ طبيعة الدراسة بالمرحلة الثانوية	☐	تحقيقا لرغبة والـــدى	☐
ـ لأصبح مثل اخوتى واقاربـــى	☐	لاكـــون مع اصدقائـــى	☐
ـ سمعة الكليـــة أو التخصص	☐	المستقبل الباهر لخريجهـــا	☐

" بقية السؤال فى الصفحة التالية "

ـ الرغبة في الاستزاده من علوم معينة ☐ الاعجاب بمدرس مقـــــين ☐

اسباب اخرى (اذكرها من فضلك)

_____

_____

(٢٠) هل تعتقد أن الاعتماد على المجموع الكلى للدرجات اساس صادق للقبول فى الكليات المختلفة ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(٢١) اذا كانت اجابتك بـ (لا) فلماذا ؟

الاجابة :

_____

_____

_____

(٢٢) افترض أن اديك فرصة للعمل فى وظيفة بمرتب جيد دون الحصول على مؤهل جامعـــى فهل تقبلها ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(٢٣) اذا كانت اجابتك بـ (لا) فلماذا ؟

_____

_____

_____

(٢٤) ما الشهادة التي حصل عليها الوالدان ـ أو احدهما ؟ اضع علامة ✓ تحت الاجابة المطلوبة (اذكر فى حالة الوفاة ايضا) .

	اعلى من الدرجة الجامعية الاولى أو دكتوراه دبلومات	شهادة جامعية او مايعادلها	الثانوية العامة او مايعادلها	اعدادية او مايعادلها	الابتدائية او مايعادلها	لا شيء
الوالد						
الوالده						

(٢٥) هل نظام القبول بالجامعة فى مصر حاليا مناسب ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

(٢٦) فى حالة الاجابة بـ (لا) .. لماذا ؟

الاجابة :

_____

_____

_____

(٢٧) فى رأيك ما افضل نظام للقبول فى الجامعات المصرية ؟

(ضع علامة ✓ امام الاجابة المطلوبة)

أ) عقد امتحانات قبول مستقلة بكل كلية على حده بغض النظر عن نتيجة الثانوية العامة ☐

ب) القبول على اساس نتيجة مواد معينة فى امتحان الثانوية العامة متصلة بطبيعة الدراسة فى كلية ما ☐

ج) مجموع درجات الثانوية العامة مع مقابلات شخصية فى الكلية ☐

(٢٨) هل لديك مقترحات اخرى لتحسين نظام القبول فى الجامعات المصرية نعم ☐ لا ☐

اذكر بالتفصيل اذا كانت اجابتك بـ " نعم " .

الاجابة :

_____

_____

_____

وشكرا ؛

APPENDIX III

Egypt's Universities

I. Cairo University

Cairo University is the oldest secular university in Egypt, established in 1908 as a private university and becoming State-owned in 1925 as the Egyptian University. In 1940 it was named Fuad the First, and has been known as Cairo University since 1953. It began with four faculties and now consists of the following faculties and higher institutes, according to Law No. 49 and its Regulation of 1975, and amendments of 1975 and 1976:

1) Arts
2) Law
3) Economic and Political Sciences
4) Commerce
5) Sciences
6) Medicine:
   (a) Higher Institute of Nursing
   (b) Higher Institute of Natural Therapy
7) Dentistry
8) Pharmacy
9) Agriculture
10) Engineering
11) Veterinary Medicine
12) Dar-al-Ulum (for Arabic and Islamic studies)

13) Mass Communication and Journalism

14) Archaeology

15) Institute of Statistical Studies and Research

16) Institute of Cancer Research

17) Institute of African Studies and Research

18) Education

19) Engineering
20) Agriculture
} at al-Fayum (1975/76)

21) Commerce
22) Education
} at Bani Suaf (1976)

Khartum Branch (Sudan)

This branch consists of four faculties:

1) Arts

2) Law

3) Commerce

4) Sciences

The central campus of Cairo University is in Giza, Greater Cairo, except for the faculties of al-Fayum and Bani Suaf which are situated in these two cities.

II. Alexandria University

Alexandria University originated as a branch of the Egyptian University in 1938, in order to relieve the pressure on its faculties. This branch consisted of two faculties: Arts and Law. In 1942 the Royal Decree was issued for the foundation of Faruq the First University. It was renamed Alexandria University in 1953.

At the present time, this university consists of eleven faculties and three higher institutes, as follows:

1) Arts
2) Law
3) Commerce
4) Sciences
5) Medicine
6) Pharmacy
7) Dentistry
8) Engineering
9) Agriculture
10) Veterinary Medicine
11) Education

Attached to the Faculty of Medicine is the Higher Institute of Nursing, and there are, in addition, two other higher institutes attached to the university: the Higher Institute of Community Health and the Higher Institute of Medical Research.

In 1960 an academic connection was established between Alexandria University and the Arab University of Beirut. This co-operation exists in different fields: curricula, examinations, academic support, etc. Beirut University consists of four faculties: Arts, Law, Commerce and Architectural Engineering. Alexandria University buildings are scattered throughout Alexandria City, with no central campus.

III. Ain-Shams University

Ain-Shams University is the second largest secular university in Cairo. It was founded in 1950 under the name Ibrahim Phasha al Kabir (the Great) and has been known as Ain-Shams University since 1954. This university originally consisted of the following seven faculties:

1) Arts
2) Law
3) Commerce
4) Sciences
5) Medicine
6) Engineering
7) Agriculture

In 1956, the Girls' Faculty and the Faculty of Education were added, bring the total number of faculties to nine. Finally, the School of Languages, which began

in 1835 and was re-opened in 1875, was incorporated into Ain-Shams University, under the name of the Faculty of Linguistics.

Many of the faculties of Ain-Shams University are located in the central campus, with the administration at Cairo.

IV. Asyut University

The decision to establish this university originated in 1949, but it only came into existence as Asyut University in 1953 and began operating in 1957/58. The faculties of this university have been growing gradually, beginning with the two faculties of Sciences and Engineering. In 1959/60, the Faculty of Agriculture was added; in the following year the Faculty of Medicine opened; education began in the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine in 1961/62, and this was followed, in 1963, by the addition of the Faculty of Commerce.

According to the regulation of the law concerning the organization of universities for the year of 1975, it comprises three more faculties: Pharmacy, Law and Education.

All Asyut University faculties, in Asyut City itself, are on one campus, owing to the fact that from the very beginning it was planned as a university, and allowances were made for the present and the future.

However, Asyut University was extended outside Asyut City to other cities in Upper Egypt. There are many faculties in the three cities of Suhag, Qina and Aswan. These faculties are independent from, but affiliated to, the comparable faculties of Asyut University. In Suhag City there are four faculties: Arts, Sciences, Education and Medicine. In Qina City there are three faculties: Arts, Education and Sciences. Aswan has four faculties: Arts, Education, Sciences and Social Services.

The above universities are the oldest, largest and most organized in Egypt. The following are the newest, smallest (in the numbers of students and teaching staff) and are still developing. These new universities originated, on the whole, as faculties affiliated to the oldest universities and gradually became independent.

V. Tanta University

This provincial university came into being in 1962. The Faculty of Medicine was opened at Tanta City, Gharbia Governorate, under the supervision of Alexandria University. Another two faculties opened in 1969. According to the regulation of the law concerning the organization of universities (1975) and its amendment of 1976, Tanta University consists of thirteen faculties:

1) Arts
2) Commerce
3) Sciences
4) Medicine
5) Education
6) Dentistry
7) Pharmacy
8) Law
9) Engineering
10) Agriculture
11) Veterinary Medicine

Two additional faculties of Agriculture and Education are situated in the city of Kafr al Shakh.

Tanta University became fully independent in 1972.

VI. Al-Mansura University

Al-Mansura University is also one of the new provincial universities. In 1962 the Faculty of Medicine was opened in al-Mansura City, Daqahlia Governorate, in the Delta, which was under the jurisdiction of Cairo University. After the Presidential Decrees of 1969 and 1970, the faculties of this university increased to nine, to include: Law, Sciences, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Engineering, Agriculture and Education. In 1976 the two additional faculties of Arts and Education were created in Dumyat City.

VII. Al-Zagazig University

Al-Zagazig University also exists in the Delta, Sharqia Governorate, and comprises ten faculties in Zagazig City. The first faculty, founded in 1969 under the supervision of Ain-Shams University, was the Faculty of Medicine. This university became independent in 1973. Its faculties are as follows:

1) Arts
2) Law
3) Commerce
4) Sciences
5) Medicine
6) Pharmacy
7) Agriculture
8) Veterinary Medicine
9) Education
10) Engineering

In 1976 a new branch of this university developed at Banha City, Kalyubia Governorate. This consists of six faculties: Medicine, Engineering, Commerce, Agriculture, Education and the Faculty of Commerce at Shubra (Cairo).

VIII. Helwan University

This university is one of the most recent, established in 1975. As mentioned earlier, it is the first technical university in Egypt and consists of many established higher institutes in Cairo and Alexandria which were converted into faculties. The faculties of this university at Cairo are: Technology (at Helwan and Matria), Fine Arts, Commerce and Business Administration, Social Services, Tourism and Hotel Management, Physical Education for Men, Physical Education for Women, Music Education, Applied Arts, Domestic Economics and Postal Studies. The university faculties at Alexandria are: Fine Arts, Physical Education for Men, Physical Education for Women and Cotton Sciences.

IX. Suez Canal University

A number of higher institutes also formed the nucleus of this university which was established in 1976. It consists of nine faculties in three cities of the Canal Zone, i.e. Suez, Ismailia and Port Said: Technology, Petrol and Mining, Commercial and Management Sciences, Medicine, Pharmacy, Dentistry, Sciences, Veterinary Medicine and the Faculty of Agriculture.

X. Al-Munufia University

This university originated as several faculties attached to a separate university (e.g. the Faculties of Agriculture and Education at Shibin-al-Kum) and became independent in 1976. In addition to these two faculties and in accordance with the amendment of the universities' regulation of 1976, there are another five faculties: Engineering and Technology, Electronic Engineering (at Munuf), Medicine, Sciences and Commerce.

XI. Al-Minia University

Since the academic year 1969/70, work has been in progress on a branch of Asyut University in Minia City, comprising five faculties: Arts, Sciences, Agriculture, Engineering and Technology and Education. In 1976, this university became independent as al-Minia University and two more faculties - Fine Arts and Medicine - were added, bringing the total number of faculties to seven.

A new proposal has been put forward by the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology to increase the number of universities in Egypt to approximately twenty-five by the year 1990. Some of the largest and oldest universities may be divided into two or three campuses rather than one, and thus, new universities may be established in the near future.

APPENDIX IV(a)

The distribution of the sample according to total mark percentage in different faculties at Ain-Shams University by branch of study

Faculty	50% and over		55% and over		60% and over		65% and over		70% and over		75% and over		80% and over		85% and over		90% and over		95% and over		Total		
Branch of study	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Total
Arts			9	1	6	3	3		4		1		1		1						25	4	29
Agriculture								10													-	10	10
Commerce							2	1	2	6	1	3	2								7	10	17
Education			3		1		1		1	2	2	1		1		1					8	5	13
Engineering														5		4				1	-	10	10
Girls'			1			3	1	2							1						3	5	8
Languages									1		3	2	1								5	2	7
Law	1		6		1	1			3												11	1	12
Medicine																		5		3	-	8	8
Sciences										1		3				1					-	5	5
Total	1		19	1	8	7	7	13	11	9	7	9	4	6	2	6		5		4	59	60	119

* one is unknown in the Faculty of Commerce

APPENDIX IV(b)

The distribution of the sample according to total mark percentage in different faculties at Zagazig University by branch of study

Faculty	50% and over		55% and over		60% and over		65% and over		70% and over		75% and over		80% and over		85% and over		90% and over		95% and over		Total		
Branch of study	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Arts	Sc.	Total
Arts	1				2	1	4		2		1										10	1	11
Agriculture						7		7													-	14	14
Commerce					6	1	8	7	3	8	2	2									19	18	37
Education			1	1	8	1	3		1		3	3	1								17	5	22
Law	1		5		6	1	2														14	1	15
Medicine																		2		4	-	6	6
Pharmacy																4					-	4	4
Sciences										1		4									-	5	5
Veterinary Medicine												6									-	6	6
Total	2		6	1	22	11	17	14	6	9	6	15	1			4		2		4	60	60	120

APPENDIX V

An illustration of the faculties which have been completely filled and their minimum grades of acceptance, 1976/77

(Faculties and Higher Institutes affiliated to the secular universities only : Extract)

a) Scientific branch: the full total mark is 370

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Medicine	Mansura	336.5
	Ain-Shams	332.5
	Cairo	332
	Tanta	329
	Zagazig	328.5
	Alexandria	328
	Asyut	327
Pharmacy	Cairo	323.5
	Tanta	323.5
	Alexandria	320
	Mansura	319
	Zagazig	318
Dentistry	Cairo	317
Pharmacy	Asyut	317
Dentistry	Tanta	316
	Alexandria	315.5
Engineering	Cairo	306.5
	Mansura	306.5
	Ain-Shams	305
	Alexandria	304
	Asyut	302.5

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Engineering and Technology	Munufia	296.5
Economics and Political Sciences	Cairo	295
Technology (at Helwan)	Helwan	293
Engineering and Technology (at Port Said)	Suez Canal	292
Engineering and Technology	Minia	291.5
Mining and Petrol	Suez Canal	290.5
Veterinary Medicine	Alexandria	290.5
Technology (at Matria)	Helwan	290.5
Mass Communication and Journalism	Cairo	289.5
Fine Arts (Architecture Department) (at Cairo)	Helwan	285
Higher Institute of Natural Therapy	Cairo	287.5
Veterinary Medicine	Cairo	285.5
Fine Arts (Architecture Department) (at Alexandria)	Helwan	283.5
Veterinary Medicine	Zagazig Asyut	282.5 281

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Education	Munufia	276.5
Sciences	Ain-Shams Alexandria Cairo	274.5 274.5 274
Education	Zagazig	274
Sciences	Tanta	273
Languages	Ain-Shams	271.5
Sciences	Zagazig	271
Education	Mansura	270.5
Kima Higher Institute of Technology	Aswan	270
Sciences	Mansura	269.5
Education	Tanta	268.5
Sciences	Minia	267
Commerce	Cairo	264
Sciences	Asyut	263.5
Archaeology	Cairo	262.5
Education (at Suhag)	Asyut	262.5
Commerce	Ain-Shams	261.5
Education	Ain-Shams Minia	259.5 259
Commerce and Management (at Zamalik)	Helwan	257
Sciences (at Qina)	Asyut	257
Sciences (at Suhag)	Asyut	256

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Education	Alexandria	255.5
Commerce	Alexandria Asyut	255.5 255
Education (at Qina)	Asyut	254.5
Sciences (at Aswan)	Asyut	253.5
Commerce	Tanta Mansura	253 251
Commerce (External)	Cairo	249
Education (at Fayum)	Cairo	249
Commerce	Zagazig	248.5
Agriculture	Alexandria	248
Commerce (External)	Ain-Shams	247
Education	Asyut	245.5
Art	Tanta	244
Commercial and Managerial Sciences (at Port Said)	Suez Canal	244
Commerce (External)	Tanta	244
Applied Arts (at Giza)	Helwan	244
Commerce (External)	Alexandria	243
Art	Alexandria	242
Agriculture	Mansura	241

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Education (at Aswan)	Asyut	241
Agriculture	Cairo	239.5
Commerce (External)	Mansura	239.5
Art	Cairo	238
Agriculture	Ain-Shams	238
Commerce (External)	Zagazig	237
Art	Ain-Shams	236
Commerce (External)	Asyut	236
Art	Zagazig	236
Agriculture (at Kafr al-Shakh)	Tanta	235.5
Agriculture	Zagazig	234
Fine Arts (at Cairo)	Helwan	234
Girls' (General)	Ain-Shams	233.5
Agriculture	Asyut	233.5
Agriculture (at Shibin al-Kum)	Munufia	233
Law	Asyut	232
Art (External)	Zagazig	232
Agriculture	Minia	231.5
Law	Cairo	230.5
Art (External)	Ain-Shams	231.5

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Cotton Sciences (at Alexandria)	Helwan	230.5
Law	Ain-Shams	230
Art (at Suhag)	Asyut	230
Law	Alexandria	229.5
Girls' (Educational Department)	Ain-Shams	229.5
Art	Minia	229.5
Law	Zagazig	229
Agricultural Sciences	Helwan	228.5
Law	Mansura	227.5
Law (External)	Zagazig Asyut Minia Cairo Alexandria Ain-Shams	227.5 227 227 226.5 226.5 226.5
Art (External) (at Suhag)	Asyut	226.5
Law (External)	Mansura	225.5
Dar-al-Ulum	Cairo	225
Girls' (Home Economy Department)	Ain-Shams	225
Postal Department	Helwan	224.5
Fine Arts (at Alexandria)	Helwan	224.5
Higher Institute of Nursing	Alexandria Cairo	223 221.5

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Home Economy (at Cairo)	Helwan	220.5
Artistic Education	Helwan	204.5
Physical Education (Men) (at Cairo)	Helwan	193
Physical Education (Men) (at Alexandria)	Helwan	188.5
Physical Education (Women) (at Alexandria)	Helwan	185
Music Education (at Cairo)	Helwan	185
Physical Education (Women) (at Cairo)	Helwan	185

b) Literary branch: the full total mark is 280

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Economics and Political Sciences	Cairo	233.5
Mass Communication and Journalism	Cairo	230
Commerce	Cairo	199.5
Languages	Ain-Shams	195.5
Education	Mansura	190
Commerce	Ain-Shams	189.5
Education (at Qina)	Asyut	188.5
Commerce and Management (at Zamalik)	Helwan	187
Archaeology	Cairo	185
Commerce	Asyut Mansura Alexandria	185 185 182.5
Commerce (External)	Tanta	182.5
Commerce (External)	Cairo Mansura Ain-Shams	180.5 179 178
Art	Tanta	176
Commerce	Zagazig	175
Art	Zagazig	174
Education	Zagazig	172

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Education (at Shibin-al-Kum)	Munufia	171.5
Commerce (External)	Alexandria	171.5
Art	Cairo	170
Commerce (External)	Zagazig	170
Art (at Suhag)	Asyut	169
Commercial and Managerial Sciences (at Port Said)	Suez Canal	169
Art (External)	Tanta	169
Commerce (External)	Asyut	167.5
Education	Tanta	167
Art (External)	Zagazig	166.5
Fine Arts (at Cairo)	Helwan	164
Law (External)	Asyut	164
Art	Alexandria	163
Law	Asyut	163
Education (at Suhag)	Asyut	162.5
Art (External) (at Suhag)	Asyut	161
Art	Minia	159.5

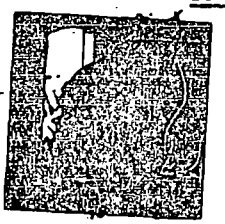
Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Art (External)	Cairo	159.5
Education	Alexandria	158.5
Education (at Fayum)	Cairo	158.5
Education	Ain-Shams	158
Fine Arts (at Alexandria)	Helwan	158
Law (External)	Zagazig	158
Art	Ain-Shams	157.5
Education	Asyut	157
Education	Minia	156.5
Art (External)	Minia Alexandria Ain-Shams	156.5 156 154.5
Girls' (General)	Ain-Shams	154
Girls' (Educational Department)	Ain-Shams	151
Law (External)	Mansura	151
Law	Zagazig	151
Social Services (at Cairo)	Helwan	151
Law (External)	Cairo Ain-Shams	150.5 148.5
Law	Cairo	147.5
Postal Department	Helwan	147

Faculty and Location	University	Minimum Grades
Law (External)	Alexandria	146
Law	Ain-Shams	145
	Mansura	145
Dar-al-Ulum	Cairo	144
Law	Alexandria	144

Source:

Extract from: Directory for acceptance into universities and institutes, Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, A supplement prepared by, Al-Sibā'i, L., Cairo, 15 August 1977, pp. 81-95 (in Arabic).

APPENDIX VI



(استمارة ٥٥٥ تنسيق)

الثمن ١٥٠ مليما

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول

بالجامعات والمعاهد

طلب التحاق

اسم الطالب ولقبه _____

الجنسية _____ الديانة _____

محل الاقامة _____

تاريخ ميلاد الطالب _____ سنة ١٩ محل الميلاد _____

يوم شهر سنة

سن الطالب (فى اول اكتوبر من السنة الدراسية الحالية بالتقويم الميلادى) ___ ___ ___

الشهادات الدراسية الحاصل عليها _____

تاريخ حصوله عليها والمدرسة التى كان بها وقت الحصول عليها _____

عنوان المدرسة التى حصل منها على الثانوية العامة واسم مديرية التعليم التى تتبعها _____

_____

اللغات الاجنبية التى درسها _____

رقم جلوسه فى امتحان المرحلة الثانوية _____ الشعبة التى تخرج فيها _____

سنة التخرج ومجموع درجاته فى الامتحان _____

وظيفته والجهة التى يعمل بها ان كان موظفا * _____

اسم والد الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

_____

اسم ولى امر الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

_____

اسم مراسل الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

توقيع الطالب _____

_____

بيانات خاصة بالطلبة البنين

بطاقة شخصيه / عائلية رقم _____ جهة اصدارها المركز / القسم _____ تاريخ اصدارها / / ١٩

رقم بطاقة الخدمة الوطنية والعسكرية _____

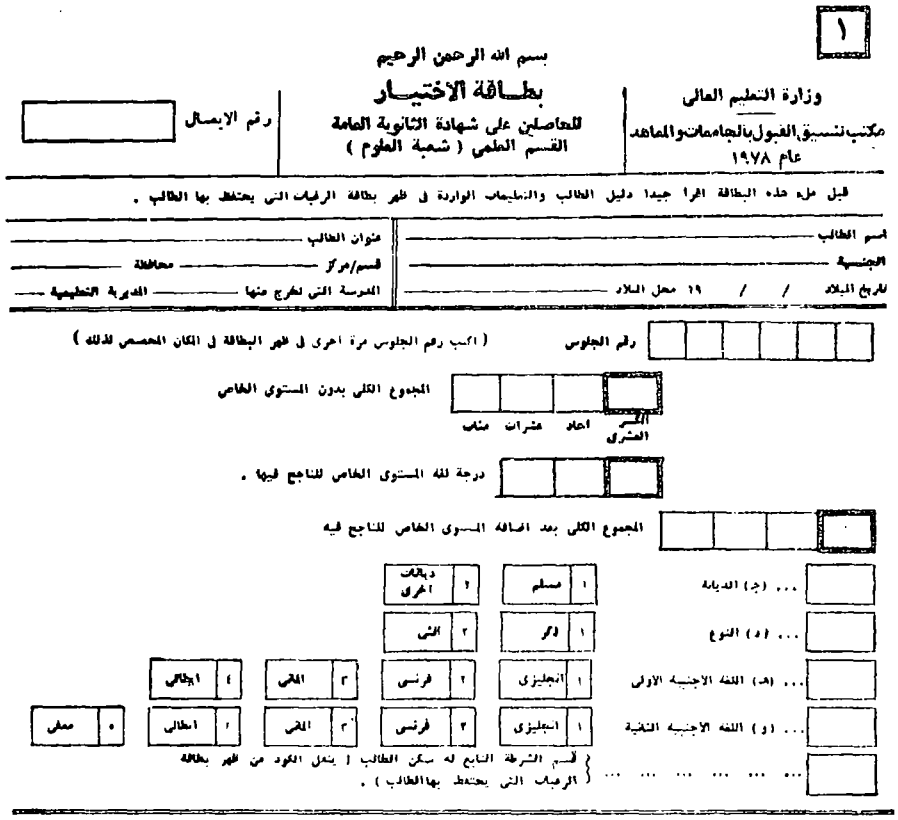
_____

* هذا البيان خاص بالطلبة الموظفين ويجب ارفاق ما يفيد موافقة الجهة التى يعمل بها الطالب (رئيس مصلحة على الأقل) على القيد والدراسة تمهيدا لتطبيق اللائحة . فاذا لم يكن الطالب من العاملين فتكتب عبارة (من غير العاملين) .

The application form (for the second stage candidates - scientific branch)

(The original copy of this application form is supplied in the pocket-folder of this thesis)

List of choices in order of priority



١

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى
مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
عام ١٩٧٨

بطـاقة الاختيـار
للحاصلين على شهادة الثانوية العامة
القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

رقم الايصال

قبل ملء هذه البطاقة اقرأ جيدا دليل الطالب والتعليمات الواردة فى ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب .

اسم الطالب ——— عنوان الطالب ———
الجنسية ——— قسم/مركز ——— محافظة ———
تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ محل الميلاد ——— المدرسة التى تخرج منها ——— المديرية التعليمية ———

رقم الجلوس (اكتب رقم الجلوس مرة اخرى فى ظهر البطاقة فى المكان المخصص لذلك)

المجموع الكلى بدون المستوى الخاص (الآلف، المئات، العشرات، الآحاد)

درجة لغة المستوى الخاص الناجح فيها .

المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص الناجح فيه

... (ج) الديانة: ١ مسلم | ٢ ديانات أخرى

... (د) النوع: ١ ذكر | ٢ انثى

... (هـ) اللغة الاجنبية الاولى: ١ انجليزى | ٢ فرنسى | ٣ المانى | ٤ ايطالى

... (و) اللغة الاجنبية الثانية: ١ انجليزى | ٢ فرنسى | ٣ المانى | ٤ ايطالى | ٥ معفى

... ... (قسم الشرطة التابع له سكن الطالب (ينقل الكود من ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب) .

الرغبـات (الاختيـارات) تلصق هنا الطوابع المرفقة بالدليل

١	الرغبة الاولى	٥	الرغبة الخامسة	٩	الرغبة التاسعة	١٣	الرغبة الثالثة عشر
٢	الرغبة الثانية	٦	الرغبة السادسة	١٠	الرغبة العاشرة	١٤	الرغبة الرابعة عشر
٣	الرغبة الثالثة	٧	الرغبة السابعة	١١	الرغبة الحادية عشرة	١٥	الرغبة الخامسة عشر
٤	الرغبة الرابعة	٨	الرغبة الثامنة	١٢	الرغبة الثانية عشر	١٦	الرغبة السادسة عشر

توقيع الطالب ——— توقيع ولى الامر ———

رقم التليفون او الاقرب تليفون للطالب ———

(تعليمات ملء هذه البطاقة موضحة فى ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب) (اكمل الرغبات فى ظهر البطاقة)

List of choices in order of priority (cont'd.) ٢

رقم الجلوس (يكتب رقم الجلوس مرة اخرى)

تكملة الرغبـات (الاختيـارات)

١٧	الرغبة السابعة عشر	٢١	الرغبة الواحدة والعشرون	٢٥	الرغبة الخامسة والعشرون	٢٩	الرغبة التاسعة والعشرون
١٨	الرغبة الثامنة عشر	٢٢	الرغبة الثانية والعشرون	٢٦	الرغبة السادسة والعشرون	٣٠	الرغبة الثلاثون
١٩	الرغبة التاسعة عشر	٢٣	الرغبة الثالثة والعشرون	٢٧	الرغبة السابعة والعشرون	٣١	الرغبة الواحدة والثلاثون
٢٠	الرغبة العشرون	٢٤	الرغبة الرابعة والعشرون	٢٨	الرغبة الثامنة والعشرون	٣٢	الرغبة الثانية والثلاثون

توقيع الطالب ——— توقيع ولى الامر ———

درجات الطالب

اللغة العربية ٥٠/٢٥	مجموع اللغات الاجنبية ٢٠/٢٨		مجموع الرياضيات ٨٠/٢١	مجموعة العلوم ١٢٠/٤٨		التاريخ الطبيعى ٨٠/٢٢	المجموع الكلى ٤٠٠/٢٠٠	المستوى الخاص اللغة العربية او الاجنبية الاولى ١٠/٥	المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص
	اللغة الاولى ١٠/١٢	اللغة الثانية ٢٠/٩		الفيزياء ٦٠/١٨	الكيمياء ٦٠/١٨				
	لغة ———	لغة ———							
	المجموع			المجموع					

اختبـار القـدرات

	... ...

