



School of Social Sciences and Humanities
“Language Education for Refugees and Migrants”
Postgraduate Course

Postgraduate Thesis
**“Education Reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring:
a socio-political analysis.”**

Stefanos Bampanis

Supervisor: Ihab Shabana

Greece, January 2023

Theses / Dissertations remain the intellectual property of students (“authors/creators”), but in the context of open access policy they grant to the HOU a non-exclusive license to use the right of reproduction, customisation, public lending, presentation to an audience and digital dissemination thereof internationally, in electronic form and by any means for teaching and research purposes, for no fee and throughout the duration of intellectual property rights. Free access to the full text for studying and reading does not in any way mean that the author/creator shall allocate his/her intellectual property rights, nor shall he/she allow the reproduction, republication, copy, storage, sale, commercial use, transmission, distribution, publication, execution, downloading, uploading, translating, modifying in any way, of any part or summary of the dissertation, without the explicit prior written consent of the author/creator. Creators retain all their moral and property rights.

Supervising committee:

Ichab Sampana

Panos Kourgiotis

Manos Fokidis

Abstract

This paper provides an informative reflection on the transformations in education which took place in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring. To evaluate how effective these reforms are, the research uses a qualitative approach specifically in terms of, inclusive education access and quality of the educational system. It contributes to the available literature by detailing on how the socio-political pressures sparked off these educational changes. While discussing the educational landscape, it pays attention to the overview of the Arab Spring in historical terms and emphasizes its socio-political outcomes, focusing on Egypt's and Tunisia's education systems. The study provides a critical analysis of the educational system in these countries before the Arab Spring and discusses the problems that plagued the education sectors. The study, reveals that there were immediate and substantial changes in the education systems of both the countries following Arab spring thus driving subsequent reforms. These reforms involved changing the curriculums to focus on the values of democracy, critical thinking and human rights, initiatives to improve the quality of education and moves towards decentralizing the education. The study compares the strategies and achievements of these educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia. This shows the similarities and differences in strategies that each country embraced and how particular political and social dynamics of these countries influenced their educational reforms. The research also analyses the bigger picture of such reforms' effects on the society and economy development in Egypt and Tunisia, and concludes by underlining that these changes in education have a very vital role in the social and also economic growth of both states. The research does not only contribute with a holistic view regarding the post-revolutionary policy in education but also acts as an example for other regions under similar socio-political transformations, therefore showing the necessity of more investments and economic priorities alignment with the education.

Keywords: Arab Spring, Education policy, Education reforms, Egypt, Tunisia, Qualitative Research, Socio-political change.

“Education Reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring: a socio-political analysis.”