وزارة التعليم العالي
مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
سنة ١٩٧٨

كليات الجامعات والمعاهد التي تقبل الطلاب الحاصلين
على الشهادة الثانوية العامة من القسم العلمي (شعبة العلوم فقط)

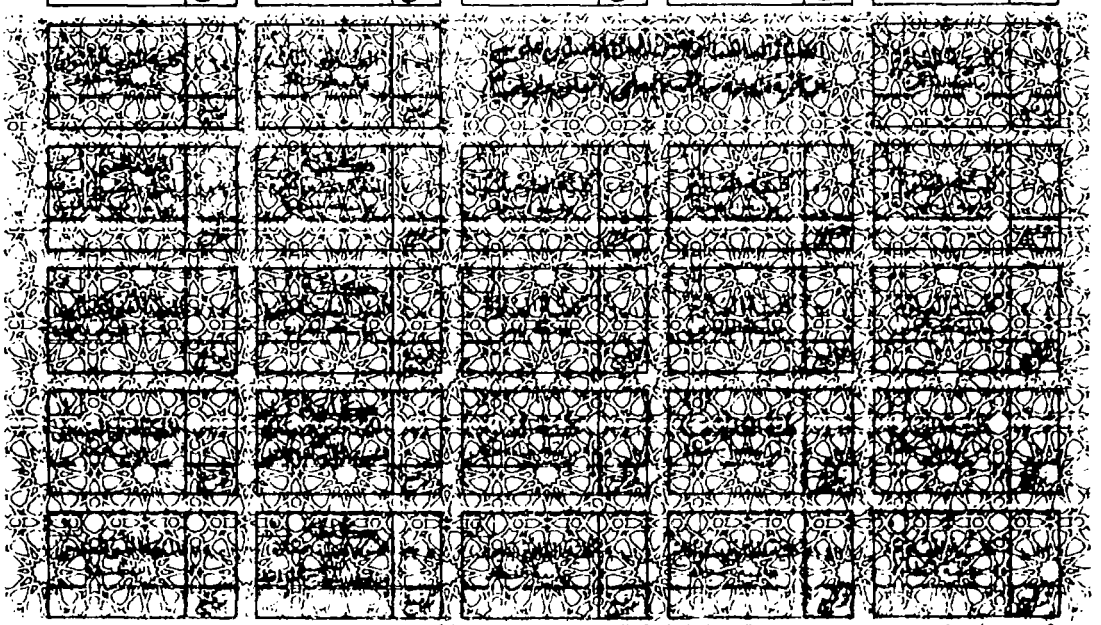
٠٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة القاهرة	٢	١٠٢	كلية طب الأسنان جامعة الإسكندرية	٤	١٠٧	كلية الطب البيطري جامعة الإسكندرية	٨	٣٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة أسيوط	٩	١٨٢	كلية علوم القطن (بالإسكندرية) جامعة حلوان	٠
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
١٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة الإسكندرية	٣	١٠٣	كلية طب الأسنان جامعة طنطا	٧	٣٠٧	كلية الطب البيطري جامعة أسيوط	٠	٥٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة المنصورة	١	٢١٤	كلية البنات (اقتصاد منزلي) جامعة عين شمس	٨
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٢٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة عين شمس	٤	٥٠٣	كلية طب الأسنان جامعة المنصورة	٨	٦٠٧	كلية الطب البيطري جامعة الزقازيق	٣	٦٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة الزقازيق	٢	٣٨١	كلية الاقتصاد المنزلي (طالبات فقط) جامعة حلوان	١
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٣٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة أسيوط	٥	٠٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة القاهرة	٤	٠١٥	المعهد العالي للتمريض (طالبات فقط) جامعة القاهرة	٧	٧٠٦	كلية الزراعة بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية	٣	٨٨٠	المعهد العالي للتعاون الزراعي بشبرا الخيمة (خاص بمصروفات)	٥
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٤٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة طنطا	٦	١٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة الإسكندرية	٥	١١٥	المعهد العالي للتمريض (طالبات فقط) جامعة الإسكندرية	٨	٨٠٦	كلية الزراعة بكفر الشيخ جامعة طنطا	٤	٨٨١	المعهد العالي للتعاون والإرشاد الزراعي بأسيوط (خاص بمصروفات)	٦
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٥٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة المنصورة	٧	٣٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة أسيوط	٧	٠١١	المعهد العالي للعلاج الطبيعي جامعة القاهرة	٣	٩٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة المنيا	٥	٧٨١	المعهد الفني الصحي بالقاهرة شعبة التمريض (طالبات فقط)	٥
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٦٠٢	كلية الطب جامعة الزقازيق	٨	٤٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة طنطا	٨	٠٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة القاهرة	٦	٦٤٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة قناة السويس	٠	٧٨٣	المعهد الفني الصحي بالإسكندرية شعبة التمريض (طالبات فقط)	٧
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٩٤٢	كلية الطب (بنين) جامعة الأزهر	٩	٥٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة المنصورة	٩	٥٤٦	كلية الزراعة بالفيوم جامعة القاهرة	٩	٩٤٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٣	٧٨٤	المعهد الفني الصحي (بطنطا)	٨
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٩٥٢	الطب (بنات) جامعة الأزهر	٢	٦٠٤	كلية الصيدلة جامعة الزقازيق	٠	١٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة الإسكندرية	٧	١٤٦	كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر شعبة عامة (جامعة الزقازيق)	١	٧٨٥	المعهد الفني الصحي بالزقازيق	٩
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
٠٠٣	كلية طب الأسنان جامعة القاهرة	٣	٠٠٧	كلية الطب البيطري جامعة القاهرة	٧	٢٠٦	كلية الزراعة جامعة عين شمس	٨	١٨٠	كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر (طلبة فقط) شعبة الزراعة والتربية (جامعة الزقازيق)	٨	٧٨٦	المعهد الفني الصحي بأسيوط	
توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع		
												٧٨٨	المعهد الفني الصحي بالمنصورة	٢
												توقيع		

Stamps for the different faculties and institutes accepting General Secondary Certificate scientific branch (sciences section)

وزارة التعليم العالي
مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
سنة ١٩٧٢

الكليات والمعاهد التي تقبل الطلاب الحاصلين على الشهادة الثانوية العامة
من القسم العلمي (شعبة الرياضيات فقط)

٠	كلية الهندسة جامعة القاهرة توزيع	٨٤	١ كلية التكنولوجيا والتعدين جامعة حلوان توزيع	٨٦	٣ كلية البترول والتعدين جامعة قناة السويس توزيع	٤٨٣	٤ المعهد الفني للتجارة وادي حوف (الطلبة فقط) توزيع	٥٨١	٣ المعهد الفني الصناعي شبين الكوم (الطلبة فقط) توزيع
١٠٠	٦ كلية الهندسة جامعة الاسكندرية توزيع	٨٧	٤ كلية التكنولوجيا الطبية جامعة حلوان توزيع	٩٤٠	٢ كلية الهندسة جامعة عين شمس (بنين فقط) توزيع	٤٨٥	٦ المعهد الفني للتليفونات القاهرة (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع	٥٨٢	١ المعهد الفني للمصريات السيدة (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع
٢٠٠	٧ كلية الهندسة جامعة عين شمس توزيع	٩٠٥	٤ كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا جامعة السويس توزيع	٧٤٠	كلية الهندسة (البترول) (بنين وبنات) جامعة الزقازيق توزيع	٤٨٧	٨ المعهد الفني للزراعة والصيد البحري والصناعات الغذائية الحمرة (الطلبة فقط) توزيع	٥٨٤	٦ المعهد الفني للدراسات جنبا (الطلبة والطالبات)
٣٠٠	٨ كلية الهندسة جامعة أسيوط توزيع	٧٠٥	٢ كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا شبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية توزيع	٤٩٠	١ المعهد الفني الصناعي بالمحرة (الطلبة والطالبات)	٤٨٨	٩ المعهد الفني الصناعي بالقاهرة (الطلبة والطالبات)	٥٨٦	٨ المعهد الفني للتليفزيون بالهرم (الطلبة والطالبات)
٥٠٠	كلية الهندسة جامعة المنصورة توزيع	٨٠٠	٣ كلية الهندسة الالكترونية سنورس (جامعة المنوفية) توزيع	٤٨١	٢ المعهد الفني الصناعي بشبرا الخيمة (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع	٤٨٩	٠ المعهد الفني الصناعي بالزقازيق (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع	٥٨٧	٦ المعهد الفني الصناعي بورسعيد (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع
٦٠٠	١ كلية الهندسة جامعة الزقازيق توزيع	٣٤٠	٦ كلية التكنولوجيا والتنمية جامعة قناة السويس توزيع	٤٠٢	٣ المعهد الفني المعماري الاقرع (الطلبة فقط) توزيع	٥٨	٢ المعهد الفني الصناعي بأسوان (الطلبة والطالبات) توزيع	٨٨٣	٨ معهد التخطيط القومي جامعة القاهرة توزيع



Stamps for the different faculties and institutes accepting General Secondary Certificate scientific branch, Mathematics section only and both sections Sciences and Mathematics

وزارة التعليم العالي
مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
سنة ١٩٧٨

الكليات والمعاهد التي تقبل الحاصلين
على الثانوية العامة
من القسمين الأدبي والعلمي بشعبتيه

٢١٦	كلية التجارة (شعبة العلوم السياسية) جامعة أسيوط	١	توقيع							٩٦٨	كلية البنات (أدبي) جامعة الأزهر	٠	توقيع
٠١٦	كلية الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية جامعة القاهرة	٨	توقيع	٥١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة المنصورة	٤	توقيع	٢٠٧	كلية العلوم التجارية والإدارية (بورسعيد) جامعة قناة السويس	١	توقيع	١٦١	كلية التربية بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٥	توقيع	٩٦١	كلية التربية جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٣	توقيع
٠١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة القاهرة	٩	توقيع	٥١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة المنصورة	٥	توقيع	٢٠٨	كلية العلوم التجارية والإدارية (انتساب) بورسعيد جامعة قناة السويس	٢	توقيع	٩٢١	كلية التربية بالمنيا جامعة المنيا	٤	توقيع	٠٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة القاهرة	٧	توقيع
٠١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة القاهرة	٠	توقيع	٦١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الزقازيق	٥	توقيع	٨٠٧	كلية التجارة ببني سويف جامعة القاهرة	٦	توقيع	٠٦١	كلية التربية بقنا جامعة أسيوط	٤	توقيع	٠٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة القاهرة	٨	توقيع
١١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الإسكندرية	٠	توقيع	٦١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة الزقازيق	٦	توقيع	٨٥٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) بني سويف جامعة القاهرة	٧	توقيع	٤٢١	كلية التربية جامعة طنطا	٩	توقيع	١٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة الإسكندرية	٨	توقيع
١١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة الإسكندرية	١	توقيع	٩٠٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الأزهر بنين فقط	٧	توقيع	٠٢٠	كلية الأعلام جامعة القاهرة	٤	توقيع	٧٢١	كلية التربية بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية	٢	توقيع	١٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة الإسكندرية	٩	توقيع
٢١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة عين شمس	١	توقيع	٩٦٩	التجارة بنات جامعة الأزهر	١	توقيع	٠١٩	كلية الآثار جامعة القاهرة	١	توقيع	٥٢١	كلية التربية جامعة المنصورة	٠	توقيع	٢٢٢	كلية الآداب جامعة عين شمس	٩	توقيع
٢١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة عين شمس	٢	توقيع	٠٩٠	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال بالزمالك جامعة حلوان	٩	توقيع	٢٢٢	كلية الألسن جامعة عين شمس	٨	توقيع	٦٢١	كلية التربية جامعة الزقازيق	١	توقيع	٢٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة عين شمس	٠	توقيع
٢١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة أسيوط	٢	توقيع	٠٩١	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال (انتساب) بالزمالك جامعة حلوان	٠	توقيع	٥٦١	كلية التربية بالفيوم جامعة القاهرة	٩	توقيع	٨٢١	كلية التربية بكفر الشيخ جامعة طنطا	٣	توقيع	٩٢٣	كلية الآداب بالمنيا جامعة المنيا	٦	توقيع
٢١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة أسيوط	٣	توقيع	٠٩٤	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال بشعبة البرمجة جامعة حلوان	٣	توقيع	١٢١	كلية التربية جامعة الإسكندرية	٦	توقيع	٤٦١	كلية التربية بدمياط جامعة المنصورة	٨	توقيع	٩٢٤	كلية الآداب بالمنيا (انتساب) جامعة المنيا	٧	توقيع
٤١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة طنطا	٣	توقيع	٧٠٧	كلية التجارة ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	٥	توقيع	٢٢١	كلية التربية جامعة عين شمس	٧	توقيع	٧٦١	كلية التربية ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	١	توقيع	١٦٣	كلية الآداب بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٧	توقيع
٤١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة طنطا	٤	توقيع	٧٠٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	٦	توقيع	٢٢١	كلية التربية جامعة أسيوط	٨	توقيع	٦٦١	كلية التربية جامعة قناة السويس للعلوم والرياضيات فقط	٠	توقيع	١٦٤	كلية الآداب بسوهاج (انتساب) جامعة أسيوط	٨	توقيع

Stamps for the different faculties and institutes accepting General Secondary Certificate of both branches - literary and scientific branches

Stamps for the different faculties and institutes accepting General Secondary Certificate of both branches - literary and scientific branches (cont'd.)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

عام ١٩٧٨

بطاقة رغبات يحتفظ بها الطالب

يحررها الطالب وفقا لترتيب الرغبات الواردة ببطاقة الاختيار المقدمة منه (القسم العلمى) ❁

(شعبة العلوم)

رقم الايصال ❁❁

اسم الطالب ——— النوع (ذكر / انثى) ———

تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ الجنسية ——— الديانة ———

عنوان الطالب ———

القسم/مركز ——— محافظة ———

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة ———

المدرسة التى تخرج منها ———

مديرية التربية والتعليم التابعة لها المدرسة

(او التابعة لها لجنة الامتحان لطلبة المنازل) ———

الرغبات (الاختيارات)

ترتيب الاختيارات	الكلية (او المعهد)	الجامعة (او مكان المعهد)	ترتيب الاختيارات	الكلية (او المعهد)	الجامعة (او مكان المعهد)
١			١٧		
٢			١٨		
٣			١٩		
٤			٢٠		
٥			٢١		
٦			٢٢		
٧			٢٣		
٨			٢٤		
٩			٢٥		
١٠			٢٦		
١١			٢٧		
١٢			٢٨		
١٣			٢٩		
١٤			٣٠		
١٥			٣١		
١٦			٣٢		

درجات الطالب

اللغة العربية ٥٠/٢٥	مجموعة اللغات الاجنبية ٧٠/٢٨		مجموعة الرياضيات ٨٠/٣٢	مجموعة العلوم ١٢٠/٤٨		التاريخ الطبيعى ٨٠/٣٢	المجموع الكلى ٤٠٠/٢٠٠	المستوى الخاص	المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص
	اللغة الاولى ٤٠/١٢	اللغة الثانية ٣٠/٩		الفيزياء ٦٠/١٨	الكيمياء ٦٠/١٨			اللغة العربية او الاجنبية الاولى ١٠/٥	
	لغة ———	لغة ———							
	المجموع			المجموع					

❁ هذه البطاقة يحتفظ بها الطالب ليكون على بينة من الرغبات الواردة فى البطاقة الاصلية المقدمة منه وعلى ضوئها يمكن للطالب ان يعرف الكلية او المعهد الذى رشح له بعد اعلان نتائج القبول وفقا للحد الادنى

❁❁ على الطالب استيفاء رقم الايصال حتى يسهل عليه الرجوع للمكتب فى اى موضوع يخصه .

(انظر خلفه)

List of choices (to be retained by the candidate)

كيفيـــة ملء بطـــاقة الاختيار

١ ـ تكتب البيانات بوضوح تام وبفضل الخط المسير .

٢ ـ رقم الجلوس : يكتب رقم واحد فى كل مربع من المربعات الستة المخصصة لهذا الرقم مبتدئا بالاحاد فى المربع الاول على اليمين وفى حالة ما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب يتكون من اربعة أرقام فقط يترك المربعان الاخيران على اليسار خاليان بمعنى انه اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ٥٧٨٢ يكتب هكذا :

		٥	٧	٨	٢

اما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ١٠٠٥٨٧ فيكتب هكذا :

١	٠	٠	٥	٨	٧

٣ ـ مجموع الدرجات : يكتب فى المربعات المخصصة لذلك مبتدئا بالكسر فى المربع الاول على اليمين (ويكتب بالكسر العشرى) ثم يكتب رقم الاحاد فى المربع المخصص لذلك ثم رقم العشرات ثم رقم المئات بمعنى انه اذا كان مجموع الطالب هو ٢٤,٥ درجة فيكتب هكذا

٢	٤	٠	٥

اما اذا كان مجموع الطالب ٢٤,٠ درجة فقط فيكتب هكذا :

٢	٤	٠	—

٤ ـ اما البيانات جـ ، د ، هـ ، و فيضع الطالب علامة ✓ على المربع الذى يناسب حالته ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين بمعنى انه اذا كانت اللغة الأجنبية الاولى للطالب هى اللغة الفرنسية مثلا فانه يضع علامة ✓ على المربع المخصص لذلك امام هذه اللغة ثم يكتب رقم (٢) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين هكذا :

٢	اللغة الاجنبية الاولى	١	انجليزى	٢	فرنسى ✓

٥ ـ طوابع اسماء الكليات والمعاهد : وتستعمل فى ابداء رغبات الطالب ويحدد الطالب مع اسرته رغباته وترتيبها قبل لصقها ويوقع الطالب باسمه بوضوح فى المكان المخصص لكل رغبة حسب الترتيب الذى استقر عليه مع مراعاة الدقة التامة وعدم نزع الطابع بعد لصقه .

٦ ـ كود اقسام الشرطة :

كود الاقسام الادارية (اقسام الشرطة) التابع لها سكن طلاب المدارس الغير عادية (مدارس اللغات والمتفوقين ومراكز المكفوفين والثانوية الرياضية والمدرسة الثانوية الجوية ومدرسة البالية والثانوية الموسيقية) .

اولا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم فى محافظات القاهرة الكبرى (القاهرة . الجيزة . القليوبية) .

اقسام الشرطة :	الكود
ـ قصر النيل ـ عابدين ـ بولاق ـ السيدة زينب ـ الازبكية ـ مصر القديمة ـ المعادى ـ حلوان ـ جميع اقسام محافظة الجيزة .	١
الخليفة ـ الظاهر ـ باب الشعرية ـ الجمالية ـ الدرب الاحمر ـ مدينة نصر ـ الموسكى ـ شبرا ـ روض الفرج ـ الساحل ـ المنيرية ـ الزيتون ـ مصر الجديدة ـ الوايلى ـ النزهة ـ جميع اقسام محافظة القليوبية .	٢

ثانيا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم خارج محافظات القاهرة الكبرى ٣

٧ ـ اختبارات القدرات : يضع الطالب علامة (✓) فى المربع الخاص باختبار القدرات ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

ملاحظة : اذا كان الطالب لائقا فى اختبار رسم الفنون فانه يضع علامة (✓) فى المربع رقم (١) ثم يكتب رقم (١) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

كود المحافظات والمناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربيـة والتعليم

التابعة لها مدرسة الطالب (خاص بالمكتب)

المناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربية والتعليم	الكود (الرقم الاحصائى لمديريات التربية والتعليم)
شمال القاهرة	٠١
شرق القاهرة	٠٢
مصر الجديدة	٠٣
وسط القاهرة	٠٤
جنوب القاهرة	٠٥
حلوان	٠٦
غرب القاهرة	٠٧
شرق اسكندرية	٠٨
وسط اسكندرية	٠٩
غرب اسكندرية	١٠
العامرية	١١
البحيرة	١٢
الغربية	١٣
كفر الشيخ	١٤
المنوفية	١٥
القليوبية	١٦
الدقهلية	١٧
دمياط	١٨
الشرقية	١٩
الاسماعيلية	٢٠
الجيزة	٢١
الفيوم	٢٢
بنى سويف	٢٣
المنيا	٢٤
اسيوط	٢٥
سوهاج	٢٦
قنا	٢٧
اسوان	٢٨
مطروح	٢٩
الوادى الجديد	٣٠
البحر الاحمر	٣١
السويس	٣٢
بور سعيد	٣٣
سيناء	٣٤
الوافدين (الدول الاجنبية) وطلاب المدارس الغير عادية	٣٥

Instructions on reverse of the candidate's list of choices

رقم الملف _____

بلصق طابع
بريد ثمن
١٠ مليمات

اسم الطالب : _____

العنوان بالكامل : _____

(a)

قسم/مركز _____ محافظة : _____

مكتب بريد : _____

(على الطالب كتابة اسمه وعنوانه ومكتب البريد التابع له العنوان بدقة على هذا الوجه من البطاقة فقط)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول
بالجامعات والمعاهد
عام ١٩٧٨

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة
المجموع الكلى مضافا اليه المستوى الخاص

بطاقة الترشيح للقبول عام ١٩٧٨

السيد ولى امر الطالب _____ (يكتب اسم الطالب)

بعد التحية ـ يتشرف مكتب التنسيق بان ينهى اليكم ان اوراق الطالب المذكور قد ارسلت الى

(b)

حيث رشح للقبول بها ولا يعتبر قبوله نهائيا الا بعد النجاح فى الكشف الطبى واداء الرسوم الاضافية المقررة واستيفاء جميع اوراق القيد .

فارجو تكليف الطالب بالتوجه الى الكلية (او المعهد) المرشح للقبول بها لتوقيع الكشف الطبى عليه ولاداء الرسوم فى الحال بعد استيفاء الاوراق (استيفاء الاوراق الناقصة يكون خلال ١٥ يوما على الاكثر من تاريخ اعلان نتائج القبول فى الصحف حتى لا يصرف النظر عن قبول الطالب) .

وعلى الطالب ملاحظة ان المادة ٥٧ المعدلة من القانون رقم ٥٠٥ سنة ١٩٥٥ تقضى بانه لا يجوز ان يلتحق اى طالب باحدى الكليات او المعاهد او ينتسب اليها او يبقى فيها بعد بلوغه سن ١٩ ما لم يكن حاملا بطاقة الخدمة العسكرية والوطنية .

ولا يجوز ان يبقى اى طالب بالكليات والمعاهد فيما بين العشرين والخامسة والثلاثين من عمره ما لم يكن لديه احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ ، كما لا يجوز قيد اى طالب منتظما او منتسبا فى اولى مراحل الدراسة باحدى كليات جامعات الجمهورية او ما يعادلها اذا جاوزت سنه ٢٢ عاما يوم اول سبتمبر من العام الذى يلتحق او ينتسب فيه وذلك ما لم يقدم احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ عدا نموذج تأجيل الخدمة الالزامية طبقا لاحكام المادة ٨ .

والشهادات المشار اليها فى هذه المادة مطلوب تقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) بعد ترشيح الطالب لها وقبل قيده بها ـ فعلى الطالب الذى ينطبق عليه هذا القانون مراعاة ذلك باعداد الشهادة المطلوبة لتقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) قبل القيد .

وتفضلوا بقبول وافر الاحترام ،،

اسم عضو مكتب التنسيق المختص _____

/ /١٩٧٨

التوقيع : _____ رقم العضوية : _____

The self-addressed letter which is sent to the candidate to declare which faculty he will join

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

المرحلة الثانية

١٩٧٨

بيـــان

لطلاب المرحلة الثانية

بالكليات التى شغلت اماكنها بالكامل لطلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

فى المرحلة الأولى

اولا ـ القبول العادى

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة :
الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية ـ الطب البيطرى ـ المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى ـ العلوم ـ الآثار ـ الاعلام .

٢ ـ جامعة الاسكندرية :
الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى ـ العلوم .

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس :
الطب ـ العلوم ـ الالسن .

٤ ـ جامعة اسيوط :
الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى .

٥ ـ جامعة طنطا :
الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان ـ العلوم .

٦ ـ جامعة المنصورة :
الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .

٧ ـ جامعة الزقازيق :
الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى ـ العلوم .

٨ ـ جامعة حلوان :
الفنون الجميلة عمارة بالقاهرة ـ الفنون التطبيقية .

٩ ـ جامعة المنوفية :
العلوم بشبين الكوم .

١٠ ـ جامعة الأزهر :
الطب (بنين) ـ الطب (بنات) .

وفى جميع هذه المرحلة الثانية مراعاة عدم تضمين الكليات الموضحة بعاليه فى رغباتهم حيث شغلت اماكنها بالكامل .
اما بالنسبة لباقى الكليات والمعاهد فجميعها بها اماكن شاغرة ومن حق الطلاب تضمينها فى رغباتهم .

ارشادات عامة لطلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

يرجو المكتب ان تمثل رغبات الطالب فى بطاقة الاختيار من اثنين وثلاثين رغبة متنوعة فى حدود الكليات والمعاهد التى بها اماكن خالية حيث لن يستطيع المكتب ادراج اى طالب لاقل رغباته من ٢٢ رغبه .

انظر خلفه للاهمية

An illustration of the document forwarded to the second stage candidates informing them of the faculties which are fully subscribed in the first stage

ثانيا ـ الفئات المستثناة

من القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

عام ١٩٧٨

١ ـ أستثناء القوات المسلحة :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة اسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب .
جامعة الازهر : الطب (بنين) .

٢ ـ ابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة اسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب .

٣ ـ ابناء العاملين بالجامعات :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة اسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب .

٤ ـ ابناء سيناء :

جامعة الزقازيق : الطب ـ الصيدلة .

وعلى جميع الطلاب الذين يقع مجموعهم فى نطاق المرحلة الثانية مراعاة عدم تضمين الكليات الموضحة امام فئتهم فى رغباتهم حيث ضاقت اماكنهم بالكامل .

ومن حق طلاب كل فئة من الفئات الموضحة بجانبه تضمين رغباتهم باقى الكليات والمعاهد الأخرى .

ارشادات عامة لطلاب الفئات المستثناة

من القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

يرجو المكتب الا تقل رغبات الطالب فى بطاقة الاختيار عن اثنين وثلاثين رغبة متنوعة فى حدود الكليات والمعاهد التى بها اماكن خالية حيث لن يستلم المكتب اوراق اى طالب تقل رغباته عن ٣٢ رغبه .

An illustration of the exceptional groups

APPENDIX VII

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالي مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد عام ١٩٧٨	**بطاقة رغبات يحتفظ بها الطالب** يحررها الطالب وفقا لترتيب الرغبات الواردة ببطاقة الاختيار المقدمة منه (القسم العلمي) * (شعبة العلوم)	رقم الايصال **

اسم الطالب حسين عبد الله خاطر النوع (ذكر / انثى)
تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ الجنسية الديانة
عنوان الطالب
قسم/مركز محافظة

رقم جلوس الطالب في امتحان الثانوية العامة ١٨٥
المدرسة التي تخرج منها
مديرية التربية والتعليم التابعة لها المدرسة
(او التابعة لها لجنة الامتحان لطلبة المنازل)

الرغبات (الاختيارات)

رقم الاختيار	الكلية (او المعهد)	الجامعة (او مكان المعهد)	رقم الاختيار	الكلية (او المعهد)	الجامعة (او مكان المعهد)
١	طب	اسكندرية	١٧	آداب	قناة
٢	طب	طنطا	١٨	طب	أزهر
٣	طب	زقازيق	١٩	اقتصاد	قاهرة
٤	طب	منصورة	٢٠	بطرى	اسكندرية
٥	طب	عين شمس	٢١	بطرى	قاهرة
٦	طب	قاهرة	٢٢	بطرى	اسيوط
٧	طب	اسيوط	٢٣	بطرى	زقازيق
٨	هندسة	اسكندرية	٢٤	علوم	اسكندرية
٩	هندسة	طنطا	٢٥	علوم	قاهرة
١٠	هندسة	زقازيق	٢٦	علوم	بنى سويف
١١	هندسة	منصورة	٢٧	علوم	اسيوط
١٢	هندسة	قاهرة	٢٨	علوم	زقازيق
١٣	هندسة	اسيوط	٢٩	علوم	منصورة
١٤	أسنان	اسكندرية	٣٠	علوم	طنطا
١٥	أسنان	طنطا	٣١	علوم	عين شمس
١٦	أسنان	منصورة	٣٢	علوم	اسيوط

درجات الطالب

اللغة العربية ٥٠/٢٥	مجموعة اللغات الاجنبية ٧٠/٢٨		مجموعة الرياضيات ٨٠/٣٢	مجموعة العلوم ١٢٠/٤٨		التاريخ الطبيعي ٨٠/٣٢	المجموع الكلي ٤٠٠/٢٠٠	المستوى الخاص	المجموع الكلي بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص
	اللغة الأولى ٤٠/١٢	اللغة الثانية ٣٠/٩		الفيزياء ٦٠/١٨	الكيمياء ٦٠/١٨			اللغة العربية او الاجنبية الأولى ١٠/٥	
٣٦				٥٥½	٥٤½	٦٩	٢٩٠		
	المجموع ٥١			المجموع ١١٠					

* على البطاقة يحتفظ بها الطالب ليكون على بينة من الرغبات الواردة في البطاقة الاصلية المقدمة منه وعلى ضوئها يمكن للطالب ان يعرف الكلية او المعهد الذي رشح له بعد اعلان نتائج القبول وفقا للحد الادنى

** على الطالب استيفاء رقم الايصال حتى يسهل عليه الرجوع للمكتب في اى موضوع يخصه .

(اتظر خلفه)

(٨) - 8 indicates the number of the student's choice in order of priority

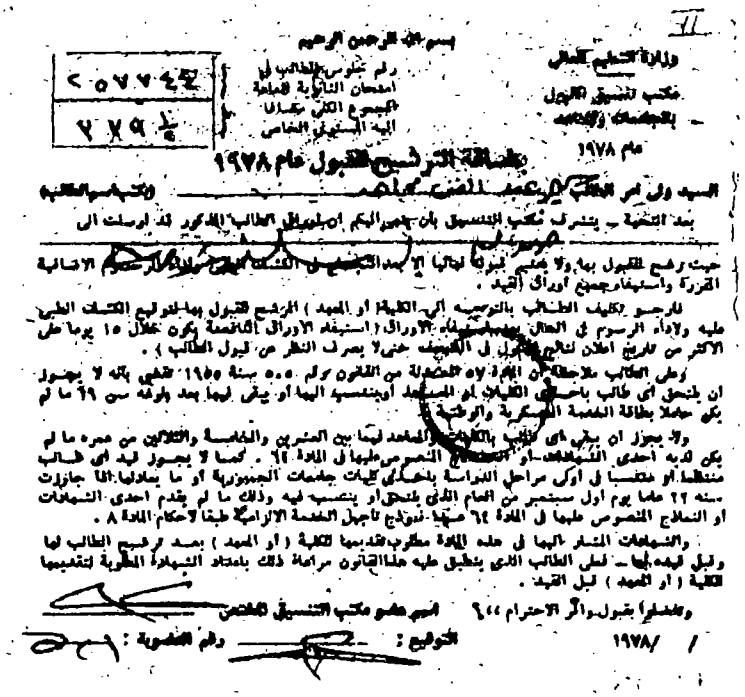
اسم الطالب : حسن عبد الفتاح محمد

العنوان بالكامل : ٩ ش [illegible] - متفرع من كورنيش

قسم/مركز بولكلي محافظة : الإسكندرية

مكتب بريد : المنارة

(على الطالب كتابة اسمه وعنوانه ومكتب البريد التابع له العنوان بدقة على هذا الوجه من البطاقة فقط)



وزارة التعليم العالي
مكتب تنسيق القبول
بالجامعات والمعاهد

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

رقم جلوس الطالب في امتحان الثانوية العامة المجموع الكلي بحسابه المستوى الخاص

٥٧٧٤٢
٧٧٩٪

عام ١٩٧٨

نتيجة الترشيح للقبول عام ١٩٧٨

السيد ولي امر الطالب/ حسن عبد الفتاح محمد (كتابة بمعرفة الطالب)

بعد التحية ـ يتشرف مكتب التنسيق بان يحيط علم سيادتكم بأن نجل سيادتكم الطالب المذكور قد ارسلت الى

حيث رشح للقبول به ولا يمنع قبوله نهائيا الا بعد التحقق من الشهادة الاصلية المقررة واستيفاء جميع اوراق القيد .