Stefanos Bampanis

Abstract

Αυτή η εργασία παρέχει έναν κατατοπιστικό προβληματισμό σχετικά με τους μετασχηματισμούς στην εκπαίδευση που έλαβαν χώρα στην Αίγυπτο και την Τυνησία μετά την Αραβική Άνοιξη. Για να αξιολογήσει πόσο αποτελεσματικές είναι αυτές οι μεταρρυθμίσεις, η έρευνα χρησιμοποιεί μια ποιοτική προσέγγιση όσον αφορά την πρόσβαση στην εκπαίδευση χωρίς αποκλεισμούς και την ποιότητα του εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος. Συνεισφέρει στη διαθέσιμη βιβλιογραφία αναφέροντας λεπτομερώς πώς οι κοινωνικοπολιτικές πιέσεις πυροδότησαν αυτές τις εκπαιδευτικές αλλαγές. Όσον αφορά το εκπαιδευτικό τοπίο, παρουσιάζει μια επισκόπηση της Αραβικής Άνοιξης με ιστορικούς όρους και δίνει έμφαση στα κοινωνικοπολιτικά της αποτελέσματα, εστιάζοντας στα εκπαιδευτικά συστήματα της Αιγύπτου και της Τυνησίας. Η μελέτη παρέχει μια κριτική ανάλυση του εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος σε αυτές τις χώρες πριν από την Αραβική Άνοιξη και συζητά τα προβλήματα της εκπαίδευσης. Η μελέτη, αποκαλύπτει ότι υπήρξαν άμεσες και ουσιαστικές αλλαγές στα εκπαιδευτικά συστήματα και των δύο χωρών μετά την αραβική άνοιξη, οδηγώντας έτσι επακόλουθες μεταρρυθμίσεις. Αυτές οι μεταρρυθμίσεις περιλάμβαναν αλλαγή των προγραμμάτων σπουδών με έμφαση στις αξίες της δημοκρατίας, της κριτικής σκέψης και των ανθρωπίνων δικαιωμάτων, καθώς και πρωτοβουλίες για τη βελτίωση της ποιότητας της εκπαίδευσης και κινήσεις προς την αποκέντρωση του εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος. Η μελέτη συγκρίνει τις στρατηγικές και τα επιτεύγματα αυτών των εκπαιδευτικών μεταρρυθμίσεων στην Αίγυπτο και την Τυνησία, δείχνει τις ομοιότητες και τις διαφορές στις στρατηγικές που υιοθέτησε κάθε χώρα και πώς η ιδιαίτερη πολιτική και κοινωνική δυναμική αυτών των χωρών επηρέασε τις εκπαιδευτικές τους μεταρρυθμίσεις. Η έρευνα αναλύει επίσης τον αντίκτυπο τέτοιων μεταρρυθμίσεων στην ανάπτυξη της κοινωνίας και της οικονομίας στην Αίγυπτο και την Τυνησία και καταλήγει υπογραμμίζοντας ότι αυτές οι αλλαγές στην εκπαίδευση έχουν πολύ ζωτικό ρόλο στην κοινωνική και οικονομική ανάπτυξη και των δύο κρατών. Η έρευνα δεν συνεισφέρει μόνο με μια ολιστική θεώρηση σχετικά με τη μεταεπαναστατική πολιτική στην εκπαίδευση αλλά λειτουργεί ως παράδειγμα και για άλλες περιοχές με παρόμοια κοινωνικοπολιτικά χαρακτηριστικά, δείχνοντας επομένως την αναγκαιότητα για επενδύσεις καθώς και για ευθυγράμμιση των οικονομικών προτεραιοτήτων με την εκπαίδευση.

Keywords: Αραβική Άνοιξη, Εκπαιδευτικές πολιτικές, Εκπαιδευτικές μεταρρυθμίσεις, Αίγυπτος, Τυνησία, Ποιοτική μέθοδος, Κοινωνικοπολιτικές αλλαγές.

Table of Contents

Abstract	4
1. Introduction.....	10
1.1 Opening Section	10
1.2 Background of the study	10
1.3 Historical Background of the Arab Spring	11
1.4 Research problem	12
1.5 Research Aim	13
1.6 Research objectives.....	13
1.7 Research questions.....	13
1.8 Significance of the research	14
1.9 Limitations.....	14
1.10 Outcome of the Research	14
1.11 Structural Outline.....	15
2. Literature Review	16
2.1 Egypt	16
2.2 Tunisia	18
2.3 Conclusion	20
3. Methodology	21
3. 1 Introduction.....	21
3.2 QCA	21
3.3 Theoretical Framework.....	22
3.4 Data Collection.....	24
3.5 Data Analysis.....	25
3.6 Ethical Considerations	25
3.7 Conclusion	26
4. Impact of the Arab Spring on Education	27
4.1 Pre-Arab Spring education systems.....	27
4.2 Challenges faced by the education sectors.....	30
4.3 Immediate effects of the Arab Spring on the education systems in Egypt and Tunisia.....	31
4.4 Education Reforms in Egypt.....	33
4.4.1 Assessment of the implementation.	39
4.5. Education Reforms in Tunisia.....	41
4.5.1 Assessment of the implementation.	43
5.Discussion	46

5.1. Significance of the topic in the context of social and political changes	46
5.2. Comparison of the approaches and outcomes of educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia.	47
5.3. Similarities and differences in the strategies adopted by each country.	48
5.3. How each country's political and social dynamics influenced their education reforms. ...	51
6. Conclusion	53
6.1. Summary of key findings from the literature review.	53
6.2. Reflection on the broader impact of these reforms on Egypt and Tunisia's societal and economic development.	54
7. References	56

List of Tables

Table 1: Educational reforms in Egypt 2013-2015.....	34
Table 2: Educational reforms in Egypt 2016-2018.....	34
Table 3: EDU 2.0.....	35
Table 4: National Project for the Development of the New Education System, key reforms.....	37
Table 5: Similarities and Differences in Education Reforms: Egypt – Tunisia.....	47

1. Introduction

1.1 Opening Section

This thesis discusses the development of educational strategies in Egypt and Tunisia since 2011 when a series of protests and subsequent uprisings took place throughout the Middle East known as the Arab Spring. The problem of this research is in studying how a transformative Socio-political occasion like the Arab Spring affected their two educational systems that also have significantly different historical, political and cultural backgrounds. The purpose of the research is to provide answers as to what extent Arab spring revolutionizes the educational policies, what transformations were done in post-Arab Spring and how these affected the educational systems.