فالرجو تكليف الطالب بالتوجه الى الكلية او المعهد) المرشح للقبول بها لتوريخ الكشف الطبي عليه ولاداء الرسوم في الحال ويجب استيفاء الاوراق (استيفاء الاوراق الناقصة يكون خلال ١٥ يوما على الاكثر من تاريخ اعلان نتائج القبول في الكليات حتى لا يصرف النظر عن قبول الطالب) .

وعلى الطالب ملاحظة ان المادة ٥٢ المعدلة من القانون رقم ٥٠ سنة ١٩٥٥ تنص بانه لا يجوز ان يلتحق اي طالب باحدى الكليات او المعاهد او ينتسب اليها او يبقى فيها بعد بلوغه سن ٢٩ ما لم يكن حاصلا بطاقة الخدمة العسكرية والوطنية .

ولا يجوز ان يبقى اي طالب بالكلية او المعهد فيما بين العشرين والخامسة والثلاثين من عمره ما لم يكن لديه احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها في المادة ٦٤ . كما لا يجوز قيد اي طالب منتظما او منتسبا في اوكى مراحل الدراسة باحدى كليات جامعات الجمهورية او ما يعادلها الا جاوزت سنه ٢٢ عاما يوم اول سبتمبر من العام الذي يلتحق او ينتسب فيه وذلك ما لم يقدم احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها في المادة ٦٤ منها نموذج تأجيل الخدمة الالزامية طبقا لاحكام المادة ٨ .

والشهادات المشار اليها في هذه المادة مطلوب تقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) بعد ترشيح الطالب لها وقبل قيده بها ـ فعلى الطالب الذي ينطبق عليه هذا القانون مراعاة ذلك بامتداد الشهادة المطلوبة لتقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) قبل القيد .

وتفضلوا بقبول واسمى الاحترام ،،،

امين عام مكتب التنسيق للقاهرة

التوقيع : ـــــــ

رقم الجلوس : ٢٠٢

١٩٧٨/ /

The self-addressed letter from the Co-ordination Office stating the student's faculty (in this case, Pharmacy)

(The original copy is supplied in the pocket-folder of this thesis)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

This bibliography is divided into two sections: primary sources and secondary sources. Each section is divided into sub-sections as follows:

PRIMARY SOURCES

I. Typescripts

II. Official Publications:

a) National
b) International

III. Newspapers

SECONDARY SOURCES

IV. Theses

V. Articles and Chapters

VI. Monographs

VII. Reference Books

Most of the primary sources are in Arabic. The title and details of the work are translated as exactly as possible into English, and a note entered to indicate that the original was in Arabic, as follows: (in Arabic).

Newspaper articles and popular magazines are not included in the bibliography although when they are used they are footnoted in the text. The place of publication is London unless otherwise stated.

PRIMARY SOURCES

I. Typescripts

Abd-al-Raziq, A., Study of the acceptance system for universities, National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, Cairo, October, 1975 (in Arabic).

Association of Arab Universities, Statistical Illustration of the Students' Numbers and the Teaching Staff in the Arab Universities, Secretariat General, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration Project, Country Case Study, Arab Republic of Egypt, International Migration Project, Department of Economics, University of Durham, England, March, 1978.

, Contemporary International Labour Migration in the Arab Middle East: Patterns and Economic Significance, (unpublished), Department of Economics, University of Durham, England, 1979 (to be published by Groom Helm, 1980).

Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Science in the Universities in the United Arab Republic: A series of survey reports prepared by a group of American scientists under the Cultural and Educational Exchange Programme of the Department of State, (unpublished), Department of State, Washington D.C., 1960.

Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Preliminary Results of the General Population and Housing Census, 22 and 23 November, 1976, Cairo (in Arabic).

Conference on Development of Higher Education and University Education, Final Report of Specific Conference for Educational Studies and Teacher Training held in the Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, 3-9 February, 1967, (unpublished), Cairo, 1967 (in Arabic).

Co-ordination Office, The results of the first stage of acceptance in universities, Memorandum for presentation to the Minister of Education, 1976, The Permanent Office, Cairo University, Giza (in Arabic).

El-Zomor, Waffaa, Report on some sociodemographic characteristics of undergraduates in Cairo University, (unpublished), Demographic Centre, Cairo, September 1972.

Fahmi, M.S., Economics of Primary Education in Egypt, Institute of National Planning, Memo No. 234, Cairo, May 1972 (in Arabic).

Fernelius, G., 'Report on a visit to the universities of U.A.R. in connection with the Science Education Programme under the Fulbright Act', in, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Science in the Universities in the United Arab Republic, (a series of survey reports prepared by a group of American scientists under the Cultural and Educational Exchange Programme of the Department of State, (unpublished), Department of State, Washington D.C., 1960).

Ghonem, S. and Moftah, A., The Technical and Vocational Education, (Country Report - Egypt), Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo, 1976.

Ghonem, S., Investigation about the General Secondary Certificate, 1974-75, (unpublished), Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo (in Arabic).

Higher Council of Universities, Statistical Division, Cairo, 1974-1978 (in Arabic).

Higher Education and Student Housing, A report of research undertaken in the Centre for Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Kent at Canterbury for the Department of Education and Science, (unpublished), December 1976.

Institute of National Planning, Research project on employment and unemployment among the educated, Final Report, I.N.P. with the co-operation and sponsorship of the I.L.O., Cairo, N.D.

Ministry of Education and Instruction, The Policy of Education and Instruction, Cairo, July 1972 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Education, Development of Universities: the basic principles on which the university development depends, Report about the Ministry fulfilment (Higher Education Sector) since 1970 until now, Ministry Office, (unpublished), 1976 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Higher Education, Memo concerning the enrolment of General Secondary school examination students in universities and higher institutes and the preparation for the academic year 1974/75: Insight into the future of higher education in Egypt, (unpublished Report), Ministry Office, Cairo, August 1974 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Higher Education, Projects and Research Division, (Illustration of the enrolled numbers in the Egyptian universities from 1965/66 to 1974/75 according to their certificates), (unpublished), 1976 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Planning, The Five Year Plan, 1978-1982, Vol. I, The General Strategy for Economic and Social Development, Vol. II, The Egyptian People, Arab Republic of Egypt, August, 1977 (in Arabic).

National Centre for Educational Research, The system of education in the Arab Republic of Egypt, (unpublished), The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1973.

, Report on the development of education in the A.R. of Egypt during the period 1973-74/1974-75, (unpublished), The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1975.

, The changing role of the teacher and its influence on preparation for the profession and on in-service training, (unpublished), The Documentation Centre for Education, Cairo, 1975.

, Study on the educational system in the Arab Republic of Egypt, Educational Documentation and Information Agency, Cairo, 1974 (in Arabic).

National Specialised Councils, Education and Scientific Research in the Revolution's Documents, (unpublished), Cairo, N.D. (in Arabic).

Prime Minister's Resolution No. 924 for 1975 concerning the amendment of some rules of regulation for the law (No. 49) of organization of the universities, October 1975 (in Arabic).

Prime Minister's Resolution No. 1069 for 1976 concerning the amendment of some rules of regulation for the law (No. 49) of organization of the universities, October 1976 (in Arabic).

Sulayman, M.S., Problems of primary education and its effect on illiteracy eradication in Egypt, (unpublished), Arab League, Arab Organization for Education, Science and Culture, Cairo, September 1976 (in Arabic).

UNESCO, Reform and Development of Higher Education, United Arab Republic (Technical Assistance Project on the Reform and Development of Higher Education in the U.A.R. 1968-69), Typed Report, Serial No. 1243/BMS. RD/EDS. HE., Paris, May 1969.

II. Official Publications:

(a) National

Arab Republic of Egypt, The October Working Paper, presented by President Mohamed Anwar el Sadat, April 1974, Ministry of Information, State Information Service, Cairo, 1974.

, General and Private Education, General Corporation for Government Printing Press, Cairo, 1972 (reprinted) (in Arabic).

Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics, Population and Development: A study on the population increase and its challenge to development in Egypt, Cairo, June 1973.

Co-ordination Office, Students' guide for admission to universities and institutes for the General Secondary students, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1978 (in Arabic).

El-Said, M.E., The Expansion of Higher Education in the U.A.R., Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1960 (in Arabic).

, The International Study of Access to Higher Education, Higher Council of Sciences, Cairo, 1962 (in Arabic).

El-Sayed, A., Higher Education, Problems and Planning Bases, Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1963.

Helmy, M.K., University Education in the U.A.R., Higher Council of Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1968.

, The System of Universities' Admission, Higher Council of Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, March 1970 (in Arabic).

, Report on the Results of General Examinations for the academic year 1974/75, Ministry of Education, Ministry Office, Cairo, December 1975 (in Arabic).

Higher Council of Universities, Decree of the President of the Arab Republic of Egypt for Law No. 49 for the year 1972 concerning the organization of the universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic).

, Regulation for Law of Organization of the Universities, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

Ministerial Committee for Manpower, Report on the Policy of Education, Cairo, 1967 (in Arabic),

and also reprinted in,

MiTawi' , I.'A., Planning For Higher Education, Al-Nahdah al-Misriyyah Publisher, Cairo, 1973, Appendix No. 2.

Ministry of Information, The Prime Minister's Speech before the Peoples' Assembly on 29 October 1975, published as (The Government Report, delivered by Mr. Mamduh Salim, The Prime Minister, before the Peoples' Assembly), State Information Service, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

, Speech of the President Mohamed Anwar el-Sadat in Alexandria University, 26 July 1976, Cairo, 1976 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Education and Instruction, Educational movement in Egypt between past, present and future and some attitudes towards reformation, Ministry Office, Cairo, June 1974 (in Arabic).

Ministry of Education, The Minister of Education's Report before the Peoples' Assembly, Ministry of Education Press, Cairo, February 1977 (in Arabic).

Nasser, Gamal-Abd-al, Speech of the President of the Republic commemorating the Fifth Anniversary of Egypt's Revolution, 22 July 1957, Information Department, Cairo, 1957 (in Arabic).

National Centre for Educational Research, The Final Report of the Development of Secondary Education Committee, 7-24 May 1975, Educational Documentation and Information Agency, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

National Working Programme, Ministry of Information, State Information Service, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic).

National Specialised Councils, Report of the National Council for Education, Scientific Research and Technology, First Session, June-September 1974, Cairo, 1975,
Second Session, October 1974-July 1975, Cairo, 1975,
Third Session, October 1975-July 1976, Cairo, 1977 (in Arabic).

United Arab Republic, The Charter, Information Department, Cairo, 1962.

, The President of the U.A.R.'s Resolution of Decree No. 159 of 1963, and Modification of Some Regulations of the U.A.R. Universities, Alexandria University Press, Alexandria, 1964 (in Arabic).

(b) International

Blaug, M., Education and the Employment Problem in Developing Countries, I.L.O., Geneva, 1974 (second impression).

Bowles, F., Access to Higher Education: The International Study of University Admission, UNESCO and IAU, Paris, 1963.

Department of Education and Science, Higher Education in the 1990s, A discussion document, U.K., February 1978.

El-Ghannan, M.A., Education in the Arab Region viewed from 1970, Murrakesh Conference, E.S.O., No. 1, UNESCO, Paris, 1970.

El-Said, M.E., 'United Arab Republic (Egypt)', in, UNESCO and IAU, Access to Higher Education: The International Study of University Admission, Vol. II (National Studies), Paris, 1965.

Four, E. et al., Learning To Be, UNESCO, Paris, 1972.

Halsey, A.H., (ed.), Ability and Educational Opportunity, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1961.

Harbison, F., 'The Strategy of Human Resource Development in Modernizing Economics', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Washington, 16-20 October 1961, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1965 (second printing).

Ismail, H.M., 'Formation of the Teaching Staff at Cairo University', in, Onushkin, V.G., (ed.), Planning the Development of Universities - III, ILEP, The UNESCO Press, Paris, 1974.

Komarov, V.E., 'The Relationship between Economic Development and Development of Education', in, Bowman, M.J., Debeanvais, M., Komarov, V.E. and Vaizey, J., (eds.), Reading in the Economics of Education, UNESCO, Paris, 1971.

Lauwerys, J.A., Holmes, B., Le Gall, A. et al., Present Problems in the Democratization of Secondary and Higher Education, UNESCO, Paris, 1973.

Lewis, W.A., 'Priorities for Education Expansion', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Washington,16-20 October 1961, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1965 (second printing).

National Commission for UNESCO, The Education of Women in the U.A.R. during the 19th and 20th centuries, U.A.R., Cairo, 1970.

O.E.C.D., Educational Policies for the 1970s: General Report (Conference on Policies for Educational Growth, Paris, 3-5 June 1970), O.E.C.D., Paris, 1971.

, Institutional Management in Higher Education (Report of a conference to discuss the results of research initiated and co-ordinated by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation in the O.E.C.D.), CERI, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1972.

O.E.C.D., Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas, (Report of a conference on future structures of post-secondary education, Paris, 26-29 June 1973), O.E.C.D., Paris, 1974.

, Education Policies and Trends (A report by a group of experts), O.E.C.D., Paris, 1977.

Onushkin, V.G., (ed.), Planning the Development of Universities - I, UNESCO and ILEP, Paris, 1971.

Pellegrin, J., 'Admission Policies in Post-Secondary Education', in, O.E.C.D., Towards Mass Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1974.

Robbins, Lord, Higher Education. Report of the Committee appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins, H.M.S.O., 1963.

The Second Newman Report: National Policy and Higher Education, Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, N.D.

U.G.C., Report of the Sub-Committee on Halls of Residence, under the Chairmanship of Professor W.R. Niblett, H.M.S.O., 1957.

UNESCO, 'Access to Higher Education in Europe', Report of the Conference of Minister of Education of European Member States of UNESCO on Access to Higher Education, Vienna, 20-25 November 1967, UNESCO, Paris, 1968.

, World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, (Higher Education), Paris, 1966.

, University and Higher Education in the U.A.R. in the last fifty years, 1920-70, The National Branch of U.N. Organization, Cairo, 1970 (in Arabic).

Vaizey, J., 'Some of the main issues in the strategy of educational supply', in, O.E.C.D., Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, Washington, 16-20 October 1961, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1965 (second printing).

White, F.W.C., Report on the Organization and Development of National Research Council of Egypt, Technical Assistance, Special Report, No. 2, UNESCO, Paris, 1955.

III. Newspapers

Al-Ahram, Cairo, 1975-79.

Al-Akhbar, Cairo, 1976-78.

Al-Waqāi' Al-Misriyyah, Cairo, 1977.

The Guardian, 1978.

The Financial Times, 1971.

The Sunday Times, 1978.

The Times, 1977-78.

SECONDARY SOURCES

IV. Theses

Bidair, Su'ad, H., Evaluation of the recent admission system of the university in Egypt, (unpublished M.A. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1966 (in Arabic).

Faraj, Aliyāh, A., Comparative study of the role of higher education in cultural development for some Arab and developing nations, (unpublished Ph.D. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1971 (in Arabic).

Hasanain, M.S., Higher Education in Egypt: Evaluation and Its Future Directions, (unpublished Ph.D. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1972 (in Arabic).

Hassan, H.M., Quantitative wastage and its causes in Egypt's university education: Fieldwork study, (unpublished Ph.D. thesis), Faculty of Education, Ain-Shams University, Cairo, 1975 (in Arabic).

Williams, J., A Historical Survey of Education in Egypt, 1882-1922, (unpublished M.A. thesis), Institute of Education, University of London, 1956.

V. Articles and Chapters

Akrawi, M., 'The University and Government in the Middle East', in, Nader, G. and Zahlon, A.B., (eds.), Science and Technology in Developing Countries, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1969.

Al-ʿAmal, 'Proposals about the graduates' distribution', Cairo magazine, No. 149, December 1975 (in Arabic).

Al-Bawab, S.A., Employment and Masked Unemployment in the Egyptian Economy', Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, bi-monthly magazine, Cairo, No. 517, March 1977 (in Arabic).

Al-Saʿdani, ʿA., 'An empty room for a stranger student', Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, bi-monthly magazine, Cairo, No. 507, 15 October 1976.

Al-Sibaʿi, L., 'New year and old problems are waiting for solution', Al-Ahram al-Iqtisadi, bi-monthly magazine, Cairo, No. 507, 15 October 1976.

Al-Shafiʿi, I., 'Evaluation of the first educational five year plan in the U.A.R.', Review of Educational Planning in the Arab States, July 1966, No. 11, Bierut (in Arabic).

Amin, G., 'The Egyptian Economy and The Revolution', in, Vatikiotis, P.J., (ed.), Egypt Since The Revolution, George Allen and Unwin, 1968.

Anis, M., 'The Egyptian Universities - To Where?', Al-Katib, Vol. 162, Cairo, September 1974 (in Arabic).

Ashby, E., 'Reconciliation of Tradition and Modernity in Universities', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, University of Utah Press, Utah, 1976.

Awad, L., 'Cultural and Intellectual Development', in, Vatikiotis, P.J., (ed.), Egypt Since The Revolution, George Allen and Unwin, 1968.

Batock, A. and Smithers, A.G., 'Success and failure among social scientists and health scientists at a technological university', British Journal of Psychology, No. 40, 1970.

Blaug, M., 'The Productivity of Universities', reprinted in, Blaug, M., (ed.), Economics of Education, Vol. II, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1969.

Bowles, F.H., 'Stage of Educational Development', in, Tompson, K.W., Fogel, B.R. and Danner, H.E., (eds.), Higher Education and Social Change: Promising Experiments in Developing Countries, Vol. II, Praeger Publishers, New York, 1977.

Burgess, T., 'Excellence or Equality: A Dilemma in Higher Education?', Higher Education Review, Vol. 10, No. 2, Spring 1978.

Calloway, A., 'Unemployment among African school leavers', in, Gezi, K., (ed.), Education in Comparative and International Perspectives, Holt Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1971.

Carrier, H., 'The Role of the University in the New Society', in, The European Universities, 1975-85, Fifth General Assembly of the Standing Conference of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities convened in Bologna from 1-7 September 1974, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1975.

Cerych, L. and Furth, D.E., 'On the Threshold of Mass Higher Education', in, Niblett, W.R. and Buts, R.F., (eds.), Universities Facing the Future, The World Yearbook of Education, 1972-73, Evans Brothers Ltd., 1972.

Cohen, P.S., 'Foreword', in, Hopper, E., (ed.), Readings in the Theory of Educational Systems, Hutchinson University Library, 1972 (reprinted).

Coverley, J.L., 'The Egyptian Undergraduate and Politics', The Journal of Education, Vol. IXXXIIX, June 1947.

Davey, A.G. and Randell, G.A., 'Ways of Improving Selection', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1, Winter 1971.

Dobson, R., 'Social status and inequality of access to higher education in the U.S.S.R.', in, Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H., (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977.

Dodd, P.C., 'Youth and Women's Emancipation in Egypt', in, Landu, J.M., (ed.), Man, State and Society in the Contemporary Middle East, The Pall Mall Press, 1972.

Dorsey, W.H., '1968 Revisited: Student Power in Cairo', New Middle East, February 1972.

Drever, J., 'How far should manpower needs affect education planning?', Times Higher Educational Supplement, 6 September 1974.

Dungan, R.A., 'Higher Education: The Effort to Adjust', Daedalus, Winter 1970.

Ebied, R.Y. and Young, M.J.L., 'Did the Arabs invent the university?', Times Higher Educational Supplement, 2 May 1975.

Edwards, E.O. and Todero, M.P., 'Educational demand and supply in the context of growing unemployment in less developed countries', World Developed Countries, World Development, Vol. I, Nos. 3 and 4, 1973.

Egerod, S., 'Freedom and Equality in the Universities', in, Seabury, P., (ed.), Universities in the Western World, Free Press, New York, 1975.

Efrat, M., 'Educational Progress in the United Arab Republic', New Outlook, 2 October 1968.

Elliott, L.H., 'Changing Internal Structures: The Relevance of Democracy', in, Caffrey, J., (ed.), The Future Academic Community, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1969.

Elvin, H.L., 'World Re-Appraisals', in, Lowe, J., Grant, N. and Williams, T.D., (eds.), Education and Nation Building in the Third World, Barnes Noble, New York, 1971.

Eustace, R., 'Diversity and Esteem in Higher Education', Journal of Social Policy, Vol. 3, Part 4, October 1974.

Floud, J., 'The Demands of Society', in, Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber and Faber, 1965.

Foster, P., 'The Fallacy of Vocational School in National Planning', reprinted in, Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H., Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977.

Gardiner, J.W., 'The Individual and Society', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, University of Utah Press, Utah, 1976.

Gibb, H.A.R., 'The University in the Arab Muslim World, Egypt and Syria', in, Bradby, E., (ed.), The University Outside Europe, Oxford University Press, 1939.

Greenaway, H., 'Future problems in the employment of graduates', Higher Education, International Journal for Higher Education and Educational Planning, Vol. 2, No. 2, May 1973.

Guillaume, A., 'Philosophy and Theology', in, Arnold, T., (ed.), The Legacy of Islam, Oxford University Press, 1931.

Habakkuk, H.J., 'The university at the approach of the twenty-first century', in, The Sixth General Conference of the International Association of Universities, Moscow, 19-25 August 1975, I.A.U., Paris, 1976.

Haim, Sylvia G., 'State and University in Egypt', in, Harris, G.D., (ed.), Universitat und Modern Geselleschaft, Maxlor Kheimer, Frankfurten Main, 1959.

Halsey, A.H., 'The Changing Functions of Universities', reprinted in, Halsey, A.H., Floud, J. and Anderson, G.A., (eds.), Education, Economy and Society, A reader in the Sociology of Education, The Free Press, New York, 1971 (reprinted).

Hausman, L., 'Pressure, Benefits and Options', in, Wilson, L. and Mills, O.L., (eds.), Universal Higher Education, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1972.

Heshurgh, T.M., 'Closing remarks', in, Kertesz, S.D., (ed.), The Task of Universities in a Changing World, University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame, 1972 (second printing).

Himmelweit, Hilde T., 'Student Selection: An Experimental Investigation - I', British Journal of Sociology, Vol. I, 1950.

Hocart, M.A., 'The Legacy of Modern Egypt', in, Glanville, S.R.K., (ed.), The Legacy of Egypt, Oxford University Press, 1942.

Holliday, A.K., 'University Courses: The Present Position', in, Jevons, F.R. and Turner, H.D., (eds.), What Kinds of Graduates Do We Need?, Oxford University Press, 1972.

Holloway, B.J., 'Higher Education and Employment: A view from the interface', in, Jevons, F.R. and Turner, H.D., (eds.), What Kinds of Graduates Do We Need?, Oxford University Press, 1972.

Hourani, A., in his introduction to, Berque, J., Egypt, Imperialism and Revolution, translated from the French by, Stewart, J., Faber and Faber, 1972.

Hunnings, G., 'Universities and Relevance', The New Universities Quarterly, Vol. 30, No. 3, Summer 1976.

Husen, T., 'The relation between selectivity and social class in secondary education', International Journal of Educational Sciences, Vol. I, 1966.

Hussain, A., 'The relationships between educational qualifications and occupational structure: a re-examination', in, Gleeson, D., (ed.), Identity and Structure: Issues in Sociology of Education, Nafferton Books, 1977.

James, Lord, 'For and Against University Expansion', in, Niblett, W.R., (ed.), The Expanding University, Faber and Faber, N.D.

Karabel, J., 'Perspectives on Open Admissions', in, Wilson, L. and Mills, O.L., (eds.), Universal Higher Education, Costs, Benefits, Options, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1972.

Karabel, J., 'Community College and Social Stratification: Submerged class conflict in American higher education, reprinted in, Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H., (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977.

Keer, M., 'Egypt', in, Coleman, J.S., (ed.), Education and Political Development, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1965.

Kogan, M., 'Who decides the purposes?', in, Piper, D.W., (ed.), A National Purpose For Higher Education, Papers from a conference organised by the Department of Higher Education, University of London, Institute of Education, University Teaching Methods Unit, N.D.

Kopliuk, M., 'Student Unrest in Egypt', New Outlook, February 1972.

Kotb, M.S., 'The United Arab Republic', in, Lauwerys, J.A. and Scanlon, D.G., (eds.), Examinations, The World Yearbook of Education 1969, Evans Brothers, 1969.

Kotsching, W.M., 'Introduction', in, Kotsching, W.M. and Prys, E., (eds.), The University in a Changing World, Oxford University Press, 1932.

Lebenstein, H., 'Shortages and surpluses in education in underdeveloped countries', in, Anderson, C.H. and Bowman, M.J., (eds.), Education and Economic Development, Frances, 1966.

Lewis, A.W., 'The University in Developing Countries: Modernization and Tradition', in, Thompson, K.W., Fogel, B.R. and Danner, H.E., (eds.), Higher Education and Social Change: Promising Experiments in Developing Countries, Vol. II, Praeger Publishers, New York, 1977.

Lucas, I.R., 'Equality in Education', in, Wilson, B.R., (ed.), Education Equality and Society, George Allen and Unwin, 1975.

Luria, Z. and S.E., 'The Role of University: Ivory tower, service station or frontier post?', Daedalus, Winter 1970.

McIntosh, N., 'Open Admission: An open or revolving door?', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 29, No. 2, Spring 1975.

Parners, H.S., 'Planning education for economic and social development', reprinted in, Baxter, C., O'Leary, P.J. and Westaby, A., (eds.), Economics and Educational Policy: A reader, Longman in association with the Open University Press, 1977.

Perkin, H., 'The Structure of Higher Education: A world view', Higher Education, International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning, Vol. 2, No. 2, May 1973.

Peterson, A.D.C., 'Conclusion', in, Yudkin, M., (ed.), General Education, A symposium on the teaching of non-specialists, Allen Lane, The Penguin Press, 1969.

Rashid, A.A., 'Introduction to study the problems of university education', A paper delivered to a Study Meeting Workshop on Problems of University Education in the Arab Countries, Second Meeting, Beirut, May 1964, Arab League, Culture Section, Cairo, N.D. (in Arabic).

Rees, M., 'The Ivory Tower and the Market Place', in, McMurrin, S.M., (ed.), On the Meaning of the University, University of Utah Press, Utah, 1976.

Reid, W.A., 'Choice and Selection: Social process of transfer to higher education', Journal of Social Policy, October 1974.

Sanders, G., 'University Selection: Its Theory, History and Psychology', The Australian Journal of Education, Vol. I, No. 3, November 1957.

Sanford, N., 'The Contribution of Higher Education to Society', in, Niblett, W.R., (ed.), Higher Education Demand and Response, Tavistock Publications, 1969.

Shafi'i, M.Z., 'The Role of the University in Economic and Social Development', A paper delivered to The Second General Conference of the Association of Arab Universities at Cairo University, 7-14 February 1973, Arab Universities and the Contemporary Arab Society, Association of Arab Universities, General Secretariat, Cairo, 1973 (in Arabic).

Silver, H., 'Salaries For Students?', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 19, No. 4, September 1965.

Singer, H.W., 'Education and Economic Development', reprinted in, Livingstone, L., (ed.), Economic Policy for Development, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1971.

Startup, R., 'Why go to university?', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 3, Summer 1972.

Steppat, F., 'National educational projects in Egypt before the British occupation', in, Polk, W.R. and Chambers, R.L., (eds.), Beginning of Modernization in the Middle East, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1968.

Stoneman, C., 'The purpose of universities and colleges and their government', in, Rubinstein, D. and Stoneman, C., (eds.), Education for Democracy, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1972 (reprinted).

Streeten, P., 'The Frontiers of Development Studies: Some Issues of Development Policy', reprinted in, Livingstone, L., (ed.), Economic Policy for Development, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1971.

Times Higher Educational Supplement, 'Education for economic recovery', Extract from Mr. Wilson's speech to the Tenth Anniversary of the London Business School, 4 July 1975.

, 'Reject interference, Crowther-Hunt says', Crowther-Hunt, Lord, in his speech at Bradford University on the future of British universities, 24 October 1975.

Vernon, P.E., 'The Pool of Ability', The Sociological Review Monograph, No. 7, October 1963.

Von Grunebaum, G.E., 'The political role of the university in the Near East as illustrated by Egypt', in, Von Grunebaum, G.E., (ed.), Modern Islam: The Search for Cultural Identity, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1962.

Wardenburg, J., 'Some institutional aspects of Muslim higher education and their relation to Islam', Numen, Vol. XII, 12 April, 1965.

Watson, J.S., 'Types of Higher Education: Comprehensive, Co-ordinated or Classified', in, Bell, R.E. and Youngson, A.J., (eds.), Present Future in Higher Education, Tavistock Publications, 1973.

Weinstein, W.L., 'Social purposes in search of higher education, or higher education in search of social purposes', in, Piper, D.W., (ed.), A National Purpose for Higher Education, Papers from a conference organised by the Department of Higher Education, University of London, Institute of Education, University Teaching Methods Unit, N.D.

Westland, G., 'Selection, Performance and Assessment', Universities Quarterly, Vol. 25, No. 3, Summer 1971.

Wirth, A.C., 'The Philosophical Split', in, Vermily, D.W., (ed.), Relating Work and Education, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1977.

Wilson, B., 'The Needs of Students', in, Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber and Faber, London, 1965.

VI. Monographs

Abd-al-Karim, A.I., History of Education in Muhammad Ali's Period, Al-Nahdah al Misriyyah Press, Cairo, 1938 (in Arabic).

'Abīd, A.H., Philosophy of the educational system and the construction of educational policy: a comparative study, Al-Anglo al Misriyyah, Cairo, 1976 (in Arabic).

Ahmed, J.H., The intellectual origins of Egyptian nationalism, Oxford University Press, 1968 (reprinted).

Al-Brulusi, 'A., University education trends in modern time, Ain-Shams University Press, Cairo, 1969 (in Arabic).

Al-Nagār, H.F., Ahmad lutfi al-Sayyid, Generations' teacher, Al-Dar al-Misriyyah lil Tālif wal Nashr, Cairo, 1965 (in Arabic).

Al-Nashar, M.A., General insight into current university system: Admission and management, Cairo University Press, Cairo, 1970 (in Arabic).

Ashby, E., African Universities and Western Tradition, Oxford University Press, 1964.

, Technology and the Academics: An Essay on Universities and the Scientific Revolution, Macmillan, New York, 1966.

, Any Person, Any Study: An Essay on Higher Education in the United States, The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1971.

, Adapting universities to a technological society, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1974.

Astin, A.W., Preventing students from dropping-out, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1975.

Barzun, J., The American University, How It Runs, Where It Is Going, Oxford University Press, 1969

Beaumont, P., Blake, G.H. and Wagstaff, J.M., The Middle East: A Geographical Study, John Wiley, 1976.

Belknap, R.L. and Kuhns, R., Tradition and Innovation: General Education and the Reintegration of the University, A Columbia Report, Columbia University Press, New York, 1977.

Bereday, G.Z.F., Universities For All, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1973.

Berg, I., Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1973.

Berger, M., Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt: A Study of the Higher Civil Service, Russell and Russell, New York, 1969 (reprinted).

Bidair, A.A.F., Prince Ahmad Fuad and the Rise of the Egyptian University, Fuad the First University Publication, Cairo, 1950 (in Arabic).

Boktor, A., The Development and Expansion of Education in the United Arab Republic, The American University Press, Cairo, 1963.

Bourdie, P. and Passeron, J., Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture, translated from the French by, Nice, R., SAGE Publications, 1977.

Bowen, J., A History of Western Education, Vol. II, Methuen, 1975.

Bowles, S. and Gintis, H., Schooling in Capitalist America, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1977 (reprinted).

Bowman, H., The Middle East Window, Longmans Green, 1942.

Brook, G.L., The Modern University, Andre Deutsch, 1965.

Brothers, J. and Hatch, S., Residence and Student Life: A sociological inquiry into residence in higher education, Tavistock Publications, 1971.

Brubacher, J.S., Basis for Policy in Higher Education, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1965.

Butler, Lord, The Responsibilities of Education, Longmans, 1968.

, Survival Depends on Higher Education, Indian Council for Cultural Relations, Vikas Publications, New Delhi, 1971.

Castle, E.B., Education For Self-Help: New Strategies for Developing Countries, Oxford University Press, 1972.

Chirol, V., The Egyptian Problem, Macmillan, 1920.

Christopherson, Sir Derman, The University At Work, S.C.M. Press, 1973.

Cobban, A.B., The Medieval Universities, Their Development and Organization, Methuen, 1975.

Coombs, P.H., The World Educational Crisis, Oxford University Press, 1968.

Cromer, Lord, Modern Egypt, Vol. II, Macmillan, 1908.

Crowin, R., Education in Crisis: A sociological analysis of schools and universities in transition, John Wiley, New York, 1974.

Curle, A., Educational Strategy for Developing Countries, Tavistock Publications, 1970 (reprinted).

Dodge, B., Al-Azhar, A Millennium of Muslim Learning, The Middle East Institute, Washington D.C., 1974 (reprinted).

Dore, R., The Diploma Disease, George Allen and Unwin, 1976.

Drucker, P.F., The Landmark of Tomorrow, Heinemann, 1959.

Durkheim, E., Education and Sociology, translated by, Fox, S.D., The Free Press, Gleuce, Illinois, 1956.

Embling, J., A Fresh Look At Higher Education: European Implications of the Carnegie Commission, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1974.

Entwistle, H., Class, Culture and Education, Methuen, 1978.

Evans, D.E., Universities Past and Present, University College of Swansea, October 1953.

Evetts, Julia, The Sociology of Educational Ideas, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1973.

Fletcher, B., The Universities in the Modern World, Pergamon Press, 1968.

Fletcher, R., What's Wrong With Higher Education?, Methuen, 1975.

Furniss, W.T., (ed.), Higher Education For Everybody? Issues and Implications, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1971.

Ghunaimah, M.A., The History of the Great Islamic Universities, Mwlay al-Hasan Institution, Tatwan, 1953 (in Arabic).

Ginzberg, E., Manpower Needs: Are Universities Training The Right People For The Right Jobs?, Seminar Report, Columbia University, New York, 1975.

Goodlad, S., Conflict and Consensus in Higher Education, Hodder and Stoughton, 1976.

Harbison, F. and Ibrahim, A.I., Human Resources for Egyptian Enterprise, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1958.

Harbison, F. and Myers, C.A., Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resources Development, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1964.

Harrington, F.H., The Future of Adult Education, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1977.

Harris, M., Egypt Under The Egyptians, Chapman and Hall, 1925.

Hearnden, A., Paths to University, Preparation Assessment, Selection, Macmillan Education, 1975.

Heyworth-Dunne, J., An Introduction to the History of Education in Modern Egypt, Frank Cass, 1968 (new impression).

Hourani, A., Arabic Thought in the Liberal Age, 1798-1939, Oxford University Press, 1970 (paperback edition).

Husen, T., The Learning Society, with a Foreword by, Richmond, W.K., Methuen, 1974.

Hutchins, R.M., The Learning Society, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1970.

Hyde, Georgie D.M., Education in Modern Egypt: Ideas and Realities, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978.

International Association of Universities, Report of the Fourth General Conference, Tokyo, 31 August-6 September 1965, I.A.U., Paris, 1966.

Jaspers, K., The Idea of the University, translated from the German by, Reiche, H.A.T. and Vanderschmidt, H.F., edited by, Deutsch, K., Peter Owen, 1965 (second impression).

Kerr, G., The Uses of the University, with a 'postscript 1972', Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1972.

King, E.J., Education and Social Change, Pergamon Press, 1969.

Kogan, M., The Politics of Educational Change, Manchester University Press, Manchester, 1978.

Lane, E.W., The Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians, Everyman's Library, Dent, 1966 (reprinted).

Lewis, W.A., Some Aspects of Economic Development, The Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra, 1971.

Lloyd, Lord, Egypt Since Cromer, Vol. I, Macmillan, 1933.

Little, G., The University Experience: An Australian Study, Melbourne University Press, Carton, Victoria, 1970.

Livingstone, H., The University: An Organizational Analysis, Blackie, Glasgow, 1974.

Livingstone, R., Some Thoughts on University Education, National Book League, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1948.

Mabro, R., The Egyptian Economy 1952-1972, Oxford University Press, 1974.

Mansfield, P., The British In Egypt, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1971.

Marris, P., The Experience of Higher Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1964.

Martain, J., Education At The Crossroads, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1968 (reprinted).

Minogue, K.R., The Concept of a University, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1973.

Moberly, W., The Crisis in the University, S.C.M. Press, 1949.

Morris, R.W., The Sixth Form and College Entrance, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969.

Mouly, J. and Costa, E., Employment Policies in Developing Countries, George Allen and Unwin, 1974.

Myint, H., The Economics of the Developing Countries, Hutchinson University Library, 1974 (Fourth edition).

Neave, G., Patterns of Equality: The influence of new structure in European higher education upon the equality of educational opportunity, N.F.E.R. Publishing Company, 1976.

Newman, Cardinal John Henry, The Idea of a University, Image Book edition, New York, 1959.

Niblett, W.R., (ed.), The Sciences and the Humanities, London University Press, 1975.

Nyrerey, J., Freedom and Socialism, Oxford University Press, 1969 (reprinted).

Oakeshott, M., Rationalism in Politics and Other Essays, Methuen, 1962.

Paloczi-Horvath, G., Youth Up In Arms, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1971.

Panitchpakdi, S., Educational Growth in Developing Countries, Rotterdam University Press, Netherlands, 1974.

Pedley, R., Towards Comprehensive University, Macmillan, 1977.

Perkins, J.A., The University in Transition, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1966.

Qubain, F., Education and Science in the Arab World, The John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, Maryland, 1966.

Reeves, Marjorie, (ed.), Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education, Faber and Faber, 1965.

Rice, A.K., The Modern University: A model organisation, Tavistock Publications, 1970.

Richmond, W.K., The Industry of Education, Methuen, 1969.

Ross, M.G., The University: The Anatomy of Academe, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1976.

Sandeen, A., Undergraduate Education, Conflict and Change, Lexington Books, Massachusetts, 1976.

Scott, P., Strategies For Post-Secondary Education, Groom Helm, 1975.

Sharp, S., 'Just Like A Girl': How Girls Learn To Be Women, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1978 (reprinted).

Szyliowicz, J.S., Education and Modernization in the Middle East, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, 1973.

Thresher, B.A., College Admissions and Public Interest, College Entrance Examination Board, New York, 1966.

Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education, Its Traditions and Modernization into the Arab National Systems, Luzac and Company Ltd., 1972.

Tignor, R.L., Modernization and British Colonial Rule in Egypt, 1882-1914, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1966.

Toynbee, A.J., A Study of History, Vol. IV, Oxford University Press, 1939.

Tyler, W., The Sociology of Education, Methuen, 1977.

Vaizey, J., Education in the Modern World, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1969 (Second impression).

Vaizey, J., (ed.), Whatever Happened To Equality?, B.B.C. Publications, 1975.

Wagner, G., The End of Education, Barnes, New York, 1976.

Wechsler, H.S., The Qualified Student, John Wiley, New York, 1977.

Wheelock, W., Nasser's New Egypt, A Critical Analysis, Atlantic Books, 1960.

VII. Reference Books

Gibb, H.A.R. and Kramers, J.H., (eds.), Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam, Luzac, 1961.

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

سنة ١٩٧٨

كليات الجامعات والمعاهد التى تقبل الطلاب الحاصلين

على الشهادة الثانوية العامة سه القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم فقط)

٠٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة القاهرة ٢ توقيع	١٠٣ كلية طب الأسنان جامعة الإسكندرية ٤ توقيع	١٠٧ كلية الطب البيطرى جامعة الإسكندرية ٨ توقيع	٣٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة أسيوط ٩ توقيع	١٨٢ كلية علوم القطن (بالإسكندرية) جامعة حلوان ٠ توقيع
١٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة الإسكندرية ٣ توقيع	٤٠٣ كلية طب الأسنان جامعة طنطا ٧ توقيع	٣٠٧ كلية الطب البيطرى جامعة أسيوط ٠ توقيع	٥٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة المنصورة ١ توقيع	٢١٤ كلية البنات (اقتصاد منزلى) جامعة عين شمس ٨ توقيع
٢٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة عين شمس ٤ توقيع	٥٠٣ كلية طب الأسنان جامعة المنصورة ٨ توقيع	٦٠٧ كلية الطب البيطرى جامعة الزقازيق ٣ توقيع	٦٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة الزقازيق ٢ توقيع	٣٨١ كلية الاقتصاد المنزلى (طالبات فقط) جامعة حلوان ١ توقيع
٣٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة أسيوط ٥ توقيع	٠٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة القاهرة ٤ توقيع	١٠٥ المعهد العالى للتمريض (طالبات فقط) جامعة القاهرة ٧ توقيع	٧٠٦ كلية الزراعة بشبين الكوم ٣ توقيع	٨٨٠ المعهد العالى للتعاون الزراعى بشبرا الخيمة (خاص بمصروفات) ٥ توقيع
٤٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة طنطا ٦ توقيع	١٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة الإسكندرية ٥ توقيع	١١٥ المعهد العالى للتمريض (طالبات فقط) جامعة الإسكندرية ٨ توقيع	٨٠٦ كلية الزراعة بكفر الشيخ جامعة طنطا ٤ توقيع	٨٨١ المعهد العالى للتعاون والإرشاد الزراعى بأسيوط (خاص بمصروفات) ٦ توقيع
٥٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة المنصورة ٧ توقيع	٣٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة أسيوط ٧ توقيع	٠١١ المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى جامعة القاهرة ٣ توقيع	٩٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة عين شمس ٥ توقيع	٧٨١ المعهد الفنى الصحى بالقاهرة شعبة التمريض (طالبات فقط) ٥ توقيع
٦٠٢ كلية الطب جامعة الزقازيق ٨ توقيع	٤٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة طنطا ٨ توقيع	٠٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة القاهرة ٦ توقيع	٦٤٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة قناة السويس ٠ توقيع	٧٨٣ المعهد الفنى الصحى بالإسكندرية شعبة التمريض (طالبات فقط) ٧ توقيع
٩٤٢ كلية الطب (بنين) جامعة الأزهر ٩ توقيع	٥٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة المنصورة ٩ توقيع	٥٤٦ كلية الزراعة بالفيوم جامعة القاهرة ٩ توقيع	٩٤٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط) ٣ توقيع	٧٨٤ المعهد الفنى الصحى (طنطا) ٨ توقيع
٩٥٣ الطب (بنات) جامعة الأزهر ٣ توقيع	٦٠٤ كلية الصيدلة جامعة الزقازيق ٠ توقيع	١٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة الإسكندرية ٧ توقيع	٧٤٦ كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر شعبة عامة (جامعة الزقازيق) ١ توقيع	٧٨٥ المعهد الفنى الصحى بالزقازيق ٩ توقيع
٠٠٣ كلية طب الأسنان جامعة القاهرة ٣ توقيع	٠٠٧ كلية الطب البيطرى جامعة القاهرة ٧ توقيع	٢٠٦ كلية الزراعة جامعة عين شمس ٨ توقيع	١٨٠ كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر شعبة الزراعة والتربية (جامعة الزقازيق) (الطلبة فقط) ٨ توقيع	٧٨٦ المعهد الفنى الصحى بأسيوط توقيع
				٧٨٨ المعهد الفنى الصحى بالمنصورة ٢ توقيع

وزارة التعليم العالى 423 الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل الطلاب الحاصلين على الشهادة الثانوية العامة

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

من القسم العلمى (شعبة الرياضيات فقط)

سنة ١٩٧٨

٠٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة القاهرة	٥	٠٨٤	كلية التكنولوجيا بحلوان جامعة حلوان	١	٠٨٦	كلية البترول والتعدين بالسويس جامعة قناة السويس	٣	٤٨٣	المعهد الفنى الصناعى للسيارات بوادى حوف (طلبة فقط)	٤	٥٨١	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بشبين الكوم (طلبة فقط)	٣
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
١٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة الإسكندرية	٦	٠٨٧	كلية التكنولوجيا بالمطرية جامعة حلوان	٤	٩٤٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٢	٤٨٥	المعهد الفنى للتليفونات بالقاهرة (طلبة وطالبات)	٦	٥٨٢	المعهد الفنى للبصريات بالمنيرة (طلبة وطالبات)	٤
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٢٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة عين شمس	٧	٩٠٥	كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا جامعة المنيا	٤	٧٤٥	كلية الهندسة بشبرا (فرع بنها) جامعة الزقازيق	٠	٤٨٧	المعهد الفنى للرى والصرف الساحلى واستصلاح الأراضى بالجيزة (طلبة فقط)	٨	٥٨٤	المعهد الفنى للأكترونيات بجيزا (طلبة وطالبات)	٦
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٣٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة أسيوط	٨	٧٠٥	كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية	٢	٤٨٠	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بالمطرية (طلبة وطالبات)	١	٤٨٨	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بكفر شيبا (طلبة وطالبات)	٩	٥٨٦	المعهد الفنى للتليفزيون بدار السلام (طلبة وطالبات)	٨
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٥٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة المنصورة	٠	٠٨٥	كلية الهندسة الإلكترونية بمنوف (جامعة المنوفية)	٢	٤٨١	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بشارع الصحافة (طلبة وطالبات)	٢	٤٨٩	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بالزقازيق (طلبة وطالبات)	٠	٥٨٧	المعهد الفنى الصناعى ببور سعيد (طلبة وطالبات)	٩
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٦٠٥	كلية الهندسة جامعة الزقازيق	١	٣٤٥	كلية التكنولوجيا ببور سعيد جامعة قناة السويس	٦	٤٨٢	المعهد الفنى المعمارى بالمطرية (طلبة فقط)	٣	٥٨٠	المعهد الفنى الصناعى بأسوان (طلبة وطالبات)	٢	٨٨٣	معهد التخطيط العمرانى جامعة القاهرة	٨
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	

الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل الطلاب الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة بالقسم العلمى (العلوم والرياضيات)

١٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة القاهرة	١	٢٤١	كلية العلوم بأسوان جامعة أسيوط	٨	٩٥٢	العلوم (بنات) جامعة الأزهر	٢	٢٦١	كلية التربية بأسوان جامعة أسيوط	٦
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
١٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة الإسكندرية	٢	٥٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة المنصورة	٩	٧٠١	كلية العلوم بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية	٨	٤٨٦	المعهد الفنى لغزل ونسيج الصوف بإسنا (طلبة وطالبات)	٧
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٢٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة عين شمس	٣	٦٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة الزقازيق	٧	٦٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة بنها	٠	٣٨٢	كلية الفنون التطبيقية بالجيزة جامعة حلوان	١	٥٨٣	المعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا (طلبة وطالبات)	٥
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٣٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة أسيوط	٤	٠٤١	كلية العلوم بقنا جامعة أسيوط	٩	٦٤١	كلية العلوم جامعة قناة السويس	٥	٣٨٠	كلية الفنون الجميلة (عمارة) بالزمالك (قسم العمارة فقط)	٤	٧٨٠	المعهد الفنى الصحى بإسنا	٤
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٤٠١	كلية العلوم جامعة طنطا	٥	١٤١	كلية العلوم بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٠	٩٤١	كلية العلوم (بنات) جامعة الأزهر	٨	١٣٨	كلية الفنون الجميلة (عمارة) بالإسكندرية (قسم العمارة فقط)	٥	٧٨٢	المعهد الفنى الصحى بالإسكندرية	٦
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	

وزارة التعليم العالي — الكليات والمعاهد التي تقبل الحاصلين

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد — على الثانوية العامة

سنة ١٩٧٨ — من القسمين الأدبي والعلمي بشعبتيه

٣١٦	كلية التجارة (شعبة العلوم السياسية) جامعة أسيوط	١	٥١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة المنصورة	٤	٣٥٧	كلية العلوم التجارية والإدارية (بورسعيد) جامعة قناة السويس	١	١٦١	كلية التربية بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٥	٩٦١	كلية التربية جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٣	٠	كلية البنات (أدبي) جامعة الأزهر	٩٦٨
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع	
٠١٦	كلية الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية جامعة القاهرة	٨	٥١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة المنصورة	٤	٣٥٧	كلية العلوم التجارية والإدارية (بورسعيد) جامعة قناة السويس	١	١٦١	كلية التربية بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٥	٩٦١	كلية التربية جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٣			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٠١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة القاهرة	٩	٥١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة المنصورة	٥	٣٥٨	كلية العلوم التجارية والإدارية (انتساب) بورسعيد جامعة قناة السويس	٢	٩٢١	كلية التربية بالمنيا جامعة المنيا	٤	٠٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة القاهرة	٧			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٠١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة القاهرة	٠	٦١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الزقازيق	٥	٨٥٧	كلية التجارة ببني سويف جامعة القاهرة	٦	٠٦١	كلية التربية بقنا جامعة أسيوط	٤	٠٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة القاهرة	٨			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
١١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الإسكندرية	٠	٦١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة الزقازيق	٦	٨٥٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) ببني سويف جامعة القاهرة	٧	٤٢١	كلية التربية جامعة طنطا	٩	١٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة الإسكندرية	٨			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
١١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة الإسكندرية	١	٩٥٧	كلية التجارة جامعة الأزهر (بنين فقط)	٧	٠٢٠	كلية الأعلام جامعة القاهرة	٤	٧٢١	كلية التربية بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية	٢	١٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة الإسكندرية	٩			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٢١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة عين شمس	١	٩٦٩	التجارة بنات جامعة الأزهر	١	٠١٩	كلية الآثار جامعة القاهرة	١	٥٢١	كلية التربية جامعة المنصورة	٠	٢٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة عين شمس	٩			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٢١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة عين شمس	٢	٠٩٠	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال بالزمالك جامعة حلوان	٩	٢٢٢	كلية الألسن جامعة عين شمس	٨	٦٢١	كلية التربية جامعة الزقازيق	١	٢٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة عين شمس	٠			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٣١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة أسيوط	٢	٠٩١	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال (انتساب) بالزمالك جامعة حلوان	٠	٥٦١	كلية التربية بالفيوم جامعة القاهرة	٩	٨٢١	كلية التربية بكفر الشيخ جامعة طنطا	٣	٩٢٣	كلية الآداب بالمنيا جامعة المنيا	٦			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٣١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة أسيوط	٣	٠٩٤	كلية التجارة وإدارة الأعمال (شعبة البرمجة) بالزمالك جامعة حلوان	٣	١٢١	كلية التربية جامعة الإسكندرية	٦	٤٦١	كلية التربية بدمياط جامعة المنصورة	٨	٩٢٤	كلية الآداب بالمنيا (انتساب) جامعة المنيا	٧			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٤١٧	كلية التجارة جامعة طنطا	٣	٧٥٧	كلية التجارة ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	٥	٢٢١	كلية التربية جامعة عين شمس	٧	٧٦١	كلية التربية ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	١	١٦٣	كلية الآداب بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٧			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				
٤١٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) جامعة طنطا	٤	٧٥٨	كلية التجارة (انتساب) ببنها جامعة الزقازيق	٦	٣٢١	كلية التربية جامعة أسيوط	٨	٦٦١	كلية التربية جامعة قناة السويس للعلوم والرياضيات فقط	٠	١٦٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) بسوهاج جامعة أسيوط	٨			
	توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع			توقيع				

تابع الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل من القسمين الأدبى والعلمى بشعبتيه (العلوم والرياضيات)

٤٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة طنطا	١		٠٢٧	كلية دار العلوم جامعة القاهرة	١		٨٩٤	المعهد العالى للدراسات التعاونية والإدارية (بالمنيرة) (خاص بمصروفات)	١		٥٩١	المعهد الفنى التجارى بأسيوط	٥	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٤٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة طنطا	٢		٣٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة أسيوط	٣		٠٣٧	كلية الفنون الجميلة (فنون) بالزمالك (للناجحين فى اختبار رسم الفنون فقط)	٣		٥٩٢	المعهد الفنى التجارى بأسوان	٦	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٦٢٣	كلية الآداب جامعة الزقازيق	٣		٥٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة المنصورة	٤		٢٩٣	كلية التربية الموسيقية بالزمالك (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحين فى اختبار القدرات الموسيقية فقط)	٤		٤٩٠	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالروضة	٣	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٦٢٤	كلية الآداب (انتساب) جامعة الزقازيق	٤		٥٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة المنصورة	٥		٠٣٥	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنين بالهرم (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحين فى اختبار القدرات الرياضية فقط)	١		٤٩١	المعهد الفنى التجارى بشبرا	٤	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٠٦٣	كلية الآداب بقنا جامعة أسيوط (الأدبى وشعبة العلوم)	٦		٦٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة الزقازيق	٥		٠٣٦	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنات بالجزيرة (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحات فى اختبار القدرات الرياضية فقط)	٢		٤٩٢	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالمطرية	٥	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٠٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة القاهرة	٩		٦٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة الزقازيق	٦		١٣٥	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنين بالإسكندرية (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحين فى اختبار القدرات الرياضية فقط)	٢		٤٩٤	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالإسكندرية	٧	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٠٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة القاهرة	٠		٢٢٩	كلية البنات (عام) جامعة عين شمس	٥		١٣٦	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنات بالإسكندرية (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحات فى اختبار القدرات الرياضية فقط)	٣		٤٩٥	المعهد الفنى التجارى بطنطا	٨	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
١٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة الإسكندرية	٠		٢٣٠	كلية البنات (تربوى) جامعة عين شمس	٨		٣٩٤	كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية (جامعة حلوان) بالقاهرة	٦		٤٩٦	المعهد الفنى التجارى بشبين الكوم	٩	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
١٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة الإسكندرية	١		٩٦٢	كلية اللغات والترجمة (للبنين فقط) جامعة الأزهر للمتفوقين للثانوية العامة باللغات	٤		٨٩٠	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بالقاهرة (خاص بمصروفات)	٧		٤٩٧	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببنها	٠	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٢٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة عين شمس	١		٠٣٧	كلية الفنون الجميلة (فنون) بالزمالك (للناجحين فى اختبار رسم الفنون فقط)	٣		٨٩١	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بالإسكندرية (خاص بمصروفات)	٨		٤٩٨	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالمنصورة	١	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٢٢٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب) جامعة عين شمس	٢		١٣٧	كلية الفنون الجميلة (فنون) بالإسكندرية (للناجحين فى اختبار رسم الفنون فقط)	٤		٨٩٢	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بكفر الشيخ (خاص بمصروفات)	٩		٤٩٩	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببور فؤاد	٢	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
٢٢٥	كلية الحقوق جامعة أسيوط	٢		٢٩٢	كلية التربية الفنية بالزمالك (جامعة حلوان) (للناجحين فى اختبار رسم الفنون فقط)	٣		٨٩٣	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بأسوان (خاص بمصروفات)	٠		٥٩٠	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببنى سويف	٤	
	توقيع				توقيع				توقيع				توقيع		
												٥٩٧	معهد الإدارة والسكرتارية (فرع مصر الجديدة) طلبة وطالبات (خاص بمصروفات)	٥	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٥	معهد السكرتارية بكلية البنات القطية بالعباسية طالبات فقط (خاص بمصروفات)	٣	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٦	معهد السكرتارية بكلية رمسيس بالقاهرة طالبات فقط (خاص بمصروفات)	٤	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٣	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالعباسية (طلبة وطالبات) (خاص بمصروفات)	١	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٤	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالزقازيق	٨	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٢	المعهد الفنى التجارى بأسوان	٦	
													توقيع		
												٥٩٣	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالسيدة زينب (طالبات فقط)	٦	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٠	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات (بجاردن سيتى) (خاص بمصروفات)	٨	
													توقيع		
												٩٩١	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات (بالإسكندرية) (خاص بمصروفات)	٩	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٢	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية بأسوان (طلبة وطالبات) (خاص بمصروفات)	٠	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٣	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالعباسية (طلبة وطالبات) (خاص بمصروفات)	١	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٤	معهد الإدارة والسكرتارية للغتيات (بجاردن سيتى) (خاص بمصروفات)	٢	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٥	معهد السكرتارية بكلية البنات القطية بالعباسية طالبات فقط (خاص بمصروفات)	٣	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٦	معهد السكرتارية بكلية رمسيس بالقاهرة طالبات فقط (خاص بمصروفات)	٤	
													توقيع		
												٩٩٧	معهد الإدارة والسكرتارية (فرع مصر الجديدة) طلبة وطالبات (خاص بمصروفات)	٥	
													توقيع		

4 2 6

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

عام ١٩٧٨

بطاقة رغبات يحتفظ بها الطالب

يحررها الطالب وفقا لترتيب الرغبات الواردة ببطاقة الاختيار المقدمة منه (القسم العلمى) *

(شعبة العلوم)

رقم الايصال **

اسم الطالب _____ النوع (ذكر / انثى)

تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ الجنسية _____ الديانة _____

عنوان الطالب _____

قسم/مركز _____ محافظة _____

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة _____

المدرسة التى تخرج منها _____

مديرية التربية والتعليم التابعة لها المدرسة _____

(أو التابعة لها لجنة الامتحان لطلبة المنازل) _____

الرغبات (الاختيارات)

رقم الاختيار	الكلية (او المعهد)	الجامعة (أو مكان المعهد)	رقم الاختيار	الكلية (أو المعهد)	الجامعة (أو مكان المعهد)
١			١٧		
٢			١٨		
٣			١٩		
٤			٢٠		
٥			٢١		
٦			٢٢		
٧			٢٣		
٨			٢٤		
٩			٢٥		
١٠			٢٦		
١١			٢٧		
١٢			٢٨		
١٣			٢٩		
١٤			٣٠		
١٥			٣١		
١٦			٣٢		

درجات الطالب

اللغة العربية ٥٠/٢٥	مجموعة اللغات الاجنبية ٧٠/٢٨		مجموعة الرياضيات ٨٠/٣٢	مجموعة العلوم ١٢٠/٤٨		التاريخ الطبيعى ٨٠/٣٢	المجموع الكلى ٤٠٠/٢٠٠	المستوى الخاص	المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص
	اللغة الأولى ٤٠/١٢	اللغة الثانية ٣٠/٩		الفيزياء ٦٠/١٨	الكيمياء ٦٠/١٨			اللغة العربية أو الاجنبية الأولى ١٠/٥	
	لغة _____	لغة _____							
	المجموع			المجموع					

* هذه البطاقة يحتفظ بها الطالب ليكون على بينة من الرغبات الواردة فى البطاقة الاصلية المقدمة منه وعلى ضوئها يمكن للطالب ان يعرف الكلية أو المعهد الذى رشح له بعد اعلان نتائج القبول وفقا للحد الادنى

** على الطالب استيفاء رقم الايصال حتى يسهل عليه الرجوع للمكتب فى أى موضوع يخصه .

(انظر خلفه)

كيفية ملء بطاقة الاختبار

١ ـ تكتب البيانات بوضوح تام ويفضل الخط الكبير .