This research will analyse the background information on pre-2011 education policies, influences of the Arab Spring, and its impacts in education. The paper will also compare the education reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after Arab Spring by looking at concrete policies and their implementation in order to know what was effective or not.

The importance of this research lies in its potential to inform educational policies not only in Egypt and Tunisia but also in other countries facing similar socio-political transformations. By informing on the interplay between political events and education systems, this study aims to contribute to the dialogue on education policy, in post-Arab Spring and beyond.

1.2 Background of the study

The Arab Spring, a series of unprecedented uprisings and socio-political movements that swept across the Middle East and North Africa in 2011, marked a turning point in the region's history. This wave of transformative protests and demonstrations triggered a new will for political transformation, social equity and economic recalibrations. It emerged in response to decades of authoritarian rule, corruption and socio-economic inequalities, with a special direction towards attaining democratic governance and individual rights.

The Arab Spring challenged the established order in countries across the Middle East and North Africa, leading to the overthrow of long-standing hegemonies and creating conditions for political transformations. The results of the Arab Spring have been ambiguous, with some nations experiencing relative stability and democratic progress, while others face ongoing conflict and political uncertainties. Egypt and Tunisia, the focal points of this research, exemplify these varied outcomes.

This study adopts a socio-political view to analyse the education systems in Egypt and Tunisia. It is based on the theory that education is not only a tool for knowledge transmission, but also a critical aspect of how a state is build, identity formation and social change. (Anderson, 2006; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990). The framework for this research is rooted in the impact of socio-political events on education policies and education systems. It delves into the role of education both as a driving force, as well as a result of the transformative changes emerged from the Arab Spring.

In the aftermath of the Arab Spring, the emphasis on educational reforms became a central feature in the search for social transformation in the Middle East, and North Africa region. Unemployment, political disenfranchisement and social inequalities alongside education were identified as a means of addressing the underlying issues that fuelled the uprisings. Therefore, governments in the region committed to revise beyond others, their education policies to meet the demands of the new era.

Egypt and Tunisia have undergone great transformation in their education systems since the Arab Spring although each of the two countries followed distinct paths. These transformations led to discussions on the nature of education regarding social injustices, equalling education with labour market and to what extent can education reforms cultivate a wider socio-political stability.

The main concepts of this research are related to education policy reform, democratization, the influence of religion on education and socio-political events in country's educational systems. The essential components of this study comprise the review of education policy before and after Arab spring, the evaluation of socio-political factors which could affect these policies, and a comparative analysis of Egypt's and Tunisia's educational reform strategy. The connection between Islam and education in the Arab world, precisely Egypt and Tunisia are almost integrated within these societies' history, culture as well as their political setup. Islam, as the main religion in the Arab world, has seen different ways of implementing religious guidance within its education systems. This is most pronounced in the situations with Egypt and Tunisia, where religion and education have been unambiguously tied together shaped by their independent political and social contexts.

The Arab Spring was a turning point in the political arenas of Egypt and Tunisia greatly affecting almost all segments, including education. In Egypt due to the ascension of the offsprings of the Muslim Brotherhood, such as the Freedom and justice Party, in Tunisia due to the Ennahda party there were concerns about possible Islamization that could bring challenges to education. In the long run, though, there were no sweeping overhauls of their education curricula or any attempts to have an Islamic way of life codified. Liberal Islamic content was the main reflection in both countries regarding religious education, which remained part of their curricula. (Faour, 2012)

With regard to the system of education in Egypt and Tunisia, one should keep in mind its historical, cultural and political backgrounds. On one hand, Egypt – the largest country in the Arab World has a well-developed history of educational institutions but also faced with challenges ensuring quality education for everyone. On the other hand, Tunisia; known also as the cradle of Arab Spring, has a fairly developed education system that seeks balance between secular and religious beliefs. The environment for which post-Arab Spring education policies are designed and analysed encompasses historic, cultural, and political dimensions.