٢ ـ رقم الجلوس : يكتب رقم واحد فى كل مربع من المربعات الستة المخصصة لهذا الرقم مبتدئا بالاحاد فى المربع الأول على اليمين وفى حالة ما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب يتكون من أربعة أرقام فقط يترك المربعان الاخيران على اليسار خاليان بمعنى أنه اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ٥٧٨٢ يكتب هكذا :

		٥	٧	٨	٢

اما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ١٠٠٥٨٧ فيكتب هكذا

١	٠	٠	٥	٨	٧

٣ ـ مجموع الدرجات : يكتب فى المربعات المخصصة لذلك مبتدئا بالكسر فى المربع الأول على اليمين (ويكتب بالكسر العشرى) ثم يكتب رقم الاحاد فى المربع المخصص لذلك ثم رقم العشرات ثم رقم المئات بمعنى انه اذا كان مجموع الطالب هو ٢٤٫٥ درجة فيكتب هكذا

٢	٤	٠	٥

اما اذا كان مجموع الطالب ٢٤٠ درجة فقط فيكتب هكذا :

٢	٤	٠	—

٤ ـ أما البيانات ج ، د ، هـ ، و فيضع الطالب علامة ✓ على المربع الذى يناسب حالته ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين بمعنى انه اذا كانت اللغة الأجنبية الاولى للطالب هى اللغة الفرنسية مثلا فانه يضع علامة ✓ على المربع المخصص لذلك أمام هذه اللغة ثم يكتب رقم (٢) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين هكذا :

٢	اللغة الاجنبية الاولى	١	انجليزى	٢	فرنسى ✓

٥ ـ طوابع أسماء الكليات والمعاهد : وتستعمل فى ابداء رغبات الطالب ويحدد الطالب مع أسرته رغباته وترتيبها قبل لصقها ويوقع الطالب باسمه بوضوح فى المكان المخصص لكل رغبة حسب الترتيب الذى استقر عليه مع مراعاة الدقة التامة وعدم نزع الطابع بعد لصقه .

٦ ـ كود أقسام الشرطة :

كود الأقسام الادارية (أقسام الشرطة) التابع لها سكن طلاب المدارس الغير عادية (مدارس اللغات والمتفوقين ومراكز الكفوفين والثانوية الرياضية والمدرسة الثانوية الجوية ومدرسة الباليه والثانوية الموسيقية) .

أولا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم فى محافظات القاهرة الكبرى (القاهرة . الجيزة . القليوبية) .

أقسام الشرطة :	الكود
ـ قصر النيل ـ عابدين ـ بولاق ـ السيدة زينب ـ الأزبكية ـ مصر القديمة ـ المعادى ـ حلوان ـ جميع أقسام محافظة الجيزة .	١
ـ الخليفة ـ الظاهر ـ باب الشعرية ـ الجمالية ـ الدرب الأحمر ـ مدينة نصر ـ الموسكى ـ شبرا ـ روض الفرج ـ الساحل ـ المطرية ـ الزيتون ـ مصر الجديدة ـ الوايلى ـ النزهة ـ جميع أقسام محافظة القليوبية .	٢
ثانيا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم خارج محافظات القاهرة الكبرى	٣

٧ ـ اختبارات القدرات : يضع الطالب علامة (✓) فى المربع الخاص باختبار القدرات ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

اذا كان الطالب لائقا فى اختبار رسم الفنون فانه يضع علامة (✓) فى المربع رقم (١) ثم يكتب رقم (١) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

كود المحافظات والمناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربية والتعليم

التابعة لها مدرسة الطالب (خاص بالمكتب)

المناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربية والتعليم	الكود الرقم الاحصائى (كود المديرية)
شمال القاهرة	٠١
شرق القاهرة	٠٢
مصر الجديدة	٠٣
وسط القاهرة	٠٤
جنوب القاهرة	٠٥
حلوان	٠٦
غرب القاهرة	٠٧
شرق اسكندرية	٠٨
وسط اسكندرية	٠٩
غرب اسكندرية	١٠
العامرية	١١
البحيرة	١٢
الغربية	١٣
كفر الشيخ	١٤
المنوفية	١٥
القليوبية	١٦
الدقهلية	١٧
دمياط	١٨
الشرقية	١٩
الاسماعيلية	٢٠
الجيزة	٢١
الفيوم	٢٢
بنى سويف	٢٣
المنيا	٢٤
أسيوط	٢٥
سوهاج	٢٦
قنا	٢٧
أسوان	٢٨
مطروح	٢٩
الوادى الجديد	٣٠
البحر الاحمر	٣١
السويس	٣٢
بور سعيد	٣٣
سيناء	٣٤
الوافدين (الدول الاجنبية) وطلاب المدارس الغير عادية	٣٥

4-28

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول
بالجامعات والمعاهد
عام ١٩٧٨

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة	
المجموع الكلى مضافا اليه المستوى الخاص	

بطاقة الترشيح للقبول عام ١٩٧٨

السيد ولى امر الطالب _____ (يكتب اسم الطالب)

بعد التحية ـ يتشرف مكتب التنسيق بأن ينهى اليكم ان اوراق الطالب المذكور قد ارسلت الى

حيث ترشح للقبول بها ولا يعتبر قبوله نهائيا الا بعد النجاح فى الكشف الطبى واداء الرسوم الاضافية المقررة واستيفاء جميع اوراق القيد .

فارجو تكليف الطالب بالتوجه الى الكلية (او المعهد) المرشح للقبول بها لتوقيع الكشف الطبى عليه ولاداء الرسوم فى الحال بعد استيفاء الأوراق (استيفاء الاوراق الناقصة يكون خلال ١٥ يوما على الاكثر من تاريخ اعلان نتائج القبول فى الصحف حتى لا يصرف النظر عن قبول الطالب) .

وعلى الطالب ملاحظة ان المادة ٥٧ المعدلة من القانون رقم ٥٠٠ سنة ١٩٥٥ تقضى بانه لا يجوز ان يلتحق اى طالب باحدى الكليات او المعاهد او ينتسب اليها او يبقى فيها بعد بلوغه سن ١٩ ما لم يكن حاملا لبطاقة الخدمة العسكرية والوطنية .

ولا يجوز ان يبقى اى طالب بالكليات والمعاهد فيما بين العشرين والخامسة والثلاثين من عمره ما لم يكن لديه احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ . كما لا يجوز قيد اى طالب منتظما او منتسبا فى اولى مراحل الدراسة باحدى كليات جامعات الجمهورية او ما يعادلها اذا جاوزت سنه ٢٢ عاما يوم اول سبتمبر من العام الذى يلتحق او ينتسب فيه وذلك بما لم يقدم احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ عدا نموذج تأجيل الخدمة الالزامية طبقا لاحكام المادة ٨ .

والشهادات المشار اليها فى هذه المادة مطلوب تقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) بعد ترشيح الطالب لها وقبل قيده بها ـ فعلى الطالب الذى ينطبق عليه هذا القانون مراعاة ذلك باعداد الشهادة المطلوبة لتقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) قبل القيد .

وتفضلوا بقبول وافر الاحترام ،،

اسم عضو مكتب التنسيق المختص _____

/ /١٩٧٨ التوقيع : _____ رقم العضوية : _____

428

رقم الملف _____

يلصق طابع
بريد فئة
١٠ مليمات

اسم الطالب : _____

العنوان بالكامل : _____

قسم/مركز _____ محافظة : _____

مكتب بريد : _____

(على الطالب كتابة اسمه وعنوانه ومكتب البريد التابع له العنوان بدقة على هذا الوجه من البطاقة فقط)

Appendix VII

-438-

رقم الملف

اسم الطالب : حمدي عبد الفتاح مجاهد

العنوان بالكامل : ٩ ش د كتور بورجي - متفرع من محمد زيد

قسم/مركز بولكلي محافظة : الإسكندرية

مكتب بريد : الوزارة

(على الطالب كتابة اسمه وعنوانه ومكتب البريد التابعله العنوان بدقة على هذا الوجه من البطاقة فقط)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

عام ١٩٧٨

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة: ٢٥٧٧٤٤

المجموع الكلى مضافا اليه المستوى الخاص: ٣٣٩ ١/٢

بطاقة الترشيح للقبول عام ١٩٧٨

السيد ولى امر الطالب سمير عبد الغنى مجاهد (يكتب اسم الطالب)

بعد التحية ـ يتشرف مكتب التنسيق بان ينهى اليكم ان اوراق الطالب المذكور قد ارسلت الى

صدر لسلامة الرسم

حيث رشح للقبول بها ولا يعتبر قبوله نهائيا الا بعد النجاح فى الكشف الطبى واداء الرسوم الاضافية المقررة واستيفاء جميع اوراق القيد .

فارجو تكليف الطالب بالتوجه الى الكلية (او المعهد) المرشح للقبول بها لتوقيع الكشف الطبى عليه ولاداء الرسوم فى الحال بعد استيفاء الاوراق (استيفاء الاوراق الناقصة يكون خلال ١٥ يوما على الاكثر من تاريخ اعلان نتائج القبول فى الصحف حتى لا يصرف النظر عن قبول الطالب) .

وعلى الطالب ملاحظة ان المادة ٥٧ المعدلة من القانون رقم ٥٠٥ سنة ١٩٥٥ تقضى بانه لا يجوز ان يلتحق اى طالب باحدى الكليات او المعاهد او ينتسب اليها او يبقى فيها بعد بلوغه سن ١٩ ما لم يكن حاملا بطاقة الخدمة العسكرية والوطنية .

ولا يجوز ان يبقى اى طالب بالكليات والمعاهد فيما بين العشرين والخامسة والثلاثين من عمره ما لم يكن لديه احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ . كما لا يجوز قيد اى طالب منتظما او منتسبا فى اولى مراحل الدراسة باحدى كليات جامعات الجمهورية او ما يعادلها اذا جاوزت سنه ٢٢ عاما يوم اول سبتمبر من العام الذى يلتحق او ينتسب فيه وذلك ما لم يقدم احدى الشهادات او النماذج المنصوص عليها فى المادة ٦٤ عدا نموذج تأجيل الخدمة الالزامية طبقا لاحكام المادة ٨ .

والشهادات المشار اليها فى هذه المادة مطلوب تقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) بعد ترشيح الطالب لها وقبل قيده بها ـ فعلى الطالب الذى ينطبق عليه هذا القانون مراعاة ذلك باعداد الشهادة المطلوبة لتقديمها للكلية (او المعهد) قبل القيد .

وتفضلوا بقبول وافر الاحترام ،،

اسم عضو مكتب التنسيق المختص

التوقيع :

رقم العضوية :

/ /١٩٧٨

ثانيا ـ الفئات المستثناة

من القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

عام ١٩٧٨

١ ـ أستثناء القوات المسلحة :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة أسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب .
جامعة الازهر : الطب (بنين) .

٢ ـ أبناء أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة أسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب ـ طب أسنان ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب ـ طب أسنان ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب ـ الصيدلة .

٣ ـ أبناء العاملين بالجامعات :

جامعة القاهرة : الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .
جامعة الاسكندرية : الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .
جامعة عين شمس : الطب .
جامعة اسيوط : الطب .
جامعة طنطا : الطب ـ الصيدلة .
جامعة المنصورة : الطب .
جامعة الزقازيق : الطب .

٤ ـ أبناء سيناء :

جامعة الزقازيق : الطب ـ الصيدلة .

وعلى جميع الطلاب الذين يقع مجموعهم فى نطاق المرحلة الثانية مراعاة عدم تضمين الكليات الموضحة اعلاه امام فئتهم فى رغباتهم حيث شغلت اماكنهم بالكامل .

ومن حق طلاب كل فئة من الفئات الموضحة بعاليه تضمين رغباتهم باقى الكليات والمعاهد الاخرى .

ارشادات عامة لطلاب الفئات المستثناة

من القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

يرجو المكتب الا تقل رغبات الطالب فى بطاقة الاختيار عن اثنين وثلاثين رغبة متنوعة فى حدود الكليات والمعاهد التى بها اماكن خالية حيث لن يستلم المكتب اوراق اى طالب تقل رغباته عن ٣٢ رغبه .

249

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

المرحلة الثانية

١٩٧٨

بيـــان

لطلاب المرحلة الثانية

بالكليات التى شغلت أماكنها بالكامل لطلاب لقسم العلمى(شعبة العلوم)

فى المرحلة الأولى

اولا ـ القبول العادى

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة :

الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية ـ الطب البيطرى ـ المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى ـ العلوم ـ الآثار ـ الأعلام .

٢ ـ جامعة الاسكندرية :

الطب ـ طب الأسنان ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى ـ العلوم .

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس :

الطب ـ العلوم ـ الالسن .

٤ ـ جامعة أسيوط :

الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى .

٥ ـ جامعة طنطا :

الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان ـ العلوم .

٦ ـ جامعة المنصورة :

الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ طب الأسنان .

٧ ـ جامعة الزقازيق :

الطب ـ الصيدلة ـ الطب البيطرى ـ العلوم .

٨ ـ جامعة حلوان :

الفنون الجميلة عمارة بالقاهرة ـ الفنون التطبيقية .

٩ ـ جامعة المنوفية :

العلوم بشبين الكوم .

١٠ ـ جامعة الأزهر :

الطب (بنين) ـ الطب (بنات) .

وعلى جميع طلاب المرحلة الثانية مراعاة عدم تضمين الكليات الموضحة بعاليه فى رغباتهم حيث شغلت اماكنها بالكامل .
اما بالنسبة لباقى الكليات والمعاهد فجميعها بها اماكن شاغرة ومن حق الطلاب تضمينها فى رغباتهم .

ارشادات عامة لطلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم)

يرجو المكتب الا تقل رغبات الطالب فى بطاقة الاختيار عن اثنين وثلاثين رغبة متنوعة فى حدود الكليات والمعاهد التى بها اماكن خالية حيث لن يستلم المكتب اوراق اى طالب تقل رغباته عن ٣٢ رغبه .

انظر خلفه للاهمية

Appendix VII I

- 431 -

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

عام ١٩٧٨

بطاقة رغبات يحتفظ بها الطالب

يحررها الطالب وفقا لترتيب الرغبات الواردة ببطاقة الاختيار المقدمة منه (القسم العلمى) *

(شعبة العلوم)

رقم الايصال **

اسم الطالب سمير عبد الغنى مجاهد النوع (ذكر / أنثى)

تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ الجنسية ـــــ الديانة ـــــ

عنوان الطالب ـــــ

قسم/مركز ـــــ محافظة ـــــ

رقم جلوس الطالب فى امتحان الثانوية العامة ١٨٥

المدرسة التى تخرج منها ١٦٨

مديرية التربية والتعليم التابعة لها المدرسة ١٧

(أو التابعة لها لجنة الامتحان لطلبة المنازل) ١٦٨

الرغبات (الاختيارات)

ترتيب الاختيارات	الكلية (أو المعهد)	الجامعة (أو مكان المعهد)	ترتيب الاختيارات	الكلية (أو المعهد)	الجامعة (أو مكان المعهد)
١	طب	اسكندرية	١٧	أسنان	قاهرة
٢	طب	طنطا	١٨	طب	أزهر
٣	طب	زقازيق	١٩	اقتصاد	قاهرة
٤	طب	منصورة	٢٠	بيطرى	اسكندرية
٥	طب	قاهرة	٢١	بيطرى	قاهرة
٦	طب	عين شمس	٢٢	بيطرى	أسيوط
٧	طب	أسيوط	٢٣	بيطرى	زقازيق
٨	صيدلة	اسكندرية	٢٤	علوم	إسكندرية
٩	صيدلة	طنطا	٢٥	علوم	قاهرة
١٠	صيدلة	زقازيق	٢٦	علوم	عين شمس
١١	صيدلة	منصورة	٢٧	علوم	أسيوط
١٢	صيدلة	قاهرة	٢٨	علوم	زقازيق
١٣	صيدلة	أسيوط	٢٩	علوم	منصورة
١٤	أسنان	إسكندرية	٣٠	علوم	طنطا
١٥	أسنان	طنطا	٣١	علوم أسوان	أسيوط
١٦	أسنان	منصورة	٣٢	علوم	سوهاج

درجات الطالب

اللغة العربية ٥٠/٢٥	مجموعة اللغات الأجنبية ٧٠/٢٨		مجموعة الرياضيات ٨٠/٣٢	مجموعة العلوم ١٢٠/٤٨		التاريخ الطبيعى ٨٠/٣٢	المجموع الكلى ٤٠٠/٢٠٠	المستوى الخاص	المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص
	اللغة الأولى ٤٠/١٢	اللغة الثانية ٣٠/٩		الفيزياء ٦٠/١٨	الكيمياء ٦٠/١٨			اللغة العربية أو الأجنبية الأولى ١٠/٥	
٣٦	لغة ~~٢٦~~	لغة ~~٢٥~~	٧٤,٥	٥٥½	٥٤½	٦٨	٢٢٩,٥		
	المجموع ٥١			المجموع ١١٠					

* هذه البطاقة يحتفظ بها الطالب ليكون على بينة من الرغبات الواردة فى البطاقة الأصلية المقدمة منه وعلى ضوئها يمكن للطالب ان يعرف الكلية أو المعهد الذى رشح له بعد اعلان نتائج القبول وفقا للحد الادنى

** على الطالب استيفاء رقم الايصال حتى يسهل عليه الرجوع للمكتب فى أى موضوع يخصه .

(أنظر خلفه)

كيفية ملء بطاقة الاختبار

١ ـ تكتب البيانات بوضوح تام ويفضل الخط النسخ .

٢ ـ رقم الجلوس : يكتب رقم واحد فى كل مربع من المربعات الستة المخصصة لهذا الرقم مبتدئا بالاحاد فى المربع الأول على اليمين وفى حالة ما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب يتكون من أربعة أرقام فقط يترك المربعان الاخيران على اليسار خاليان بمعنى انه اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ٥٧٨٢ يكتب هكذا :

٢	٨	٧	٥		

اما اذا كان رقم جلوس الطالب مثلا ١٠٠٥٨٧ فيكتب هكذا

٧	٨	٥	٠	٠	١

٣ ـ مجموع الدرجات : يكتب فى المربعات المخصصة لذلك مبتدئا بالكسر فى المربع الأول على اليمين (ويكتب بالكسر العشرى) ثم يكتب رقم الاحاد فى المربع المخصص لذلك ثم رقم العشرات ثم رقم المئات بمعنى انه اذا كان مجموع الطالب هو ٢٤٫٥ درجة فيكتب هكذا

٥	٠	٤	٣

اما اذا كان مجموع الطالب ٢٤٠ درجة فقط فيكتب هكذا :

٢	٤	٠	—

٤ ـ أما البيانات ج ، د ، هـ ، و فيضع الطالب علامة ✓ على المربع الذى يناسب حالته ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين بمعنى انه اذا كانت اللغة الأجنبية الاولى للطالب هى اللغة الفرنسية مثلا فانه يضع علامة ✓ على المربع المخصص لذلك امام هذه اللغة ثم يكتب رقم (٢) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين هكذا :

٢	اللغة الأجنبية الاولى	١	انجليزى	٢	فرنسى ✓

٥ ـ طوابع أسماء الكليات والمعاهد : وتستعمل فى ابداء رغبات الطالب ويحدد الطالب مع أسرته رغباته وترتيبها قبل لصقها ويوقع الطالب باسمه بوضوح فى المكان المخصص لكل رغبة حسب الترتيب الذى استقر عليه مع مراعاة الدقة التامة وعدم نزع الطابع بعد لصقه .

٦ ـ كود أقسام الشرطة :

كود الأقسام الادارية (أقسام الشرطة) التابع لها سكن طلاب المدارس الغير عادية (مدارس اللغات والمتفوقين وم اكز المكفوفين والثانوية الرياضية والمدرسة الثانوية الجوية ومدرسة البالية والثانوية الموسيقية) .

أولا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم فى محافظات القاهرة الكبرى (القاهرة . الجيزة . القليوبية) .

أقسام الشرطة :	الكود
ـ قصر النيل ـ عابدين ـ بولاق ـ السيدة زينب ـ الازبكية ـ مصر القديمة ـ المعادى ـ حلوان ـ جميع أقسام محافظة الجيزة .	١
ـ الخليفة ـ الظاهر ـ باب الشعرية ـ الجمالية ـ الدرب الأحمر ـ مدينة نصر ـ الموسكى ـ شبرا ـ روض الفرج ـ الساحل ـ المطرية ـ الزيتون ـ مصر الجديدة ـ الوايلى ـ النزهة ـ جميع أقسام محافظة القليوبية .	٢

ثانيا : الطلاب الذين يقع سكنهم خارج محافظات القاهرة الكبرى ٣

٧ ـ اختبارات القدرات : يضع الطالب علامة (✓) فى المربع الخاص باختبار القدرات ثم ينقل الرقم المكتوب فى هذا المربع الى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

فاذا كان الطالب لائقا فى اختبار رسم الفنون فانه يضع علامة (✓) فى المربع رقم (١) ثم يكتب رقم (١) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين .

كود المحافظات والمناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربية والتعليم

التابعة لها مدرسة الطالب (خاص بالمكتب)

مديريات التربية والتعليم والمناطق التعليمية ومديريات التربية والتعليم	الكود (كود المديرية) الرقم الاحصائى
شمال القاهرة	٠١
شرق القاهرة	٠٢
مصر الجديدة	٠٣
وسط القاهرة	٠٤
جنوب القاهرة	٠٥
حلوان	٠٦
غرب القاهرة	٠٧
شرق اسكندرية	٠٨
وسط اسكندرية	٠٩
غرب اسكندرية	١٠
العامرية	١١
البحيرة	١٢
الغربية	١٣
كفر الشيخ	١٤
المنوفية	١٥
القليوبية	١٦
الدقهلية	١٧
دمياط	١٨
الشرقية	١٩
الاسماعيلية	٢٠
الجيزة	٢١
الفيوم	٢٢
بنى سويف	٢٣
المنيا	٢٤
اسيوط	٢٥
سوهاج	٢٦
قنا	٢٧
أسوان	٢٨
مطروح	٢٩
الوادى الجديد	٣٠
البحر الاحمر	٣١
السويس	٣٢
بور سعيد	٣٣
سيناء	٣٤
الوافدين (الدول الأجنبية) وطلاب المدارس الغير عادية	٣٥

p. -419-

Appendix VI

ستمارة ٥٥ (تنسيق)

الثمن ١٥٠ مليم

وزارة التعليم العالى

مكتب تنسيق القبول

بالجامعات والمعاهد

طلب التحاق

اسم الطالب ولقبه _____

الجنسية _____ الديانة _____

محل الاقامة _____

تاريخ ميلاد الطالب _____ سنة ١٩ محل الميلاد _____

	يوم	شهر	سنة
سن الطالب (فى أول أكتوبر من السنة الدراسية الحالية بالتقويم الميلادى)	___	___	___

الشهادات الدراسية الحاصل عليها _____

تاريخ حصوله عليها والمدرسة التى كان بها وقت الحصول عليها _____

عنوان المدرسة التى حصل منها على الثانوية العامة واسم مديرية التعليم التى تتبعها _____

_____

اللغات الأجنبية التى درسها _____

رقم جلوسه فى امتحان المرحلة الثانوية _____ الشعبة التى تخرج فيها _____

سنة التخرج ومجموع درجاته فى الامتحان _____

وظيفته والجهة التى يعمل بها أن كان موظفا * _____

اسم والد الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

_____

اسم ولى أمر الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

_____

اسم مراسل الطالب ولقبه وصناعته وعنوانه _____

توقيع الطالب _____

بيانات خاصة بالطلبة البنين

بطاقة شخصيه / عائلية رقم _____ جهة اصدارها المركز / القسم _____ تاريخ اصدارها / / ١٩

رقم بطاقة الخدمة الوطنية والعسكرية _____

*** هذا البيان خاص بالطلبة الموظفين ويجب ارفاق ما يفيد موافقة الجهة التى يعمل بها الطالب (رئيس مصلحة على الأقل) على القيد والدراسة تمهيدا لتطبيق اللائحة . فاذا لم يكن الطالب من العاملين فتكتب عبارة (من غير العاملين) .**

4 9 5

١

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التعليم العالى
مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
عام ١٩٧٨

بطـاقة الاختيـار

للحاصلين على شهادة الثانوية العامة
القسم العلمي (شعبة العلوم)

رقم الايصال

قبل ملء هذه البطاقة اقرأ جيدا دليل الطالب والتعليمات الواردة فى ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب .

اسم الطالب ——— عنوان الطالب ———

الجنسية ——— قسم/مركز ——— محافظة ———

تاريخ الميلاد / / ١٩ محل الميلاد ——— المدرسة التى تخرج منها ——— المديرية التعليمية ———

رقم الجلوس (اكتب رقم الجلوس مرة أخرى فى ظهر البطاقة فى المكان المخصص لذلك)

المجموع الكلى بدون المستوى الخاص

الكسر العشرى	آحاد	عشرات	مئات

درجة لغة المستوى الخاص للناجح فيها .

المجموع الكلى بعد اضافة المستوى الخاص للناجح فيه

... (ج) الديانة: ١ مسلم | ٢ ديانات أخرى

... (د) النوع: ١ ذكر | ٢ انثى

... (هـ) اللغة الأجنبية الأولى: ١ انجليزى | ٢ فرنسى | ٣ المانى | ٤ ايطالى

... (و) اللغة الأجنبية الثانية: ١ انجليزى | ٢ فرنسى | ٣ المانى | ٤ ايطالى | ٥ معفى

... ... قسم الشرطة التابع له سكن الطالب (ينقل الكود من ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب) .

الرغبـات (الاختيـارات)

تلصق هنا الطوابع المرفقة بالدليل

١	الرغبة الأولى	٥	الرغبة الخامسة	٩	الرغبة التاسعة	١٣	الرغبة الثالثة عشر
٢	الرغبة الثانية	٦	الرغبة السادسة	١٠	الرغبة العاشرة	١٤	الرغبة الرابعة عشر
٣	الرغبة الثالثة	٧	الرغبة السابعة	١١	الرغبة الحادية عشرة	١٥	الرغبة الخامسة عشر
٤	الرغبة الرابعة	٨	الرغبة الثامنة	١٢	الرغبة الثانية عشر	١٦	الرغبة السادسة عشر

توقيع الطالب ——— توقيع ولى الأمر ———

رقم التليفون أو أقرب تليفون للطالب ———

(تعليمات ملء هذه البطاقة موضحة فى ظهر بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها الطالب) (تكمل الرغبات فى ظهر البطاقة)

وزارة التعليم العالي

مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد

دليل الطالب
للقبول بالجامعات والمعاهد
للطلاب الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة
١٩٧٨

ثمن الدليل ومجموعة
طوابع أسماء الكليات والمعاهد
٤٥٠ مليما

مطبعة جامعة القاهرة

١٩٧٨

Students guide for admission to university and institu
For the General Secondary students.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

« ان تكافؤ الفرص وهو التعبير عن الحرية الاجتماعية يمكن تحديده فى حقوق أساسية لكل مواطن ينبغى تكريس الجهد لتحقيقها .
... حق كل مواطن فى العلم بقدر ما يتحمل استعداده ومواهبه »

(من الميثاق)

« ان اهم ما طرا على منطق التعليم والبحث فى العالم هو زوال المسافة بين الفكر والعمل . وبالتالى لم يعد التعليم مسالة مقررات دراسية جامدة تقف مهمة التعليم عند استيعاب الطالب لها . ولكن أصبح التعليم مرتبطا ارتباطا عضويا بحركة المجتمع ومتطلباته ... » .

(من ورقة أكتوبر)

« ... والبنـاء الصحيح لا يكون الا على العلم والايمـان ، بالعـلم لن نتخلف أبـدا عن كل ما فى العصر من مستحدثات ، ولـن نعيش ابـدا متخلفين .... » .

(من كلمات السيد الرئيس محمد انور السادات
فى الاحتفال بذكـرى المولـد النبـوى الشريف)

ابناؤنا الطلبة والطالبات :

وانتم على ابواب مرحلة جديدة من مراحل التعليم فانه تيسيرا على الطلاب ، تم اعداد هذا الدليل المبسط ... شاملا ما يلزم الطالب من معلومات كافية ... دون الدخول فى تفصيلات تتعلق باعمال المكتب ذاته .

ويرجو المكتب مراعاة الدقة فى اختيار الرغبات بدراسة هذه الارشادات والبيانات الموضحة على بطاقة الاختيار.

مع تمنيات مكتب التنسيق لكم بالتوفيق ...

العلاقات العامة

بمكتب التنسيق

اغسطس سنة ١٩٧٨

فهـــرس

الفصل الأول : مكتب التنسيق الرئيسى وفروعه ٩

١ ــ مقر المكتب الرئيسى وفروعه ٩

٢ ــ مواعيد عمل المكتب أثناء فترات تسليم أوراق الطلاب . ٩

٣ ــ نظام العمل اليومى فى المكتب الرئيسى وفروعه . . ١٠

٤ ــ طريقة تقديم أوراق الطلاب للمكتب ١٠

٥ ــ لجـان تسلم أوراق الالتحـاق ١١

٦ ــ بيان الفئات المستثناة التى تقبل خلال مراحل تسليم الأوراق ١١

الفصل الثانى : قـواعد القبول الجغرافى ١٣

الفصل الثالث : قواعد القبول للطلاب الحاصلين على شهادة الثانوية العامة ١٥

أولا : بكليات الجامعات ١٥

ثانيا : بالمعـاهد الفنية ١٧

ثالثا : بالمعـاهد الفنية الصحية ١٨

رابعا : بالمعاهد الخاصة العالية ١٨

خامسا : بالمعاهد الخاصة المتوسطة ١٩

الفصل الرابع : ارشادات للطلاب المستجدين تتضمن قواعد هامة . ٢٠

أولا : كيفية ملء بطاقة الاختيار ٢٠

ثانيا : الانتسـاب ٢١

ثالثا : كيفية التعرف على الكلية (أو المعهـد) التى رشح الطـالب للقبـول بهـا ٢٢

رابعا : الفئـات المستثناة ٢٣

الفصل الخامس : الفئات المستثناة ٢٨
اولا : الفئات المستثناة التى تقبل عن طريق مكتب تنسيق القبول
بالجامعات والمعاهد ٢٨
ثانيا : الشهادات المطلوبة من الفئات المستثناه والجهات التى
تعتمد منها ٣٣
الفصل السادس : الكليات والمعاهد التى يلتحق بها الطلاب عن غير طريق
مكتب التنسيق ٣٧
بيان بالكليات والمعاهد التى يرشح الطالب للقبول بها . . ٣٩
اولا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب شعبة العلوم فقط . ٣٩
ثانيا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب شعبة الرياضيات فقط . ٤٣
ثالثا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم العلمى بشعبتيه
العلوم والرياضيات ٤٦
رابعا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسمين الادبى والعلمى
بشعبتيه (العلوم والرياضيات) ٤٩
خامسا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم الادبى فقط . ٥٣

الفصـــل الأول
مكتب التنسيق الرئيسى وفروعه

١ ـ مقر المكتب الرئيسى وفروعه :

المكتب الرئيسى : ومقره المدينة الجامعية للطلاب بجامعة القـاهرة بالجيزة
فرع الاسكندرية : مبنى كلية الآداب بالشاطبى بالاسكندرية
فرع اســـيوط : مبنى جامعة اسيوط
فرع طنطـــا : مبنى كلية التربية بطنطا
فرع المنصـورة : مبنى كلية الصيدلة بمنطقة شجرة الدر بالمنصورة
فرع الزقـازيق : مبنى كلية الزراعة بالزقازيق

ويقبل المكتب وفروعه الخمسة أوراق الطلاب العاديين فى الفترات والمدد التى يعلن عنها ، ويمكن لأى طالب أن يستلم الاوراق ويقدمها للمكتب الرئيسى او اى فرع من فروعه بصرف النظر عن التوزيع الجغرافى .

اما أوراق طلاب الفئات المستثناة فتقبل بالمكتب الرئيسى فقط فيما عدا :

(ا) استثناءات القوات المسلحة فتقـدم عن طريق مكتب تنسيق القوات المسلحة ومقره هيئـة التنظيم والادارة ـ فرع الشئون الشخصية والخدمة الاجتماعية ـ بمنشية البكرى شارع الخليفة المامون .

(ب) استثناءات ابناء محافظات الجامعات الاقليمية خارج القاهرة والاسكندرية فى كليات التربية فتقدم راسا لتلك الكليات .

(جـ) استثناءات أبناء العاملين بوزارة الصحة للقبول بالمعاهد التابعة لهـا تقدم راسا لتلك المعـاهد .

٢ ـ مواعيد عمل المكتب اثناء فترات تسليم أوراق الطلاب :

عقب اعلان نتيجة امتحان الثانوية العامة يعلن المكتب عن موعد بدء فترة صرف أوراق الالتحاق وتسلمها من الطلاب ومدتها بالنسبة لكل مرحلة من مراحل القبول الاربعة ، وسوف يعلن المكتب عن تلك المواعيد فى حينها .

٣ ـ نظام العمل اليومى فى المكتب الرئيسى وفروعه : ـ

(أ) صرف الأوراق :

سيقوم المكتب وفروعه بصرف مظروف به الاوراق ليتولى الطالب ملئها ومعه دليل القبول وطلب الالتحاق وذلك يوميا من الساعة التاسعة صباحا حتى السادسة مساء ابتداء من التاريخ الذى يعلن عنه لبدء صرف الأوراق وطوال المدة المحددة لاستلام الاوراق بما فى ذلك أيام الجمع والعطلات الرسمية ، وعلى الطالب أن يحضر معه عند طلب صرف الاوراق الاستمارة البيضاء الدالة على النجاح للصرف بموجبها مع مراعاة ان هناك مظاريف خاصة للقبول العادى وأخرى لكل فئة من الفئات المستثناة على حدة وذلك فى حدود مجموع كل مرحلة يعلن عنها المكتب .

(ب) استلام أوراق الالتحاق من الطلاب :

يوميا من الساعة الثالثة حتى السادسة مساء خلال المدة التى يحددها المكتب لاستلام الاوراق بما فى ذلك أيام الجمع والعطلات الرسمية وخلال شهر رمضان المبارك فستكون من الساعة الواحدة حتى الرابعة مساء .

٤ ـ طريقة تقديم أوراق الطلاب للمكتب :

لا تقبل أوراق بالبريد بل تقدم مستوفاة بواسطة الطالب أو احد اقاربه وذلك مقابل ايصال بالاستلام علما بأن الأوراق المطلوبة من كل طالب يتقدم لمكتب التنسيق هى : ـ

١ ـ طلب التحاق « استمارة ٥٥٥ تنسيق » .
٢ ـ الاستمارة البيضاء الدالة على النجاح فى الثانوية العامة .
٣ ـ شهادة الميلاد أو مستخرج رسمى منها .
٤ ـ ٦ صور . ٥ ـ بطاقة الاختيار . ٦ ـ بطاقة الترشيح .
٧ ـ شهادة بالموافقة على الانتظام أو الانتساب اذا كان الطالب موظفا وتعتمد من رئيس المصلحة أو من رئيس مجلس الادارة بالنسبة للقطاع العام وهيئة التدريب بالنسبة لأفراد القوات المسلحة وصيغتها .

نوافق على التحاق السيد /
كطالب منتظم باحدى الكليات أو المعاهد
نوافق على انتساب السيد /
لاحدى كليات الجامعات

صيغة غير مقبولة :

نوافق على التحاق السيد / كطالب منتظم باحدى الكليات أو المعاهد فى غير مواعيد العمل الرسمية (أو بشرط الا يتعارض مع عمله) .

٨ ـ الشهادة الدالة على الاستثناء بالنسبة للفئات المستثناة على النموذج الذى يقوم مكتب التنسيق بتوزيعه مجانا .
٩ ـ موافقة كتابية من مدير المدرسة الثانوية الجوية للطلاب الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة من هذه المدرسة .

٥ ـ لجان تسلم أوراق الالتحاق :

يخصص المكتب فى مقره الرئيسى وفروعه لجان (نوافذ) لتسلم الاوراق موزعة وفقا لمجموع درجات الطلاب مضافا اليها درجات النجاح فى المستوى الخاص ان وجد وعلى كل طالب ان يلتزم بالتقدم عن طريق اللجنة المخصصة دون غيرها .

ملاحظات هامة :

(أ) سوف تكون لجان استلام الأوراق مقسمة الى لجان للطلاب الذكور واخرى للطالبات وهذا التقسيم مقصود به « نوع » المتقدم بالأوراق للمكتب بمعنى انه اذا اراد والد او اخ ان يقدم أوراق ابنته او اخته مثلا فانه يتقدم بها الى لجان الطلاب ولا يقدمها فى لجان الطالبات ، واذا ارادت والدة او اخت التقدم بأوراق ابنها او اخيها مثلا فانها تتقدم بها الى لجان الطالبات ولا تتقدم بها الى لجان الطلاب الذكور .

(ب) لا يقبل المكتب اوراق اى طالب فى المرحلة الثانية من الذين سبق ترشيحهم فى المرحلة الاولى ، كما لا تقبل اوراق اى طالب فى المرحلة الثالثة من الذين سبق ترشيحهم فى المرحلتين الأولى والثانية ، كما لا تقبل أوراق اى طالب فى المرحلة الرابعة من الطلاب الذين سبق ترشيحهم فى المراحل الثلاثة الأولى والثانية والثالثة .

(جـ) تقوم الكليات ـ وليس مكتب التنسيق ـ بالتوزيع الداخلى على مختلف الاقسام بها وفقا لأنظمتها وذلك فيما عدا كلية البنات بجامعة عين شمس فيعتبر كل من القسم العام والقسم التربوى رغبة مستقلة بالنسبة لطالبات القسم العلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) وقسم الاقتصاد المنزلى رغبة مستقلة بالنسبة لطالبات القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم) ، وكل من القسم العام والقسم التربوى رغبة مستقلة بالنسبة لطالبات القسم الادبى . ويتم الترشيح لهذه الاقسام على هذا الاساس . وكذلك كل من الشعبة العامة وشعبة الزراعة والتربية بكلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر رغبة مستقلة بالنسبة لطلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم) . وكذلك شعبة العلوم السياسية بكلية التجارة جامعة أسيوط وشعبة البريد بكلية التجاره وادارة الاعمال بالزمالك رغبة مستقلة لطلاب الشعب الثلاث وكذلك شعبة التمريض للطالبات بالمعهد الفنى الصحى بالاسكندرية والمعهد الفنى الصحى بالقاهرة .

٦ ـ فئات تقبل اوراقها ابتداء من المرحلة الأولى فى حدود المجموع المخصص لتلك المرحلة ثم تقبل اوراقها فى المرحلة الثانية والثالثة والرابعة على حسب مجموع كل مرحلة على حدة وهى :

١ ـ الطلاب الحاصلون على شهادات معادلة للثانوية العامة .
٢ ـ الطلاب العاملون (الموظفون) .
٣ ـ ابناء واخوة وزوجات الشهداء المدنيين من غير العسكريين .
٤ ـ ابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات .

٥ ــ ابناء العاملين بالجامعات .

٦ ــ ابناء المناطق النائية : (ابنــاء مطروح ــ سيناء ــ الوادى الجــديد ــ الواحات البحرية ــ البحر الاحمر ــ وادى النطرون) .

٧ ــ استثناءات القوات المسلحة .

٨ ــ ابناء العاملين بوزارة التعليم العالى .

٧ ــ فئات تقبــل اوراقهــا ابتــداء من المرحلة الثانيــة فى حــدود المجمــوع المخصص لتلك المرحلة ثم تقبل اوراقها فى المرحلتين الثالثة والرابعة حسب مجموع كل مرحلة على حدة وهى :

١ ــ ابناء رجــال التعليم .

٢ ــ الطلاب المتفوقون رياضيا .

٣ ــ ابناء المهجرين من محافظات سيناء وبورسعيد والاسماعيلية والسويس ــ البحر الاحمر) .

ملحــوظة :

(أ) طلاب الفئات المستثناة من القوات المسلحة تقبــل اوراقهم بمكتب تنسيق القوات المسلحة فى حدود المجموع المخصص لكل مرحلة .

(ب) الطلاب من حملة الشهادات غير الثانوية العامة (الشهادات الفنية ــ المتفوقون من المعاهد الفنية) ، سوف يعلن المكتب عن مواعيد خاصة لتسلم اوراقهم .

(جـ) الطلاب المصريون الذين يحصلون على شهادات معادلة للثانوية العــامة المصرية من احــدى الدول عليهم اعتماد الشهادات الدراسية من وزارة التربية بهذه الدول والتصديق عليها من القنصلية أو السفارة المصرية قبل تقديمها لمكتب تنسيق القبول الرئيسى بالقاهرة حيث يوجد مظروف خاص لطلاب الشهادات المعادلة وذلك بالنسبة لطلاب القبول العادى اما طلاب الفئات المستثناة فعليهم سحب المظروف الخاص بفئتهم .

(د) على طلاب الشهادات المعادلة القسم العلمى من الفئات المستثناه أن يختار الطالب احدى شعبتى القسم العلمى (العلوم أو الرياضيات) عند التقدم باوراقه .

(هـ) على الطلاب عدم لصق طوابع باسماء كليات أو معاهد شغلت اماكنها بالكامل واعلن الحد الادنى للقبول فيها فى المراحل السابقة لمرحلته . وكذلك لكليات أو معاهد لا تنطبق قواعد قبولها عليه .

(و) عدم اختصاص المكتب فى نقل الطــلاب من الكلية (أو المعهــد) التى يرشحون للقبول بها الى كلية او معهد آخر قبلت مجموعة ولم تكن واردة فى بطاقة الاختيار اصلا أو كانت واردة بعد الكلية التى رشح لها فان مهمة المكتب بالنسبة لتوزيع الطلاب تعتبر منتهية بعــد كل مرحلة مادام التوزيع تم صحيحا .

الفصل الثانى
قواعد القبول الجغرافى

اولا : القبول بجامعتى القاهرة وعين شمس :

١ ـ الطلاب الناجحون فى الثانوية العامة من مدارس المناطق التعليمية الموضحة بعد او من الذين تقدموا للامتحان امام لجانها من المنازل يكون قبولهم مقصورا على كليات جامعة القاهرة (القائمة فى القاهرة الكبرى) دون غيرها من الكليات المناظرة بجامعة عين شمس فى حدود التنسيق العام .

ـ منطقة الجيزة
ـ منطقة جنوب القاهرة
ـ منطقة غرب القاهرة
ـ منطقة حلوان

٢ ـ الطلاب الناجحون فى الثانوية العامة من مدارس المناطق التعليمية الموضحة بعد او من الذين تقدموا للامتحان امام لجانها من المنازل يكون قبولهم مقصورا على كليات جامعة عين شمس دون غيرها من الكليات المناظرة بجامعة القاهرة فى حدود التنسيق العام .

ـ منطقة القليوبية
ـ منطقة شرق القاهرة
ـ منطقة مصر الجديدة
ـ منطقة وسط القاهرة
ـ منطقة شمال القاهرة

ملحوظة : على الطلاب الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة من مدارس محافظة القليوبية او الذين تقدموا امام لجانها من المنازل ان يبدوا رغباتهم فى الالتحاق باحدى الكليات الموجودة فى محافظتهم اولا ثم فى كليات جامعة عين شمس ثم الكليات الأخرى بباقى المحافظات .

٣ ـ بالنسبة للكليات الموجودة فى احدى الجامعتين ولا نظير لها فى الجامعة الاخرى يكون القبول فيها مباحا لطلاب جميع مناطق القاهرة الكبرى (القاهرة ـ الجيزة ـ القليوبية) .

٤ ـ اذا كان مجموع الطالب الناجح من المدارس او اللجان المحددة لاحدى الجامعتين لا يؤهله لكلية تابعة لتلك الجامعة بينما يؤهله للكليات المناظرة فى الجامعة الاخرى فيمكن قبوله فى الكلية الأخيرة ضمن التنسيق العام اذا كانت من بين رغباته فى بطاقة الاختيار وطبقا لترتيب الرغبات .

٥ ـ يكون من حق الطلاب الناجحين من مدارس مناطق القاهرة الكبرى او لجانها التقدم للالتحاق بالكليات الجامعية الاخرى خارج القاهرة والجيزة او بكليات جامعة حلوان ويكون قبولهم بها ضمن التنسيق العام .

٦ ـ بالنسبة للطلاب الناجحين فى الثانوية العامة من مدارس المتفوقين والمكفوفين واللغات والثانوية الجوية والباليه والثانوية الرياضية والثانوية العسكرية بالهرم يكون قبولهم بالجامعتين وفقا لسكنهم بالقاهرة كما هو وارد بالاستمارة البيضاء لشهادة الثانوية العامة .

ثانيا : القبول بكليات جامعتى اسيوط والمنيا :

الطلاب الحاصلون على الثانوية العامة من محافظة المنيا والمحافظات الواقعة جنوبها أو من الذين تقدموا للامتحان أمام لجان هذه المحافظات من المنازل يكون قبولهم فى الكليات التى لها نظير بجامعتى اسيوط والمنيا دون غيرها من الجامعات الا اذا كان مجموع الطالب لا يؤهله لاحدى هذه الكليات بينما يؤهله لكلية مناظرة فى جامعة اخرى فيمكن قبوله فى الكلية الاخيرة ضمن التنسيق العام اذا كانت من بين رغباته فى بطاقة الاختيار وطبقا لترتيب الرغبات .

ويكون من حق هؤلاء الطلاب التقدم للالتحاق بكليات الجامعات الاخرى التى ليس لها نظير بجامعتى اسيوط والمنيا وذلك طبقا للقواعد العامة .

ثالثا : بالنسبة للطلاب الناجحين فى الثانوية العامة من المحافظات الاخرى غير الواردة اعلاه : فان الحاصلين منهم على الشهادة من مدارس المحافظة الكائنة بها احدى الكليات الجامعية أو من الذين تقدموا للامتحان أمام لجانها من المنازل ، يكون قبولهم مقصورا على تلك الكلية دون غيرها من الكليات المناظرة فى حدود التنسيق العام الا اذا كان مجموع الطالب لا يؤهله للكلية الكائنة فى محافظته بينما يؤهله لكلية مناظرة فى محافظة أخرى ويمكن قبوله فى الكلية الاخيرة ضمن التنسيق العام اذا كانت من بين رغباته فى بطاقة الاختيار وطبقا لترتيب الرغبات .

رابعا : بالنسبة للطلاب الناجحين فى الثانوية العامة من المحافظات التى ليس بها كليات جامعية أو بها كليات جامعية لا تتفق ورغباتهم لهم الحق فى ابداء الرغبة لاى كلية من كليات الجامعات فى مختلف انحاء الجمهورية .

الفصل الثالث

قواعد القبول للحاصلين على شهادة الثانوية العامة

اولا ـ بكليات الجامعات :

يكون القبول بكليات جامعات القاهرة والاسكندرية وعين شمس وأسيوط وطنطا والمنصورة والزقازيق وحلوان والمنيا والمنوفية وقناة السويس والأزهر بالشروط الآتية :

١ ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة (القسم الادبى) .
فى الأقسام الأدبية بكليات التربية والبنات بالأزهر (الأقسام الأدبية) .

٢ ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم) .
فى كليات الطب ، طب الأسنان ، الصيدلة ، الزراعة والعلوم الزراعية ، الطب البيطرى ، العلوم والبنات (مجموعة العلوم البيولوجية ومجموعة العلوم الكيميائية) ، معهدى التمريض ، المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى ، علوم القطن ، الاقتصاد المنزلى ، البنات (اقتصاد منزلى) ، التربية (شعبة التاريخ الطبيعى ـ شعبة الطبيعة والكيمياء) .

٣ ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة (شعبة الرياضيات) .
فى كليات الهندسة ، الهندسة والتكنولوجيا ، التكنولوجيا ، الهندسة الالكترونية ، التعدين والبترول ، العلوم والبنات (مجموعة العلوم الطبيعية ومجموعة الكيمياء) ، التربية (شعبة الرياضيات ـ شعبة الطبيعة والكيمياء) معهد التخطيط العمرانى .

٤ ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة القسم العلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) .

فى كليات الفنون الجميلة (قسم العمارة) ، كلية الفنون التطبيقية .

٥ ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة بقسميها الأدبى والعلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) .

فى كليات الآداب ، الحقوق ، التجارة ، التجارة (شعبة العلوم السياسية) ، الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية ، العلوم التجارية والادارية ، التجارة وادارة الأعمال ، التجارة وادارة الأعمال (شعبة البريد) ، الفنون الجميلة (شعبة الفنون) ـ التربية الموسيقية ، التربية الرياضية ، الخدمة الاجتماعية ، الآثار ، الاعلام ، الالسن ، دار العلوم ، اللغات والترجمة .

٦ ـ شروط اضافية :

(أ) بالنسبة لكليات الحقوق :

١ ـ يشترط ان يكون الطالب قد درس اللغة الفرنسية فى شهادة الثانوية العامة .

٢ ـ ويجوز قبول الطلاب الذين لم يدرسوا اللغة الفرنسية فى شهادة الثانوية العامة فى كليات الحقوق التى يؤهلهم مجموع الدرجات التى حصلوا عليها بشرط الا يقل هذا المجموع عن ٦٥٪ ، ويشترط لقيد الطالب فى هذه الحالة ان يجتاز امتحانا فى اللغة الفرنسية فى مستوى الثانوية العامة يعقد خلال الشهر الاول بعد افتتاح الدراسة .

(ب) كلية الالسن :

الحصول على ٦٠٪ على الاقل من النهاية العظمى لكل لغة من اللغتين الاجنبيتين على حدة (ادبى او علمى بشعبتيه) .

(جـ) كلية اللغات والترجمة بالازهر :

الحصول على ٦٠٪ على الاقل فى اللغة الاجنبية الاولى ، ٥٠٪ فى اللغة الاجنبية الثانية (ادبى او علمى بشعبتيه) .

(د) كلية التربية الفنية :

يشترط النجاح فى اختبار القدرات فى مادة رسم الفنون الذى عقد ضمن امتحان الثانوية العامة .

(هـ) كلية التربية الموسيقية :

يشترط النجاح فى اختبارات القدرات الموسيقية التى تعقد فى هذا الشأن والتى يتولى مكتب تنسيق القبول الاعلان عنها ويحدد اختبار القدرات الموسيقية مستوى المتقدمين من حيث التحاقهم بالصف الاول مباشرة او التحاقهم بالدراسات التحضيرية التى تعدهم لمتابعة الدراسة بالصف الاول .

(و) كليتى الفنون الجميلة بالقاهرة والاسكندرية :

اولا ـ قسم العمارة :

يشترط النجاح فى اختبار القدرات فى مادة رسم العمارة الذى عقد ضمن امتحان الثانوية العامة (علمى بشعبتيه الطوم والرياضيات) .

ثانيا ـ اقسام الفنون :

يشترط النجاح فى اختبار القدرات فى مادة رسم الفنون الذى عقد ضمن امتحان الثانوية العامة (ادبى وعلمى بشعبتيه) .

(ز) كليات التربية الرياضية :

اجتياز اختبار القدرات الذى يجرى بكليات التربية الرياضية والذى يتولى مكتب تنسيق القبول الاعلان عنه .

ويضاف ٨ درجات للمجموع الكلى لخريجى المدرسة الثانوية الرياضية فى حالة الالتحاق بكليات التربية الرياضية .

(ح) كليات التربية ، البنات بجامعة عين شمس (القسم التربوى) معهدى التمريض ، المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى ، الخدمة الاجتماعية ، التربية الفنية :

تعقد هذه الكليات اختبارا شخصيا للمرشحين ، ومن يرسب فيه يعيد مكتب التنسيق ترشيحه لكلية اخرى (أو معهد) طبقا لرغبته التالية فى البطاقة ومجموعه .

(ط) كلية السياحة والفنادق :

الحصول على ٥٥٪ على الاقل من المجموع الكلى لدرجات الثانوية العامة ، وأن يكون الطالب حاصلا على ٧٠٪ على الاقل فى اللغة الأجنبية الاولى ومع اجتياز الاختبار الشخصى الذى تعقده الكلية للتأكد من صلاحية الطالب للعمل فى حقل الفنادق (بالنسبة لشعبة الفنادق) او فى الحقل السياحى (بالنسبة لشعبة السياحة) أو فى حقل الارشاد السياحى (بالنسبة لشعبة الارشاد السياحى) . ولا تدخل هذه الكلية ضمن عملية تنسيق القبول ، بل يعلن عن القبول فيها عن طريق الكلية نفسها (خارج مكتب التنسيق) .

(ى) كليات جامعة الأزهر :

بالنسبة للطلاب المقبولين بها من الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة (أدبى أو علمى بشعبتيه) بنين وبنات يشترط ان يقضوا سنة تأهيلية تعدها الجامعة خلال العام الجامعى ٧٩/٧٨ يتلقون فيها دراسات اسلامية وعربية ولا يسمح للطالب بالقيد فى الكلية المرشح لها الا بعد نجاحه فى الامتحان الذى تجريه الجامعة فى نهاية السنة التأهيلية ويمنح الراسبون فى هذا الامتحان فرصة اخرى خلال السنة التالية ٨٠/٧٩ ومن ينجح منهم يقيد فى الكلية المرشح لها . اما الراسب فيفصل .

ثانيا ـ بالمعاهد الفنية

١ ـ المعاهد الفنية التجارية : مدة الدراسة بها سنتان .

الحصول على الثانوية العامة (أدبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات).

شروط اضافية :

ـ شعبة استيراد وتصدير يشترط الحصول على مجموع ٥٠٪ على الأقل فى اللغة الأجنبية الأولى .

ـ شعبة تجهيز البيانات للحسابات الالكترونية يقتصر القبول فيها على الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة علمى بشعبتيه فقط بحد أدنى ٥٠٪ فى اللغة الأجنبية الأولى .

٢ ـ المعاهد الفنية الصناعية : مدة الدراسة بها سنتان .

(أ) الحصول على الثانوية العامة علمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)للالتحاق بالمعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا والمعهد الفنى لغزل ونسج الصوف بامبابة . على أن يكون قبول طلاب شعبة الرياضيات بالمعهدين لجميع

الشعب ماعدا شعبتى معامل بيولوجية بالمعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا وصباغة وتجهيز بالمعهد الفنى لغزل ونسج الصوف بامبابه فيقتصر القبول بهما على شعبة العلوم فقط .

* بالنسبة للمعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا يشترط ان تكون اللغة الانجليزية هى اللغة الأولى للطالب .

(ب) الحصول على الثانوية العامة القسم العلمى (شعبة الرياضيات) للالتحاق بالمعاهد التالية :

فنى صناعى المطرية ، فنى صناعى شارع الصحافة ، فنى معمارى المطرية ، فنى للسيارات بوادى حوف ، فنى للتليفونات بالقاهرة ، فنى للرى والصرف والمساحة واستصلاح الأراضى بالجيزة ، فنى صناعى كامب شيزار ، فنى صناعى الزقازيق ، فنى صناعى اسوان ، فنى صناعى شبين الكوم ، فنى للبصريات بالمنيرة ، فنى للالكترونيات ببنها ، فنى للتليفزيون بدار السلام ، فنى صناعى ببورسعيد .

ثالثا ـ بالمعاهد الفنية الصحية

مدة الدراسة بها سنتان

ـ الحصول على الثانوية العامة علمى (شعبة العلوم) ، وعلمى بشعبتيه بمعهدى امبابه والاسكندرية .

ـ ان تكون اللغة الأجنبية الأولى للطالب هى اللغة الانجليزية .

ـ ان يكون الطالب متفرغا للدراسة .

ـ ان لا يقل سن الطالب عند الدراسة (أول اكتوبر) عن ١٦ سنة ولا يزيد عن ٢٢ سنة .

ـ ان يجتاز الطالب بنجاح الكشف الطبى والاختبار الشخصى الذى يعقده المعهد الذى يثبت استعداده للدراسة .

رابعا : بالمعاهد الخاصة العالية (التى مدة الدراسة فيها اربع سنوات أو أكثر) .

١ ـ المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بالقاهرة : (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة (ادبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)
(المصروفات ٢٠ جنيها)

٢ ـ المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بالاسكندرية : (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة (ادبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)
(المصروفات ٢٠ جنيها)

٣ ـ المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بكفر الشيخ : (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة (ادبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)
(المصروفات ٢٠ جنيها)

٤ ـ المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية باسوان : (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة (ادبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)

ملحوظة : تعقد معاهد الخدمة الاجتماعية الخاصة العالية اختبارا شخصيا للمرشحين . ومن يرسب فيه يعيد مكتب التنسيق ترشيحه لكلية اخرى (أو معهد) طبقا لرغبته التالية ومجموعه .

٥ ـ **المعهد العالي للدراسات التعاونية والادارية بالقاهرة :** (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العـامة (ادبى) او (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)
(المصروفات ٢٠ جنيها)

٦ ـ **المعهد العالى للتعاون الزراعى بالقاهرة :** (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة علمى (شعبة العلوم) (المصروفات ١٦ جنيها)

٧ ـ **المعهد العالى للتعاون والارشاد الزراعى باسيوط :** (طلبة وطالبات)
الثانوية العامة علمى (شعبة العلوم) (المصروفات ١٦ جنيها)

خامسا : بالمعاهد الخاصة المتوسطة (بمصروفات)
(مدة الدراسـة بهـا سنتان)

١ ـ **المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات بالقاهرة .**
٨ شارع الديوان بجاردن سيتى ـ المصروفات ١٥ جنيها .

٢ ـ **المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات بالاسكندرية .**
٥٥ طريق الحرية بالاسكندرية ـ المصروفات ١٥ جنيها .

٣ ـ **المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية باسوان .** (طلبة وطالبات)
المصروفات ١٥ جنيها .

٤ ـ **المعهد الفنى التجارى بالعباسية .** (طلبة وطالبات)
ميدان عبده باشا ـ المصروفات ٢٩ جنيها .

٥ ـ **معهد الادارة والسكرتارية للفتيات بجاردن سيتى .**
٨ شارع الديوان بجاردن سيتى ـ المصروفات ٢٥ جنيها .

٦ ـ **معهد السكرتارية بكلية البنات القبطية بالعباسية** (طالبات فقط)
ملحق بمبنى كلية البنات القبطية بشـارع السرايات بالعباسـية ـ المصروفات ٣٠ جنيها .

٧ ـ **معهد السكرتارية بكلية رمسيس للبنات .** (طالبات فقط)
١٩٨ شارع رمسيس (غمرة) ملحق بمبنى كلية البنـات الامريكية سابقا ـ المصروفات ٤٠ جنيها .