1.3 Historical Background of the Arab Spring

The Arab Spring was a turning point in the region's history that started its development in Tunisia when Mohamed Bouazizi set himself on fire, thus causing uprisings that spread to Egypt, where protests across the country served as a signal for all other North African countries. These uprisings were long-standing in nature and built mainly of political and

socio-economic discontent prevalent at the time, which involved large-scale expressions of dissatisfaction with authority, corruption as well as economic hardship. In Tunisia, the regime of President Zine El Abidine Ben Ali suffered from high unemployment and economic stagnation, while, under President Hosni Mubarak, Egypt faced similar challenges, which caused great disillusionment especially among the youth (Wolfsfeld et al. 2013; Josua & Edel 2021).

Both the countries utilized social media in an incredibly unique way during the Arab Spring, considering the fact that its use was not the driving force behind the revolution, but an instrument that helped to expand dissatisfaction. The Egyptian Revolution that began on January 25, 2011, united many disparate groups of people in a way that has never been seen before. The long struggles, although the government had also tightened its supervision, resulted in the overturning of the regime. as Mubarak was forced to resign due to popular demands (BBC ,2011). On the other hand, Tunisia set on the road of democratic consolidation having free and fair elections, adopting of a new constitution, while its problems lied in the sphere of transitional justice and security sector reform (Josua & Edel, 2021). However, the post-Arab Spring era in both nations played out somewhat differently. Democracy evolved in Tunisia, albeit with difficulties. On the contrary, Egypt experienced a short-lived civilian governance, that was succeeded by a military coup in 2013 resulting to an even more authoritarian regime. These outcomes illustrate the complexities of political transitions and the challenge of sustaining revolutionary momentum in the face of entrenched power structures (Josua & Edel, 2021). This makes the Arab Spring, a central but ambiguous part of the region's past, a story that shows the fickle flows of political transformation and raises the issue of what it takes for democratic governments in the MENA region.

1.4 Research problem

In the existing literature, there is general agreement that Arab springs led to major transformations and disorders in MENA countries. It is widely accepted among scholars and policymakers that these events were transformative in the sense of changes they brought to socio-political aspects of specific countries, such as Egypt or Tunisia. Nevertheless, the modern-day literature does not provide sufficient study of how these socio-political alterations impacted education policies in such countries. There are several shortcomings with such a literature gap.

Much as the available studies serve to inform readers about the global implications of Arab Spring, many fail to provide meaningful review on the intricate political relations between these countries and their education systems. They can touch upon the significance of education within Arab Spring but fall short in providing deep analysis of specific evidenced based schooling policies and reforms initiated directly by these events. This gap blocks the way to understanding what specific difficulties and challenges Egypt and Tunisia encounter in their efforts of reforming the system of education post-Arab Spring.

There are several reasons as to why it is important to fill this gap. To begin with, education is fundamental to the development of a nation and the long-term stability of societies, as it has a key role in shaping the lives of individuals and the wider socio-political landscape. (Zafar & Ali, 2018; Mirowsky & Ross, 2005; Rios et al. 2013). An accurate comprehension of the

ways in which the Arab Spring has influenced policies with regard to education in Egypt and Tunisia is pivotal towards helping policy makers, educators and even researchers who may be interested in supporting functional governance along with social integration and educational quality. Secondly, by failing to fill this gap, we lose the chance to apply knowledge, from the experiences of Egypt and Tunisia, onto other countries going through similar socio-political transformations. Education systems can act as a microcosm of larger societal transformation and understanding their evolution is pivotal in charting policy. Lastly, failing to determine the clear relationship between policy modifications and issues associated with educational policies, would mean overlooking arising problems whenever initiatives to align education with new political dynamics are not properly addressed. This might have a long-term impact on the state of social integration and stability of these countries.

In conclusion, the research problem in this study lies in the current literature review that does not sufficiently inform the immediate effect of Arab spring on educational policies in Egypt and Tunisia. This literature gap is concerning, as not only does it hinder the comprehension of intricate nuances in the relationships between political transformations and educational reforms but also neglects to use the lessons from these cases when forming education policy within post-revolutionary settings.

1.5 Research Aim

- The aim of this research is to examine the impact of the Arab Spring on education policies in Egypt and Tunisia. It seeks to analyse the changes in education policies, the driving forces behind these changes as well as their impact on the education systems of these countries.

1.6 Research objectives

- Identify the reforms in education policies implemented in Egypt and Tunisia in the aftermath of the Arab Spring.
- Evaluate the effectiveness and impact of these reforms, taking into account their impact on access, quality and inclusion in education.
- To compare education policy reforms in Egypt and Tunisia in order to identify similarities and differences, as well as the reasons behind the two countries' strategies.

1.7 Research questions

- Which specific approaches and strategies have Egypt and Tunisia adopted to reform their education policies after the Arab Spring?
- How effective have these reforms been in terms of access, quality and inclusion in education? What are the strengths and weaknesses?

The study will address these objectives and questions in order to comprehend the relationship between policy change and education policy reform in Egypt and Tunisia, its efficacy and potential challenges as well as provide insights useful to scholars and researchers both from regional and international education sectors.

1.8 Significance of the research

This thesis provides an in-depth comparison of educational reforms after the Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia which are unique due to a focus on their specific institutional evolvement, obstacles, and achievements. It goes deep in the analysis of correlation between educational reforms and more global social-economic factors such as needs of labor market, religious consequences, and standpoints on democratization. The research goes beyond just policy analysis, and instead looks closely at the actual mechanisms of implementing these reforms to uncover subtle differences on a country-by-country basis. This method not only contributes to the understanding of educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia but also sheds light on how educational policies can be evaluated in other contexts after a revolution, thus emphasizing the need for a context-sensitive as well as comparative methodology.

This research is an essential attempt to fill a gap in the existing literature by conducting a thorough analysis of how the Arab Spring influenced educational policies in Egypt and Tunisia. In doing so, it does not just add to the scholarly side of further understanding a complex relationship between politically unstable societies and their education systems, but also has practical value to audiences such as educational groups or organizations as well as policy makers. Moreover, this research can inform international organizations and agencies that work on the promotion of educational development. By reviewing the cases of Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring, this research can inform on actions that would foster strengthened education in post-war or post-revolutionary environments aiming to enhance stability, peace and progress.

1.9 Limitations

Although this study seeks to present a comprehensive picture of the Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia on education policies, it is crucial to be aware of some limitations that might affect generalization and depth of the analysis. As this research is limited to a case-study of Egypt and Tunisia, insights that these two countries provide relevant to their socio-political contexts, may impose limitations in their application across other post-revolutionary contexts. History, culture and political aspects of each state can have impact on the form and efficiency of education policy reforms. Therefore, it is essential to understand that broad generalizations should be used with discretion and additional research is always required in similar contexts.

The methodology in this research include data collection and literature review, which implicitly has limitations. The depth of the analysis is affected by the availability and accessibility of historical documents, as well as other sources with relevant information. Moreover, this qualitative research may not be able to realistically reflect the complex socio-political factors that influence education policies. A mixed methods approach could provide a more comprehensive view of the issue, but resource limitations make such an approach impossible.

1.10 Outcome of the Research

This study of educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring presents a dramatic change for both states. These reforms, keyed by the need for education systems

embodied with democratic values, critical thinking, and economic relevance with the labor market, forced decentralization and curricular reforms. Egypt with a focus on administrative decentralization and technology, while Tunisia on depoliticizing education and strengthening democratic and critical thinking. The two countries improved in the teacher training although they lagged behind in implementing their reforms universally. What was essential to reach was aligning education with the labour market by strengthening vocational pathways. Attempts for inclusive and equitable access to education, especially in Tunisia, have potential but continue to face challenges. These reforms serve as a role model for the region and show the need for further investment and alignment of economic priorities with education.

Furthermore, this study emphasizes the constantly developing correlation between Islam and education in Egypt and Tunisia especially after Arab Spring. Egypt has experienced a struggle between secular and religious frames of education, with attempts to introduce more religious features into the program of education, whereas in the case of Tunisia the challenge has consisted in maintaining the secular education system in the background of rising religious openness. The two nations reflect a complicated relationship among religion, politics, and education that determine and shape their respective cultural and social landscapes in distinct ways.

The role of these education reforms is crucial for the societal and economic development of both states, as well as the boost of an educated population along with foreign investment, in order to provide a lasting modernization and democratization.