٨ ـ **معهد الادارة والسكرتارية بجـاردن سيتى فـرع مصر الجـديدة** (طلبة وطالبات)
ميدان الحجاز بمصر الجديدة ـ المصروفات ٢٥ جنيها .

وهذه المعاهد تقبل الثانوية العامة (ادبى) و (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) .

الفصـــل الرابـــع

ارشادات للطلاب المستجدين تتضمن قواعد هامـــة

اولا : كيفية ملء بطاقة الاختيار

١ ــ قبل ملء بطاقة الاختيار :

(ا) اقرأ جيدا هذا الدليل ، وكذلك الارشادات الواردة في ظهر بطاقة الاختيار وبطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بهـا الطالب .

(ب) ادرس مـع أسرتك ترتيب الاختيارات حتى تـكون الرغبات التى ستبديها فى بطاقة الاختيار ممثلة تماما لرغباتك وقدراتك .

٢ ــ طوابع اسماء الكليات والمعاهد :

يوجد مع هذا الدليل طوابع باسماء الكليات والمعاهد التى يرشح مكتب التنسيق للقبول بها وارقام الكود المعمـول بها فى الحاسب الالكترونى ــ الخاصة بكل منها ــ كمـا توجـد بطاقة الاختيار بحيث يستطيع الطالب لصق اثنين وثلاثين طابعا بالترتيب الذى يراه فى الاماكن المخصصة لذلك ولا يجوز للطالب زيادة رغباته عـن اثنتين وثلاثين رغبة بأى حـال من الاحوال وعلى الطالب التوقيع على الطابع الذى يرغب فى لصقه فى المكان المخصص لذلك كمـا يراعى ترتيب الرغبات كما هو مبين بالبطاقة .

المكتب غير مختص بالنظر فى تعديل الرغبات بعد اعلان نتائج القبول مهما كان مجموع الطالب

ملاحظات هامة :

(ا) لن يصرف للطالب سوى مجموعة واحدة من الطوابع داخـل هـذا الدليل الذى سيصرف مع الاوراق فعلى الطالب مراعاة عدم لصق الطابع الا بعد الاتفاق مع اسرته على ترتيب رغباته . كما يراعى عدم لصق اى طابع لسنوات سابقة .

(ب) كتابة اية بيانات غير صحيحة فى بطاقة الاختيار او فى الاوراق المقدمة معها سيترتب عليها ايقاف قبـول الطالب واتخـاذ الاجراءات القانونية .

(جـ) فى بيان الدرجات ببطاقة الاختيار اكتب اسم اللغة الاجنبية على السطر المخصص لذلك والذى يبدا بكلمة : لغة .

٣ ـ كيفية ملء جدول اختبارات القدرات الوارد اسفل جدول الدرجات فى بطاقة الاختيار .

عند ملء جدول اختبارات القدرات (رسم الفنون لكليات الفنون الجميلة والتربية الفنية ـ رسم العمارة) يراعى الآتى :

اذا كان لائقا يضع علامة (/) فى المربع الذى ينطبق على حالته فمثلا اذا كان لائقا فى اختبار رسم العمارة فيضع علامة (/) فى المربع الاول رقم (١) ثم يضع الرقم (١) فى المربع الخالى على اليمين .. هكذا .

٤ ـ اهمية رغبات الطالب واسبقيتها بالنسبة له :

املأ جميع خانات الاختيار لتكون امامك كل الفرص ؛ وعند البت فى القبول سيراعى ترتيب هذه الاختيارات فلن ينظر المكتب الى الاختيار الثانى الا اذا كانت درجات الطالب لا تؤهله للاختيار الأول ، ولن ينظر الى الاختيار الثالث الا اذا كانت درجات الطالب لا تؤهله للاختيارين الأول والثانى وهكذا .

٥ ـ المصادر التى يعرف منها الطالب الكليات والمعاهد التى يمكنه اختيارها :

(ا) بالنسبة للمرحلة الاولى :

جميع الكليات والمعاهد المبينة فى الجداول الواردة فى آخر هذا الدليل .

(ب) بالنسبة للمراحل الباقية :

البيان الذى سيعلنه المكتب قبل موعد بدء كل مرحلة عن الكليات والمعاهد التى ما زال بها اماكن خالية يمكن قبول طلاب بها لانه لا يجوز أن يبدى الطالب الرغبة فى كلية او معهد انتهى القبول فيها فى المرحلة السابقة (اى اعلن الحد الادنى للقبول بها) .

ثانيا : الانتساب

(ا) الكليات التى يجوز الانتساب اليها :

الانتساب مقصور على كليات التجارة والحقوق والآداب بالجامعات بالنسبة للقسم الادبى والعلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) والانتساب بكليات الآداب مقصور على بعض الاقسام بكل من تلك الكليات ، وفقا لما يقرره مجلس الكلية فى كل منها كل عام .

لا يوجد انتساب بجميع كليات جامعة الازهر
كما لايوجد انتساب بالمعاهد بجميع انواعها

(ب) كيفية ابداء الرغبة فى الانتساب فى بطاقة الاختيار :

اذا كانت احدى رغبات الطالب الانتساب بكليات التجارة او الحقوق او الآداب بأحدى الجامعات فيراعى استعمال الطوابع الخاصة بهذه الكليات المتضمنة كلمة (انتساب) .

وفى حالة رغبة الطالب فى الانتظام او الانتساب لكلية من هذه الكليات فيستعمل الطابع الاساسى للكلية للانتظام ويلصق المتضمن كلمة انتساب بالنسبة للرغبة الخاصة بالانتساب .

ثالثا : كيفية التعرف على الكلية (او المعهد) التى رشح الطالب للقبول بها :

يجد الطالب بين الاوراق التى سيصرفها له المكتب بطاقة مكتوب عليها (بطاقة رغبات يحتفظ بها الطالب) وعلى الطالب ان يحتفظ بهذه البطاقة متضمنة جميع البيانات الموجودة ببطاقة الاختيار التى يقدمها للمكتب حتى يسهل عليه معرفة الكلية (او المعهد) التى رشح للقبول بها فى ضوء الارشادات التالية :

عند اعلان نتيجة القبول فى نهاية كل مرحلة ، يرسل المكتب بطاقة بالبريد العادى لكل طالب بالكلية (او المعهد) التى رشح للقبول بها ، وبالاضافة الى ذلك يستطيع الطالب التعرف على الكلية (او المعهد) التى رشح لها باتباع الآتى :

(ا) ان يطابق مجموع درجاته والرغبات التى ابداها طبقا لترتيبها فى بطاقة الرغبات التى يحتفظ بها ، على بيان الحد الادنى للقبول الذى يذيعه المكتب مع مراعاة شروط القبول بكل كلية او معهد، وكذلك قواعد القبول الجغرافى والاقليمى .

(ب) اذا كان مجموع الطالب يؤهله طبقا لترتيب الرغبات والشروط لاحدى الكليات (او احد المعاهد) التى لم يعلن المكتب عن الحد الادنى لها ، فمعنى ذلك ان هذه الكلية (او المعهد) ما زالت بها اماكن خالية للمرحلة التالية ، وبالتالى يكون هذا الطالب قد رشح لها فعلا اذا كان مستوفيا لشروطها .

(جـ) يلاحظ لتحديد موقف الطالب من الكلية التى قبل بها طبقا لترتيب رغباته انه يستبعد من بين رغبات الطالب فى بطاقة الاختيار الكليات الجامعية التى لا يجوز له الالتحاق بها طبقا لقواعد القبول الجغرافى .

وهكذا يتمكن الطالب من التعرف على الكلية التى رشح لها ، والتى سوف تبلغ له ببطاقة الترشيح عن طريق البريد ، وعليه بعد ذلك أن يتوجه لتلك الكلية لاستكمال اجراءات القيد .

رابعا : الفئات المستثناة

قواعـد عامـة :

١ ـ يكون كل طالب من طلاب الفئات المستثناة مستوفيا اصلا الشروط المؤهلة للالتحاق بالكلية ، اذ ان الاستثناء مقصور على مجموع الدرجات فقط .

٢ ـ يقبل طلاب الفئات المستثناة فى الأماكن المخصصة لكل فئة على حده وفقا لترتيب المجموع الكلى للدرجات فيما بينهم .

٣ ـ الاستثناء مقصور على الابناء فقط (الذكور والاناث) دون غيرهم مهما كانت درجة القرابة الا اذا نص على غير ذلك .

٤ ـ طلاب الفئات المستثناة الذين يتقدمون بأوراقهم بعد المواعيد وبعد توزيع طلاب كل فئة يكون قبولهم فى حـدود الاماكن الخالية المتبقية لفئتهم مهما كان مجموع درجاتهم .

٥ ـ طلاب الفئات المستثناه الذين يرشحون لكليات أو معاهد تتطلب اختبارا شخصيا ، من يرسب منهم فى هذه الأختبارات يقوم المكتب باعادة ترشيحه فى حدود الاماكن الخالية المتبقية لفئتهم مهما كان مجموع درجاتهم .

٦ ـ اماكن الفئات المستثناة التى تخلو عن طريق القومسيون الطبى العام او بالتحويل ضمن نسبة ١٠٪ المقررة عن طريق المجلس الأعلى للجامعات لا تعتبر خالية بالكلية المحول منها . اما التى تخلو بالتحويل المادى أو بسحب الأوراق لا تشغل الا عن طريق مكتب التنسيق .

١ ـ ابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات (للالتحاق بالجامعات) :

تقضى قواعد قبول ابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس بكليات الجامعات طبقا للائحة الجامعات وقرارات المجلس الأعلى للجامعات بما يأتى :

(ا) المقصود بعضو هيئة التدريس هو من يشغل حاليا وظيفة من وظائف هيئة التدريس المنصوص عليها فى قانون الجامعات وهى (استاذ واستاذ مساعد ومدرس) اوسبق ان قضى فى وظائف هيئة التدريس المذكورة مدة لا تقل عن عشر سنوات (بالنسبة للاعضاء السابقين) بالجامعات عدا جامعة الأزهر .

(ب) وبنـاء على ذلك لا ينتفع بهذا الاستثناء المعيـدون والمنتـدبون للتدريس ومدرسو اللغات وغيرهم .

٢ ـ ابناء العاملين بالجامعات (للالتحاق بالجامعات) :

تقضى قواعد قبول ابنـاء العاملين من غير اعضـاء هيئة التـدريس الحـاليين أو السـابقين فى الجـامعات أو امانة المجلس الاعـلى للجـامعات طبقا للائحة الجامعات بأن المقصود بالعامل بالجامعات او امانة المجلس الأعلى للجامعات الذى ينطبق عليـه الاستثناء هـو من قضى مدة لا تقل عن عشر سنوات فى هـذه الجهات سواء كان من الحاليين أو السابقين .

٣ ـ ابناء العاملين الحاليين والسابقين بوزارة التعليم العالى وابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس السابقين بالمعـاهد العالية وابنـاء العاملين المعينين بالمعاهد الخاصة ومدرسيها الأصليين :

تقضى قواعد قبول ابناء العاملين بوزارة التعليم العالى واعضاء هيئة التدريس السابقين بالمعاهد العالية بما يأتى :

(ا) المقصود بالعامل بوزارة التعليم العالى او عضو هيئة التدريس السابق الذى ينطبق عليه الاستثناء هو من قضى عشر سنوات على الأقل فى خدمة وزارة التعليم العالى او فى خدمتها وخدمة وزارة التربية والتعليم قبل انشاء وزارة التعليم العالى او الهيئات التى يشرف عليها وزير التعليم العالى .

(ب) الهيئات التى يشرف عليها وزير التعليم العالى فى هذا الشأن هى جامعات القاهرة والاسكندرية وعين شمس واسيوط وطنطا والمنصورة والزقازيق وحلوان والمنيا والمنوفية وقناة السويس والمجلس الأعلى للجامعات (والهيئة العامة للكتب والاجهـزة العلمية سابقا) .

(جـ) ينتفع بهذا الاستثناء ايضا ابناء المدرسين خارج هيئة التدريس وابناء المدرسين الاصليين بالمعاهد الفنية .

(د) يدخـل ضمن هـذا الاستثناء ايضا ابناء العاملين المعينـين والقائمين بالتدريس بصفة اصلية بالمعاهد الخاصة التى تشرف عليها وزارة التعليم العـالى وبنفس الشروط الموضحة .

٤ ـ ابناء رجال التعليم (للالتحاق بالمعاهد) :

تقضى قواعد قبول ابناء رجال التعليم بالمعاهد بما يأتى :

(ا) المقصود برجال التعليم :

١ ـ بوزارة التربية والتعليم : الذين عملوا بالتدريس بمدارسها ويكونوا اعضاء بنقابة المهن التعليمية .

ويقدم مع النموذج المخصص لهذه الفئة (استمارة ٢٠٠ تنسيق) شهادة اخرى من نقابة المهن التعليمية بعضوية رجل التعليم بها متضمنة رقم هذه العضوية .

٢ ـ بالمعاهد الدينية وجامعة الازهر : الذين عملوا بالتدريس فى تلك الجهات .

(ب) وفى جميع الحالات يشترط الا تقل مدة الخدمة عن عشر سنوات.

٥ ـ افراد القوات المسلحة وابنائهم :

الاستثناء مقصور على افراد القوات المسلحة العسكريين الموضح فئتهم بعد :

(ا) ابناء وزوجات الشهداء او المفقودين من افراد القوات المسلحة بسبب العمليات الحربية ومن فى حكمهم طبقا لاحكام المادة (٣١) من القانون رقم ١١٦ لسنة ١٩٦٤ واخوتهم الذين كانوا يعولونهم

(ب) ابناء وزوجات المتوفين من افراد القوات المسلحة بسبب الخدمة طبقا لقرار هيئة التنظيم والادارة للقوات المسلحة .

(جـ) افراد القوات المسلحة المصابون بسبب العمليات الحربية ومن فى حكمهم طبقا لاحكام المادة (٣١) من القانون رقم ١١٦ لسنة ١٩٦٤ واسفر عن الاصابة نسبة عجز ٤٠٪ فاكثر وابناؤهم واخوتهم الذين يعولونهم .

(د) ابناء الضباط والدرجات الاخرى الموجودين بالخدمة اعتبارا من ١٩٦٧/٦/٥ حتى بداية العام الدراسى الثانوي الذى حصل فيه ابنائهم على شهادة الثانوية العامة .

(هـ) ابناء العاملين المدنيين بوزارة الحربية الموجودين بالخدمة بالقوات المسلحة فى ٥ يونيو ١٩٦٧ والذين يخدمون فى مناطق الجيشين الثانى والثالث ومنطقة البحر الاحمر بعد هذا التاريخ حتى آخر يونيه من عام تقدم ابنائهم لمكتب التنسيق .

٦ ـ الطلاب المتفوقون رياضيا :

يقضى قرار وزير الشباب رقم ١٦ لسنة ١٩٧٠ بان تكون الضوابط الخاصة بتطبيق القرار الجمهورى رقم ١٦٧ لسنة ١٩٧٠ لاختيار الطلبة والطالبات المتفوقين رياضيا الذين سيلحقون (بكليات) التربية الرياضية للمعلمين والمعلمات على الوجه الآتى :

اولا : ضوابط عامة :

١ ـ يشترط ان يكون المستفيد من هذا القرار متميز بالروح الرياضية والا يكون قد صدرت ضده اية جزاءات رياضية خلال الموسم الرياضى السابق ، ويثبت ذلك للجهة المختصة باصدار الشهادات اللازمة .

٢ ـ تكون الأولوية للطالبات والطلبة فى القبول بكليات التربية الرياضية وفقا للمرتبة الحائز عليها فى البطولة الرياضية .

٣ ـ يطبق القرار على نشاط الموسم الاخير لكل بطولة .

ثانيا : يقبل الطلاب من مراتب البطولة التى وصلوا اليها تنازليا وفق الترتيب التالى :

١ ـ من اشترك فى فريق حائز على بطولة اوليمبية او عالمية (٨ مراكز) .

٢ ـ من اشترك فى فريق حائز على بطولة اقليمية (البحر الابيض) (٦ مراكز) .

٣ ـ من اشترك فى فريق مثل جمهورية مصر العربية فى بطولة اوليمبية او عالمية .

٤ ـ من اشترك فى فريق مثل (ج.م.ع) فى بطولة اقليمية (البحر الابيض) .

٥ ـ من اشترك فى فريق مثل او حائز على بطولة فى مسابقات (ا) الدورة العربية فى نطاق جامعة الدول العربية .

(ب) تنفيذا للمعاهدات الثقافية .

(جـ) الدورة العربية المدرسية .

٦ ـ عضو الفريق القومى الأول لاى لعبة من الالعاب الرياضية التى لها اتحاد دولى بحيث لا يختار طلاب من اى فئة الا بعد عدم استكمال العدد المقرر من الفئة او الفئات التى تسبقها ، وتكون المفاضلة داخل كل فئة وفق مجموع الدرجات .

ثالثا : الاجراءات التنفيذية :

١ ـ يتقدم الحائز على البطوله الى اتحاد اللعبة او الهيئة المختصة بطلب منحه ما يفيد باشتراكه فى هذه البطولة وموعد اقامتها والمركز الذى حصل عليه فيها ان وجد .

٢ ـ تعتمد هذه البيانات من اللجنة الاوليمبية او وزارة التربية والتعليم ويصدق عليها من المجلس الأعلى للرياضة.

٣ ـ تقدم هذه البيانات ضمن اوراق الطالب بمكتب تنسيق القبول .

٤ ـ توافى اللجنة الاوليمبية بالمجلس الاعلى للرياضة بكشوف باسماء اللاعبين الحاصلين على البطولات الدولية حتى يمكن ابلاغ مكتب تنسيق القبول بهذه الأسماء . فى حالة التساوى فى مرتبة البطولة تكون المفاضلة وفق مجموع الدرجات .

ـ وفى جميع الأحوال يشترط للطالب المتفوق رياضيا ان يكون مثل جمهورية مصر العربية فى المجالات الخارجية .

موقف الطلاب المرشحين للقبول من التجنيد :

تقضى المادة ٥٦ معدلة من قانون التجنيد بعدم السماح لأى طالب مستجد بالقيد بأية كلية جامعية او معهد ما لم يكن معه بطاقة الخدمة العسكرية اذا كان قد بلغ سن التاسعة عشرة , كما تقضى بعدم قيد الطلاب المستجدين بأية كلية جامعية او معهد اذا جاوز سن الطالب ٢٢ عاما فى اول سبتمبر سنة ١٩٧٨ ما لم يقدم احدى الشهادات المنصوص عليها فى قانون التجنيد وهذهالبطاقات والشهادات تقدم للكليات والمعاهد بعد ترشيح الطلاب وارسال اوراقهم لها فاذا جند الطالب احتفظت له الكلية (او المعهد) (بمكانه) حتى ينتهى تجنيده وعلى الطالب اخطار الكلية بأنه قد جند فعلا مع شهادة من (وحدته) لحفظ المكان .

الفصـــل الخـــامس

الفئـــات المستثناة

اولا : الفئات المستثناة التى تقبل عن طريق مكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعـــاهد :

١ ــ يقبل الطلاب من حملة الشهادة الثانوية العامة من الفئات الموضحة بعد دون التقيد بمجموع الدرجات بكليات الجامعات وكليات جامعة الأزهر والمعاهد الفنية التجارية والصناعية والصحية والمعاهد الخاصة التى تشرف عليها وزارة التعليم العالى مع استيفاء الشروط المؤهلة لكل منها .

١ ــ عدد محدد من الفئات التالية بكل كلية ومعهد :

(ا) ابناء وزوجات الشهداء او المفقودين من افراد القوات المسلحة بسبب العمليات الحربية ومن فى حكمهم طبقا لاحكام المادة (٣١) من القانون رقم ١١٦ لسنة ١٩٦٤ واخواتهم الذين يعولونهم .

(ب) ابنـــاء وزوجات المتوفين من افراد القـــوات المسلحـــة بسبب الخدمة طبقا لقرار هيئة التنظيم والادارة للقوات المسلحة .

(جـ) افراد القوات المسلحة المصابون بسبب العمليات الحربية ومن فى حكمهم طبقا لاحكام المادة (٣١) من القانون رقم ١١٦ لسنة ١٩٦٤ واسفر عن الاصابة نسبة عجز ٤٠٪ فاكثر . وابناؤهم واخواتهم الذين يعولونهم .

(د) ابناء الضباط والدرجات الأخرى الموجودين بالخدمة فيها اعتبارا من ١٩٦٧/٦/٥ حتى بداية العام الدراسى الثانوى الذى حصل فيه ابنائهم على شهادة الثانوية العامة .

(هـ) ابناء العـــاملين المدنيين بوزارة الحربية الموجـــودين بالخدمة فى القوات المسلحة فى ٥ يونيو ١٩٦٧ والذين يخدمون فى مناطق الجيشين الثانى والثالث ومنطقة البحر الأحمر بعد هذا التاريخ حتى آخر يونية من عام تقدم ابنائهم لمكتب التنسيق .

وتكون المفاضلة بين جميع هؤلاء الطلاب طبقا لترتيب مجموع الدرجات فى امتحـــان شهادة اتمام الدراســـــة الثانوية العـــامة او ما يعادلها .

وبالنسبة لكليات جامعة الأزهر يقتصر العدد الذى يرشح بكليات جامعة الأزهر من حملة الثانوية العامة على عشرة طلاب والباقى من حملة الثانوية الأزهرية .

٢ ـ عدد محدد من ابناء واخوة وزوجات الشهداء المدنيين ـ من غير العاملين المدنيين بوزارة الحربية او القوات المسلحة ـ الذين استشهدوا أو الذين اصبحوا فى حالة عجز تام وذلك فى العمليات الحربية او بسبب قيامهم بواجبات رسمية .

وبالنسبة لكليات جامعة الأزهر يقتصر العدد الذى يرشح بكليات جامعة الأزهر من حملة الثانوية العامة على طالبين والباقى من حملة الثانوية الأزهرية .

٢ ـ يقبل الطلاب من حملة الشهادة الثانوية العامة من الفئات الموضحة بعد دون التقيد بمجموع الدرجات بكليات الجامعات فيما عدا كليات جامعة الأزهر ـ مع استيفاء الشروط المؤهلة للقبول بهذه الكليات :

(أ) عدد محدد من ابناء أعضاء هيئة التدريس الحاليين بالجامعات ، والسابقين الذين امضوا عشر سنوات على الاقل فى هيئة التدريس (مدرس ـ استاذ مساعد ـ أستاذ) بكليات الجامعات ـ فيما عدا جامعة الأزهر .

(ب) عدد محدد من ابناء العاملين الحاليين والسابقين من غير أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات (فيما عدا جامعة الأزهر) وامانة المجلس الأعلى للجامعات ، الذين أمضوا عشر سنوات على الأقل فى خدمة كل من هذه الجهات او فى خدمتها معا . بكليات الجامعات فيما عدا جامعة الأزهر .

٣ ـ يقبل عدد محدد من ابناء العاملين بالتعليم العالى بالكليات التى كانت معاهد عالية تابعة لوزارة التعليم العالى واصبحت نواة لكليات جامعية وضمت للجامعات المختلفة بانحاء الجمهورية .

٤ ـ يقبل الطلاب من الفئات الموضحة بعد دون التقيد بمجموع الدرجات بالمعاهد الفنية التابعة حاليا لوزارة التعليم العالى والمعاهد الخاصة التى تشرف عليها الوزارة مع استيفاء شروط القبول بكل منها :

(ا) عدد محدد من حملة الشهادة الثانوية العامة فى كل معهد من ابناء المهجرين من مناطق القناة وسيناء والبحر الاحمر . كما يقبل ايضا عدد محدد من حملة الشهادة الثانوية الفنية (التجارية ـ الزراعية) بالمعاهد التى تقبل هذه الشهادات .

(٢) عدد محـدد من حملة الشهادة الثانوية العامة فى كل معهـد من المعـاهد الفنية والمعاهد الخـاصة ـ للفئات الآتيـه على الوجه الآتى :

(أ) ابناء العاملين الحاليين والسابقين بوزارة التعليم العالى واعضاء هيئة التدريس السابقين بالمعاهد العالية .

ويشترط للانتفاع باستثناء العاملين بالتعليم العالى ان يكون العضو قد أمضى عشر سنوات على الأقل فى خدمة وزارة التعليم العالى أو فى خدمتها وخدمة وزارة التربية والتعليم قبل انشاء وزارة التعليم العالى أو الهيئات التى يشرف عليها وزير التعليم العالى (الجامعات والهيئة العامة للكتب والأجهزة العلمية) .

ويدخل ضمن هذا الاستثناء ابناء العاملين المعينين والقائمين بالتدريس بصفة أصلية بالمعـاهد الخاصة التي تشرف عليهـا الوزارة وبنفس الشروط الموضحة ويشترك العاملون بالجامعات مع العاملين بوزارة التعليم العالى فى النسبة المخصصة للالتحاق بالمعاهد الخاصة المتوسطة .

(ب) أبناء رجال التعليم وبيانهم كالآتى :

١ ـ رجال التعليم الذين عملوا بالتـدريس بوزارة التربية والتعليم من أعضاء نقابة المهن التعليمية .

٢ ـ رجال التعليم بالمعاهد الدينية وجامعة الأزهر ، الذين عملوا بالتدريس بتلك الجهات .

ويشترط للانتفاع بالاستثناء لهـاتين الفئتين ان يكون العضـو قد أمضى عشر سنوات على الأقل فى وظيفته الصادر عنها الاستثناء وذلك للقبول بالمعاهد الخاصـة العالية والمتوسطة والمعاهد الفنية .

٥ ـ يقبل الطلاب من حملة الثانوية الصناعية والثانوية الفنية للبنـات ونظائرهما من الفئـات الموضحة فى البنـدين الاول والثانى وبنفس العدد المحدد فى هذين البندين بكلية التكنولوجيا بالمطرية مع استيفاء الشروط الأخرى المؤهلة للقبول لهذه الكلية وذلك بنسبة ٢ من حملة الثانوية العامة : ٣ من حملة الثانوية الصناعية ونظائرها .

٦ ـ يقبـل بكل كلية من كليات التربية الرياضية ، عدد محدد من الطلاب الحاصلين على الثانوية العامة الذين وصلوا فى التفوق الرياضى الى درجة أهلتهم لتمثيل الجمهورية فى المجالات الخارجية وفقا للضوابط الواردة فى قرار وزير الشباب رقم ١٦ لسنة ١٩٧٠ وذلك دون التقيد بمجموع الدرجات مع استيفاء شروط القبول الاخرى بهذه الكليات .

٧ ـ يقبل عدد محدد من ابناء المحافظات النائية ومحافظات الحدود (مطروح ـ الوادى الجديد ـ الواحات البحرية ـ البحر الاحمر ـ سيناء ـ وادى النطرون) فى كل من كليات الجامعات المذكورة فيما بعد استثناء من شرط المجموع طبقا لما يلى :

(أ) بالنسبة لأبناء محافظة مطروح يقبل عدد محدد بكل كلية من كليات جامعة الاسكندرية وعدد محدد بكلية التربية بها .

(ب) بالنسبة لأبناء كل من محافظتى الوادى الجديد والبحر الاحمر يقبل عدد محدد بكل كليه من كليات جامعتى أسيوط والمنيا بما فيها كليات التربية .

(جـ) بالنسبة لأبناء محافظة سيناء يقبل عدد محدد بكل كلية من كليات جامعة قناة السويس وعدد محدد بكلية التربية بها لطلاب (القسم العلمى) شعبتى العلوم والرياضيات مع استمرار قبول هذه الأعداد بالكليات الغير مناظرة بجامعة الزقازيق وكلية التربية بها لطلاب القسم الادبى .

(د) بالنسبة لأبناء الواحات البحرية يقبل عدد محدد بكل كلية من كليات جامعة القاهرة .

(هـ) بالنسبة لأبناء وادى النطرون يقبل عدد محدد بكل كلية من كليات جامعة الاسكندرية وعدد محدد بكلية التربية بها .

(و) بالنسبة لأبناء الوادى الجديد يقبل عدد محدد بكلية الآثار بجامعة القاهرة .

يشترط للاستفادة من هذا الاستثناء ان يكون الطالب من مواليد المحافظة المعنية وحاصلا على الثانوية العامة من احدى مدارس تلك المحافظة .

ويعفى الطلاب من ابناء محافظة سيناء من اشتراط الحصول على شهادة الثانوية العامة من أحد مدارس المحافظة . وفى حالة ما اذا تبقى عدد من الاماكن يستكمل العدد بمن ينطبق عليهم أحد الشرطين الآتيين :

١ ـ ان يكون الطالب من مواليد المحافظة المعنية ومقيم بها اقامة دائمة لمدة عشر سنوات على الاقل دون النظر الى المدرسة التى حصل منها على الشهادة الثانوية العامة .

٢ ـ ان يكون الطالب من غير مواليد المحافظة المعنية ومقيما بها اقامة دائمة لمدة عشر سنوات على الأقل مع حصوله على شهادة الثانوية العامة من هذه المحافظة .

على أن يلتزم الطالب الذى يستفيد من هذا الاستثناء بالعمل بالمحافظة بعد تخرجه .

يقبل الطلاب من خريجى دور المعلمين والمعلمات من الفئات الموضحة فى البند السابق (بند ٧) عند التحاقهم بكليات التربية بالجامعات وبنفس الشروط الموضحة فى البند المشار اليه .

٨ ـ يقبل عدد محـدد من ابناء المحافظـات النائية ومحافظات الحدود (مطروح ـ الوادى الجديد ـ البحر الأحمر ـ سيناء ـ سوهاج ـ قنا ـ اسوان ـ وادى النطرون) بكل من المعهدين العاليين للتمريض بجامعتى القاهرة والاسـكندرية استثناء من شرط المجموع وبنفس الشروط الواردة فى البند السابق (٧) .