1.11 Structural Outline

This diploma thesis presents the research on the educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia with the following series. At first, the Introduction explores the evolution of education reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring, focusing on comprehending the influence of this event on the education system. It presents the methodology, scope, significance and limitations of the study as well as the historical background of the Arab Spring. Following, the Literature Review presents the existing literature concerning the educational context in Egypt and Tunisia, discussing the historical evolution of educational reforms and the role of education in political and social dynamics. Subsequently, the Methodology chapter details the research approach of Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA), explains the strengths and weaknesses of QCA, the theoretical framework, and the data collection and analysis methods. The Main Body of the paper analyses the pre-Arab Spring education systems in both countries, the challenges, the immediate effects of the Arab Spring, the relation between religion and education and the education reforms initiated post-Arab Spring. Through the Discussion following, the chapter compares the approaches and outcomes of education reforms in Egypt and Tunisia, analysing their similarities and differences, and discussing the influence of each country's political and social dynamics on these reforms. Concluding, the thesis reflects on the key findings, the broader impact of reforms on societal and economic development in Egypt and Tunisia and discusses the long-term implications.

2. Literature Review

This chapter focuses on several aspects of the educational scenes in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring, giving a critical analysis of its historical background and how contemporary reforms tried to develop it. This literature review provides a snapshot of the education field in Egypt and Tunisia prior and post-Arab Spring. With an analytic perspective on changes that took place in education policies throughout different sociopolitical eras, seeks to underline an integral role played by political, religious and cultural factors. This literature overview, though investigating the reforms in education, also analyses on what extend these changes influence the wider social and political processes in Egypt and Tunisia.

Middle East and North Africa experienced major political and socio-economic upheavals during the Arab Spring of 2011, which began in Tunisia. Rougier (2016), Paasonen & Urdal (2016) described how the Arab Spring was largely caused by a growling divide between the hopes of young people over limited socioeconomic opportunities, a product of gradual structural change in their economies. The theory that political deficiencies combined with socio-economic deficits in the form of unemployment, substandard education, and poverty could result in a group unrest helps to explain the rise of Arab Spring (Naazer et al., 2017). Although the leading reasons for the uprisings were typically considered to be economic and political factors, education was one of the most important factors that provoked youth to fight against autocracy (Kanaan, 2015.) Post-Arab Spring related educational policies, developed as a result of the combined socio-political changes that were interrelated with religious, cultural and political factors (Faour, 2012).

2.1 Egypt

Before 2011, the educational map in Egypt was outlined as a centralized safety valve with conventional teaching methods. This system being steeped in traditional teaching, a heritage of leaders like Nasser and Sadat who had undertook such reforms more for political consolidation rather than educational modernization (Ibrahim, 2010) was not able to cope with the needs of the time being. Ali S. Ibrahim (2010) conducted a study that gives an in-depth overview of educational reform in Egypt since the post-1952 period to date. Through scholarly analysis of efforts made by leaders such as Nasser and Sadat, the research unveils Egypt's past education system which formed its current base. This era was characterized by the centralization of curricula and teaching methods, as well as resistance to embracing foreign education patterns. Ibrahim's (2010) work is inspiring for the educational policies literature in Egypt on account of its attention to historical forces, alienation attitude, and struggle toward an endogenous intellectual revolution through engaging dynamically intricate sociopolitical context. In addition to the above, Hamed A. Ead (2019) contributes to this by presenting how European influence in the Egyptian higher education has changed over time and provides insight into historical relationships with European educational templates that have influenced the course of education in Egypt. His work also emphasizes the importance of post-2011 reforms in Egypt's education field, where historical legacies still play a vital role in moulding current education policies and practices (Ead, 2019).

The Arab Spring, a historical turning point in Egypt's education landscape, created political, administrative, and educational changes. Dina Allam (2021) researches these changes, with a focus on decentralization. The study deconstructs the complexity of interactions between international and national factors, revealing the dynamics surrounding the context of the educational reforms.