٩ ـ يخصص نسبة ٥٠٪ من الاماكن المقررة بكليات التربية بالجامعات الاقليمية خارج القاهرة والاسكندرية لقبول ابناء المحافظة التى تقع فى دائرتها الكلية استثناء من شرط المجموع الكلى للدرجات وان تعامل فى هذا الشأن محافظات السويس والاسماعيلية وبور سعيد وسيناء معاملة المحافظة الواحدة بحيث يشترط فى الطالب ان يكون من مواليد المحافظة التى بها كلية التربية وحاصل على الثانوية العامة من احدى مدارس هذه المحافظات مع اعفـاء طلاب محافظة سـيناء من شرط الحصول على الثانوية العامة من احدى مدارس المحافظة على ان يلتزم بالعمل فى مدارس المحافظة بعد تخرجه ولا يسمح للطالب الذى يستفيد من هذا الاستثناء بالتحويل الى اى كلية اخرى .

وعلى الطالب الذى تتوافر فيه هذه الشروط التقدم باوراقه لمكتب تنسيق القبول ضمن القبول العـادى وبعد اعلان نتائج القبول ولم تتحقق رغبته فى الالتحاق بكلية التربية فى محافظته عليه التقدم مباشرة للكلية ومعه المستندات المطلوبة للاستفادة من هذا الاستثناء .

١٠ ـ قبول عدد محدد من ابناء المحافظات النـائية (مطروح ـ الوادى الجديد ـ البحر الأحمر ـ سيناء ـ الواحات البحرية ـ وادى النطرون) بكلية التكنولوجيا بالمطرية استثناء من شرط المجموع للحاصلين على شهادة الثانوية الصناعية ـ ويشترط للاستفادة من هذا الاستثناء ان يكون الطالب من مواليد هذه المحافظات وان يكون حاصلا على الشهادة من احدى مدارسها ويلتزم بالعمل فى المحافظات التى بهـا موطنه بعد تخرجه .

١١ ـ الاستثناء الخاص بالفئات الواردة فى هذا الفصل مقصورا على الطلاب المستوفين لقواعد القبول بكل كلية او معهد كما يقتصر قبول الفئات المستثناه على طلاب القسم الادبى فقط بكليـات الحقوق والآداب ودار العلوم .

ويقبل طلاب كل فئة بالاماكن المخصصة لهم فى كل كليـة او معهد بأسبقية المجموع الكلى للدرجات وفى حالة التساوى فى المجموع تكون الأسبقية للأعلى فى مجموع المواد المرجحة للقبول بكل كليـة او معهد.

١٢ ـ المواد المرجحة للقبول العادى والفئات المستثناة فى حالة التساوى فى المجموع هى :

اولا : فى كليات : الآداب والحقوق ودار العلوم والآثار والاعلام والألسن واللغات والترجمة والفنـون الجميلة (فنون) والتربية الفنيـة والتربيـة الموسيقية والتربية الرياضية (أدبى وعلمى بشعبتيه) ، وفى كليات : التجارة وشعبة العلوم السياسية والاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية والبريد

والبنات (عام وتربوى) والبنات بالازهر (اقسام ادبية) والتربية وكلية الخدمة الاجتماعية ومعاهد الخدمة الاجتماعية الخاصة والمعاهد الفنية التجارية والمعهد العالى للدراسات التعاونية والادارية (ادبى) .

مجموع درجات اللغات الثلاث

ثانيا : فى كليات : العلوم والتربية والبنات عام وتربوى (علمى بشعبتيه) والفنون التطبيقية والفنى الكيماوى بشبرا .

مجموع درجات مجموعتى الرياضيات والعلوم

ثالثا : فى كليات الهندسة والهندسة والتكنولوجيا والهندسة الالكترونية بمنوف والبترول والتعدين بالسويس ومعهد التخطيط الهمرانى والمعاهد الفنية الصناعية (شعبة رياضيات) .

وفى كليات : التجارة وشعبة العلوم السياسية والبريد والاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية والفنون الجميلة (عمارة) وكلية الخدمة الإجتماعية ومعاهد الخدمة الاجتماعية الخاصة والمعاهد الفنية التجارية والمعهد العالى للدراسات التعاونية والادارية (علمى بشعبتيه) .

مجموع درجات مجموعة الرياضيات

رابعا : فى كليات الطب وطب الاسنان والطب البيطرى والصيدلة والزراعة والمعهدين العاليين للتمريض والبنات (اقتصاد منزلى) وكلية الاقتصاد المنزلى ومعهد العلاج الطبيعى وعلوم القطن والعلوم الزراعية بمشتمر ومعهدى التعاون الزراعى بالقاهرة واسيوط والمعاهد الفنية الصحية .

مجموع درجات مجموعة العلوم والتاريخ الطبيعى

وفى حالة التساوى فى الحد الادنى لمجموع الدرجات ومجموع درجات المواد المرجحة للقبول فى الكلية او المعهد المراد الالتحاق بها والسابق الاشارة اليها تكون الافضلية للاصغر سنا .

ثانيا ـ الشهادات المطلوبة من الفئات المستثناة والجهات التى تعتمد منها :

الطلاب الذين يتقدمون للالتحاق بكليات الجامعات والمعاهد المختلفة استثناء من المجموع الكلى للدرجات طبقا للقرارات الجمهورية الصادرة فى هذا الشان والقواعد التى اقرها المجلس الأعلى للجامعات (البند أولا من الفصل الخامس) ، يتقدمون بأوراقهم العادية للالتحاق ويبدون رغباتهم فى بطاقات الاختيار المخصصة لكل فئة منهم .

وبالنسبة للشهادات التى تثبت الاستثناء فتكون على النماذج المبينة فيما بعد معتمدة من الجهات المبينة قرين كل منها .

اولا ـ استثناءات القوات المسلحة :

(أ) بالنسبة لضباط القوات المسلحة الموجودين بالخدمة او المستشهدين او المفقودين لابنائهم او زوجاتهم او اخواتهم الذين يعولونهم وتنطبق عليهم شروط الاستثناء ـ تعتمد الشهادة من ادارة شئون الضباط .

(ب) بالنسبة لضباط الصف والجنود الموجودين بالخدمة بالقوات المسلحة او المستشهدين او المفقودين لابنائهم او زوجاتهم او اخواتهم الذين يعولونهم وتنطبق عليهم شروط الاستثناء ـ تعتمد الشهادة من فرع الشئون الشخصية والخدمة الاجتماعية بهيئة التنظيم والادارة للقوات المسلحة .

(ج) بالنسبة لأبناء العاملين المدنيين بوزارة الحربية الموجودين بالخدمة بالقوات المسلحة الذين تنطبق عليهم شروط الاستثناء تعتمد الشهادة من ادارة شئون العاملين المدنيين بالقوات المسلحة .

ثانيا ـ استثناء الشهداء المدنيين :

(أ) ابناء واخوة وزوجات من استشهدوا فى الحرب من المدنيين :
وتكون الشهادات على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد (استمارة رقم ٨٨ تنسيق) وتعتمد من مدير مديرية الامن المختصة وبالنسبة لأهالى محافظة سيناء تكون الشهادة على النموذج الذى أعده المكتب لهم (استمارة ٨٨ مكرر تنسيق) وتعتمد من محافظة سيناء .

(ب) ابناء واخوة وزوجات من استشهدوا بسبب قيامهم بواجبات رسمية (أثناء الخدمة وبسببها) :

وتقبل أوراقهم للالتحاق بكليات الجامعات وجامعة الازهر والمعاهد الفنية والمعاهد الفنية الصحية والمعاهد الخاصة .

وتكون الشهادات على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول بالجامعات والمعاهد (استمارة رقم ٧٧ تنسيق) وتعتمد من وكلاء الوزارات أو رؤساء مجالس الادارة فى المؤسسات والهيئات والشركات العامة .

وفى اجهزة الحكم المحلى تكون الشهادة معتمدة من سكرتير عام المحافظة او من وكيل الوزارة الاصلية .

ولا تقبل شهادات، من سلطات اخرى بالانابة .

ثالثا ـ ابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس الحاليين والسابقين بالجامعات :

وتكون الشهادة على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول (استمارة رقم ٤٤ تنسيق) معتمدة من عميد الكلية المختصة .

رابعا ـ ابناء العاملين الحاليين والسابقين من غير اعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات وامانة المجلس الأعلى للجامعات :

وتكون الشهادة على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول (استمارة رقم ٩٩ تنسيق) معتمدة من أمين الجامعة المختصة أو امين المجلس الأعلى للجامعات على حسب الأحوال .

خامسا ـ ابناء العاملين الحاليين والسابقين بوزارة التعليم العالى وابناء اعضاء هيئة التدريس السابقين بالمعاهد (العالية) وابناء العاملين المعينين بالمعاهد الخاصة ومدرسيها الأصليين :

وتكون الشهادة على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول (استمارة رقم ٩٩ مكرر تنسيق) وتعتمد من وكيل وزارة التعليم العالى للشئون المالية والادارية .

سادسا ـ ابناء رجال التعليم الذين عملوا بالتدريس بوزارة التربية والتعليم من أعضاء نقابة المهن التعليمية وابناء رجال التعليم بالمعاهد الدينية وجامعة الأزهر :

وتكون الشهادة على النموذج الموجود بمكتب تنسيق القبول (استمارة رقم ٢٠٠ تنسيق) معتمدة من الجهات المبينة بعد :

١ ـ ابناء رجال التعليم (من المشتغلين بالتدريس) بوزارة التربية والتعليم (الحاليين والسابقين) . وتعتمد من وكيل وزارة التربية والتعليم للشئون الادارية بالنسبة لرجال التعليم الذين يتبعون ديوان عام الوزارة وفروعه أو الذين تركوا الخدمة وليست لهم اية بيانات بالمديريات التعليمية التى كانوا يعملون بها وبشرط ارفاق الشهادة من المديرية التعليمية بما يفيد ذلك أو من مديرى التربية والتعليم بالمناطق التعليمية بالنسبة لرجال التعليم الذين يتبعون المديريات والمناطق التعليمية مع ارفاق شهادة بعضوية رجال التعليم بنقابة المهن التعليمية متضمنة رقم هذه العضوية .

٢ ـ ابناء رجال التعليم من المشتغلين بالتدريس(الحاليين والسابقين) بالمعاهد الدينية وجامعة الأزهر وتعتمد من مدير عام المعاهد الأزهرية أو من امين عام جامعة الأزهر على حسب الأحوال .

سابعا ـ الطلاب المتفوقون رياضيا لدرجة اهلتهم لتمثيل الجمهورية فى المجالات الخارجية :

وتكون الشهادة الصادرة من اتحاد اللعبة أو الهيئة وتعتمد من اللجنة الأوليمبية أو من وزارة التربية والتعليم ويصدق عليها من وكيل المجلس الأعلى للرياضة والشباب المختص .

ثامنا ـ ابناء المهجرين من محافظات سيناء وبور سعيد والاسماعيلية والسويس والبحر الأحمر ـ

يقبلون فى الاماكن المخصصة لهم بالمعاهد الفنية والمعاهد الخاصة التى تشرف عليها وزارة التعليم العالى وتكون الشهادة على احد النماذج الآتية :

١ ـ استمارة رقم (٦٦ أ تنسيق) .

لطلاب محافظة سيناء الذين اقاموا بها اقامة دائمة لمدة لا تقل عن سبع سنوات وتعتمد الشهادة من محافظة سيناء .

٢ ـ استمارة رقم (٦٦ ب تنسيق) .

(ا) لطلاب محافظة بور سعيد الذين كانوا مقيدين بمدارس المحافظة فى العام الدراسى ١٩٦٨/١٩٦٩ .

وتعتمد الشهادة من مدير التربية والتعليم ببور سعيد .

(ب) لطلاب محافظة الاسماعيلية الذين كانوا مقيدين فى مدارسها فى العام الدراسى ١٩٦٦/١٩٦٧ .

وتعتمد الشهادة من مدير التربية والتعليم بالاسماعيلية.

(جـ) لطلاب محافظة السويس الذين كانوا مقيدين فى مدارسها فى العام الدراسى ١٩٦٦/١٩٦٧ .

وتعتمد الشهادة من مديرية التربية والتعليم ومقرهـــا شارع الشهداء بالسويس (قسم شئون الطلبة والامتحانات)

(د) لطلاب محافظة البحر الاحمر الذين كانوا مقيديـن فى مدارسها فى العام الدراسى ١٩٦٨/١٩٦٩ .

وتعتمد الشهادة من مدير مكتب الاتصال السياسى بوزارة التربية والتعليم .

الفصل السادس

الكليات والمعاهد

التى يلتحق بها الطلاب عن غير طريق مكتب التنسيق

١ ـ شعبة اللغات والترجمة بكلية البنات بجامعة الأزهر :

مدة الدراسة : اربع سنوات جامعية للحصول على درجة الاجازة العالية (الليسانس) فى اللغات والترجمة .

وفيما يلى الشروط الواجب توافرها فى الطالبات المتقدمات للاعلان الذى تصدره الكلية :

(ا) من القسم الادبى :

أن تكون اللغتان الاجنبيتان فى الثانوية العامة هما الانجليزية والفرنسية دون غيرهما ويشترط ان تكون حاصلة فى اللغة الاجنبية الاولى على ٦٥٪ على الاقل او ٦٠٪ فى حالة نجاحها فى المستوى الخاص فى هذه اللغة . وفى اللغة الاجنبية الثانية على ٥٠٪ على الاقل .

(ب) من القسم العلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) :

أن تكون اللغتان الاجنبيتان فى الثانوية العامة هما الانجليزية والفرنسية دون غيرهما وأن تكون حاصلة على ٧٥٪ على الاقل فى اللغة الاجنبية الاولى وفى حالة النجاح فى المستوى الخاص فى هذه اللغة فيكتفى الحصول على ٦٥٪ على الاقل فيها ، ٥٠٪ على الاقل فى اللغة الاجنبية الثانية .

(ج) الاختبارات :

وفى جميع الأحوال يشترط ان تؤدى الطالبة بنجاح اختبارا شفويا وتحريريا فى الموعد الذى تحدده الكلية ويكون اختيار الطالبات وفقا لنتائج هذا الامتحان ولدرجات الطالبة فى اللغات .

وعلى الطالبات الراغبات فى الالتحاق بهذه الشعبة ترقب الاعلان الذى تعلنه الكلية .

ويمكن للطالبات اللاتى سيرشحهن مكتب تنسيق القبول بأية كلية او معهد أن يتقدمن ضمن المتقدمات لشعبة اللغات والترجمة بناء على اعلان الكلية الخاص باجراء اختبارات القبول بهذه الشعبة مقابل ايصال

مكتب تنسيق القبول وفى حالة عدم نجاحهن فيها ، أو عدم حصولهن على أسبقية الالتحاق بهذه الشعبة ، يظل ترشيحهن الاصلى قائما .

٢ ـ كلية السياحة والفنادق (طلبة وطالبات) :

مقرها : مدينة القاهرة بجوار فندق المريديان .

مدة الدراسة : اربع سنوات لنيل درجة البكالوريوس فى السياحة فى احدى الشعب الآتية :

١ ـ السياحة .

٢ ـ الارشاد السياحى .

٣ ـ الفنـــادق .

الحصول على ٥٥٪ على الاقل من المجموع الكلى لدرجات الثانوية العامة وان يكون الطالب حاصلا على ٧٠٪ على الاقل فى اللغة الاجنبيـــة الاولى ، ومع اجتياز الاختبار الشخصى الذى تعقده الـكلية للتأكد من صلاحية الطالب للعمل فى حقل الفنادق (بالنسبة لشعبة الفنادق) ، او فى الحقل السياحى (بالنسبة لشعبة السياحة) أو فى حقـل الارشـاد السياحى (بالنسبة لشعبة الارشاد السياحى) .

٣ ـ المعهد الفنى للفنادق (طلبة وطالبات) :

مقره : مدينة القاهرة

شعب الدراسة هى : الخدمة (طلبة فقط) ـ المطبخ (طلبة فقط)ـ مدبرات الفنـــادق (طالبات فقط) .

مدة الدراسة : سنتان كل سنة منهما احد عشر شهرا للحصول على دبلوم الفنيين فى اعمال الفنادق فى احد التخصصات الآتية :

ـ الخدمة ـ المطبخ ـ مدبرات الفنادق .

قواعد القبـول :

الثانوية العامة (أدبى) أو (علمى بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات) بشرط الحصول على ٥٥٪ على الاقل من النهاية العظمى للغة الاجنبية الاولى ومع اجتياز الاختبار الشخصى الذى يعقده المعهد للتأكد من الصلاحية للعمل فى حقل الفنادق .

(ويتم القبول بالمعهد بناء على اعلان منه يحدد مواعيد تلقى الاوراق ومواعيد الاختبارات) .

بيـــان بالكليات والمعاهد

اولا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة العلوم) فقط

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٥	المعهد العالى للتمريض
٢	كلية طب الأسنان	٦	المعهد العالى للعلاج الطبيعى
٣	كلية الصيدلة	٧	كلية الزراعة
٤	كلية الطب البيطرى	٨	كلية الزراعة بالفيوم

٢ ـ جامعة الاسكندرية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٤	كلية الطب البيطرى
٢	كلية طب الأسنان	٥	المعهد العالى للتمريض
٣	كلية الصيدلة	٦	كلية الزراعة

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٣	كلية البنات (اقتصاد منزلى)
٢	كلية الزراعة		

٤ ـ جامعة اسيوط

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٣	كلية الطب البيطرى
٢	كلية الصيدلة	٤	كلية الزراعة

٥ ـ جامعة طنطا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٣	كلية الصيدلة
٢	كلية طب الاسنان	٤	كلية الزراعة بكفر الشيخ

٦ ـ جامعة المنصورة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٣	كلية الزراعة
٢	كلية الصيدلة	٤	كلية طب الاسنان

٧ ـ جامعة الزقازيق

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٥	كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر (شعبة عامة)
٢	كلية الصيدلة		
٣	كلية الطب البيطرى	٦	كلية العلوم الزراعية بمشتهر (شعبة الزراعة والتربية)
٤	كلية الزراعة		

٨ ـ جامعة حلوان

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الاقتصاد المنزلى بالقاهرة	٢	كلية علوم القطن بالاسكندرية

٩ ـ جامعة المنيا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الزراعة		

١٠ ـ جامعة المنوفية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية أو المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الزراعة بشبين الكوم		

١١ ـ جامعة قناة السويس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الزراعة بالاسماعيلية		

١٢ ـ جامعة الأزهر

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الطب	٣	كلية الزراعة
٢	كلية البنات (طب)		

١٣ ـ المعاهد الفنية الصحية

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد الفنى الصحى باسيوط	٥	المعهد الفنى الصحى (شعبة تمريض) بامبابة
٢	المعهد الفنى الصحى بالمنصورة		
٣	المعهد الفنى الصحى بطنطا	٦	المعهد الفنى الصحى (شعبة تمريض) بالاسكندرية
٤	المعهد الفنى الصحى بالزقازيق		

١٤ ـ المعاهد الخاصة العالية

(مدة الدراسة بها ٤ سنوات او اكثر)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد العالى للتعاون الزراعى بالقاهرة	٢	المعهد العالى للتعاون والارشاد الزراعى باسيوط

ثانيا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم العلمى (شعبة الرياضيات) فقط

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة	٢	معهد التخطيط العمرانى (ليوناردو داهنشى سابقا)

٢ ـ جامعة الأسكندرية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة		

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة		

٤ ـ جامعة اسيوط

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة		

٥ ـ جامعة المنصورة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة		

٦ ـ جامعة الزقازيق

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة	٢	كلية الهندسة بشبرا (فرع بنها)

٧ ـ جامعة حلوان

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التكنولوجيا بحلوان	٢	كلية التكنولوجيا بالمطرية

٨ ـ جامعة المنيا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا		

٩ ـ جامعة المنوفية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا بشبين الكوم	٢	كلية الهندسة الالكترونية بمنوف

١٠ ـ جامعة قناة السويس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة والتكنولوجيا ببور سعيد	٢	كلية البترول والتعدين بالسويس

١١ ـ جامعة الأزهر

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الهندسة		

١٢ ـ المعاهد الفنية الصناعية

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد الفني الصناعي بالمطرية	٧	المعهد الفني الصناعي بكامب شيزار بالاسكندرية
٢	المعهد الفني الصناعي بشارع الصحافة	٨	المعهد الفني الصناعي بانزفازيق
٣	المعهد الفني المعماري بالمطرية	٩	المعهد الفني الصناعي باسوان
٤	المعهد الفني للسيارات بوادي حوف	١٠	المعهد الفني الصناعي بشبين الكوم
٥	المعهد الفني للتليفونات بالقاهرة	١١	المعهد الفني للبصريات بالمنيرة
٦	المعهد الفني للري والصرف والمساحة واستصلاح الأراضي بالجيزة	١٢	المعهد الفني الصناعي للالكترونيات ببنها
		١٣	المعهد الفني للتليفزيون بدارالسلام
		١٤	المعهد الفني الصناعي ببور سعيد

ثالثا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم العلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٢ ـ جامعة الاسكندرية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٤ ـ جامعة اسيوط

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم	٤	كلية العلوم باسوان
٢	كلية العلوم بسوهاج	٥	كلية التربية باسوان
٣	كلية العلوم بقنا		

٥ ـ جامعة طنطا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٦ ـ جامعة المنصورة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٧ ـ جامعة الزقازيق

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم		

٨ ـ جامعة حلوان

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الفنون الجميلة (قسم عمارة) بالزمالك	٣	كلية الفنون التطبيقية بالجيزة
٢	كلية الفنون الجميلة (قسم عمارة) بالاسكندرية		

٩ ـ جامعة المنيا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الفلوم		

١٠ ـ جامعة المنوفية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم بشبين الكوم		

١١ ـ جامعة قناة السويس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم بالاسماعيلية	٢	كلية التربية بالاسماعيلية

١٢ ـ جامعة الأزهر

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم	٢	كلية البنات (علوم)

١٣ ـ المعاهد الفنية الصناعية

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا
٢	المعهد الفنى لغزل ونسج الصوف بامبابه

١٤ ـ المعاهد الفنية الصحية

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد الفنى الصحى بامبابة	٢	المعهد الفنى الصحى بالاسكندرية

ملحوظة للمعاهد الفنية الصناعية التى تقبل القسم العلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)

١ ـ بالنسبة للمعهد الفنى الكيماوى بشبرا يقبل طلاب شعبة الرياضيات بجميع الشعب ماعدا شعبة معامل بيولوجية فتقبل طلاب شعبة العلوم فقط .

٢ ـ بالنسبة للمعهد الفنى لغزل ونسج الصوف بامبابة يقبل طلاب شعبة الرياضيات بجميع الشعب ماعدا شعبة صباغة وتجهيز فتقبل شعبة العلوم فقط .

رابعا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسمين الأدبى والعلمى (بشعبتيه العلوم والرياضيات)

١ ـ جامعة القاهرة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الاقتصاد والعلوم السياسية	٨	كلية دار العلوم
٢	كلية التجارة	٩	كلية التربية بالفيوم
٣	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	١٠	كلية التجارة ببنى سويف
٤	كلية الآثار	١١	كلية التجارة (انتساب) ببنى سويف
٥	كلية الاعلام	١٢	كلية الحقوق
٦	كلية الآداب	١٣	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)
٧	كلية الآداب (انتساب)		

٢ ـ جامعة الاسكندرية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٥	كلية الآداب (انتساب)
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٦	كلية الحقوق
٣	كلية التربية	٧	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)
٤	كلية الآداب		

٣ ـ جامعة عين شمس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٦	كلية الالسن
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٧	كلية الآداب
٣	كلية البنات (عام)	٨	كلية الآداب (انتساب)
٤	كلية البنات (تربوى)	٩	كلية الحقوق
٥	كلية التربية	١٠	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)

٤ ـ جامعة أسيوط

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٨	كلية الاداب بسوهاج (انتساب)
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٩	كلية الحقوق
٣	كلية التجارة (شعبة العلوم السياسية)	١٠	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)
٤	كلية التربية بسوهاج	١١	كلية الاداب بقنا
٥	كلية التربية		للقسم الادبى والعلمى شعبة العلوم فقط
٦	كلية التربية بقنا		
٧	كلية الاداب بسوهاج		

٥ ـ جامعة طنطا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٤	كلية الاداب
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٥	كلية الاداب (انتساب)
٣	كلية التربية	٦	كلية التربية بكفر الشيخ

٦ ـ جامعة المنصورة

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٤	كلية التربية بدمياط
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٥	كلية الحقوق
٣	كلية التربية	٦	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)

٧ ـ جامعة الزقازيق

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التجارة	٦	كلية التربية ببنها
٢	كلية التجارة (انتساب)	٧	كلية الاداب
٣	كلية التجارة ببنها	٨	كلية الاداب (انتساب)
٤	كلية التجارة ببنها (انتساب)	٩	كلية الحقوق
٥	كلية التربية	١٠	كلية الحقوق (انتساب)

٨ ـ جامعة حلوان

مسلسل	اسم الكلية أو المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية أو المعهد
١	كلية التجارة وادارة الاعمال بالزمالك	٧	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنين بالهرم
٢	كلية التجارة وادارة الاعمال (انتساب) بالزمالك	٨	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنات بالجزيرة
٣	كلية التجارة وادارة الاعمال بالزمالك (شعبة البريد)	٩	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنين بابي قير
٤	كلية الفنون الجميلة (قسم فنون) بالزمالك	١٠	كلية التربية الرياضية للبنات بفلمنج
٥	كلية الفنون الجميلة (قسم فنون) بالاسكندرية	١١	كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية بجاردن سيتي
٦	كلية التربية الفنية بالزمالك	١٢	كلية التربية الموسيقية بالزمالك

٩ ـ جامعة المنيا

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية الاداب	٣	كلية التربية
٢	كلية الاداب (انتساب)		

١٠ ـ جامعة المنوفية

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التربية بشبين الكوم		

١١ ـ جامعة قناة السويس

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية العلوم التجارية والادارية ببور سعيد	٢	كلية العلوم التجارية والادارية (انتساب) ببور سعيد

١٢ ـ جامعة الازهر

مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد	مسلسل	اسم الكلية او المعهد
١	كلية التربية	٣	كلية البنات (تجارة)
٢	كلية التجارة (بنين)	٤	كلية اللغات والترجمة

١٣ ـ المعاهـد الفنية التجارية

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالروضة	٨	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالمنصورة
٢	المعهد الفنى التجارى بشبرا	٩	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببور فؤاد
٣	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالمطرية	١٠	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببنى سويف
٤	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالاسكندرية	١١	المعهد الفنى التجارى بأسيوط
٥	المعهد الفنى التجارى بطنطا	١٢	المعهد الفنى التجارى باسوان
٦	المعهد الفنى التجارى بشبين الكوم	١٣	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالزقازيق
٧	المعهد الفنى التجارى ببنها	١٤	المعهد الفنى التجارى للفتيات بالسيدة زينب

١٤ ـ المعاهـد الخاصة العـالية

(مدة الدراسة بها ٤ سنوات أو أكثر)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعيـة بالقاهرة	٤	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعيـة باسوان
٢	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعية بالاسكندرية	٥	المعهد العالى للدراسات التعاونية والادارية بالقاهرة
٣	المعهد العالى للخدمة الاجتماعيـة بكفر الشيخ		

١٥ ـ المعاهد الخاصة المتوسطة

(مدة الدراسة بها سنتان)

مسلسل	اسم المعهد	مسلسل	اسم المعهد
١	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات بجاردن سيتى	٥	معهد الادارة والسكرتارية للفتيات بجاردن سيتى
٢	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية للفتيات بالاسكندرية	٦	معهد الادارة والسكرتارية فرع مصر الجديدة
٣	المعهد المتوسط للخدمة الاجتماعية باسوان	٧	معهـد السكرتارية بكليـة البنـات القبطية بالعباسية
٤	المعهد الفنى التجارى بالعباسية	٨	معهـد السكرتارية بكلية رمسيس بالقاهرة

خامسا : الكليات والمعاهد التى تقبل طلاب القسم الادبى فقط

جامعة الأزهـــر

مسلسل	اسم الكلية أو المعهد
١	كلية البنات (اقسام ادبية)

ملاحظات بالنسبة للقبول ببعض الكليات :

١ ــ كلية الحقوق جامعة عين شمس تقبل القسم الادبى وشعبة العلوم فقط

٢ ــ كلية التربية بالاسماعيلية جامعة قناة السويس تقبل القسم العلمى بشعبتيه فقط .

٣ ــ كلية الآداب بقنا جامعة اسيوط تقبل القسم الادبى وشعبة العلوم فقط

٤ ــ كلية التربية بأسوان جامعة اسيوط تقبل القسم العلمى بشعبتيه فقط

٥ ــ كلية العلوم بشبين الكوم جامعة المنوفية تقبل القسم العلمى شعبة العلوم فقط .

٦ ــ كلية التربية بكفر الشيخ جامعة طنطا تقبل القسم الادبى وشعبة العلوم فقط .

٧ ــ بالنسبة لشعبة العلوم السياسية بكلية التجارة جامعة اسيوط يقتصر القبول بها على طلاب محافظة المنيا والمحافظات الواقعة جنوبها ومحافظتى الوادى الجديد والبحر الأحمر .

تم الطبع بالمراقبة العامة
لمطبعة جامعة القاهرة والكتاب الجامعى

المراقب العام

البرنس حموده حسين

اغسطس ١٩٧٨

(مطبعة جامعة القاهرة ١٩٧٨/٧٥١/٠٠٠ن.١٣٠)