In her research, Dina Wafa (2015) explores the revolutionary influence of education and training stemming from public administration and executive courses in the post-Arab Spring Egypt. Her work (Wafa, 2015) lights on the challenges the educational institutions face in the post-revolutionary socio-political system. Wafa (2015) focuses on the need to adapt the teaching techniques to the requirements of transforming conditions, presenting the example of the American University in Cairo (AUC), which manoeuvred its courses and syllabuses in accordance with the events of the Arab Spring. The research highlights the importance of flexibility and responsiveness in teaching program design and implementation to meet the evolving needs of a dynamic society. The gender equality education system was one of the achievements of these reforms.

Langsten and Hassan (2018) highlight the notable success that has been achieved in terms of completion and enhanced access to primary education, especially for marginalized groups, like poor girls in rural areas. The research (Langsten & Hassan, 2018) points to a transition from problems related enrolment obstacles toward the concern regarding dropout rates, underlining the need for an extensive focus, not only on accessibility, but also on education quality. The results of their study (Langsten & Hassan, 2018) reveals a sharp rise in the national rate for primary school completion, among boys and girls – which may be interpreted as signifying successful endeavours aimed at bridging gender imbalances regarding education. Malgorzata Stopikowska and Yasser Mohamed El-Deabes (2012) examine the intricate dynamics of educational reforms in Egypt following the 2011 Arab Spring uprisings. One of the most important policy reforms that came as a result from their study (Stopikowska & El-Deabes, 2012) was the government's commitment to improving access to education. According to their analysis (Stopikowska & El-Deabes, 2012), it is clear that there has been a collective endeavour to improve enrolment rates and illiteracy, with a focus on the marginalised. Additionally, the authors (Stopikowska & El-Deabes, 2012) underline that the financial contribution of international organizations such as World Bank, UNESCO and UNICEF is pivotal in supporting Egypt's education reforms.

The initiatives including EDU 2.0 were among the key reform indicators after the Arab Spring. Moustafa et al. (2022), researched reform practices such as curriculum reform, technology integration and teacher training. In line with global paradigms, the EDU 2.0 project reflected the level of sophistication and aspiration for change in Egypt's education (Moustafa et al., 2022). Through its examination, the study reflected the multi-faceted character of the EDU 2.0 programme and the goals and challenges relevant to their implementation. The authors (Moustafa et al. 2022) managed to scrutinize various angles of the reforms, illuminating the dynamics in Egyptian education and resulting in the need of a monitoring and evaluation system supported by the teachers along with a community engagement to ensure that reforms such as this gradually become sustainable and success stories for Egypt's emerging education system.

Megahed et al. (2012) study reflects the transition from quantity to quality with an emphasis on transformations in education, and specifically curriculum teaching and learning practices, moving from traditional teacher-centered methods into student-centered and active-learning pedagogies. The major reform plans meant for promotion, discussed by the authors (Megahed et al., 2012), is The Education Reform Program (ERP), which had the backing of United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

Furthermore, Barsoum's (2020) investigation into the mechanism of reforms in education in post-Arab Spring Egypt brings additional alteration to the educational context as a result of interaction between decentralization and marketisation within private higher education. This study (Barsoum, 2020) highlights the difficulties associated with marketization in a system, that has an imprint of centralized control and restricted institutional independence. However, despite the rapid marketization processes, the study (Barsoum, 2020) shows that a theoretical evaluation model through input control persists with slow progress towards adoption of practical methods of assessment.

In addition to the above, Louisa Loveluck's (2012) report offers significant information regarding the complexities and challenges of Egypt's education system especially in the prism of the Arab Spring. The study (Loveluck, 2012) brings to the fore several crucial issues, which include private tutoring practices, management efforts to control curricula, teaching often geared towards preparing for exams, vocational education dilemmas and higher education financial restraints. One major dimension identified from the research (Loveluck, 2012), is that private tutoring in this respect plays a big role in educational disparities. The research by Marion Wood Dixon (2010) brings to foreground the efforts of the government to implement such regulatory measures towards private schools in a bid to respond to initiatives aimed at privatization since 1990. Whereas there are various decrees and councils that have been put in place to govern private education, the research (Wood Dixon, 2010) findings indicate that formal regulation of the private education market is weak while accreditation at international schools remains non-transparent. The findings of Dixon's (Wood Dixon, 2010) research seem to be a worthwhile document at the crossroads of neo-liberal governance and social issues in Egypt, contributing to the understanding of management reforms post-Arab Spring.

2.2 Tunisia

The Arab Spring in Tunisia was not just a political revolution, but a driver of changes in education. The story of the Arab Spring in Tunisia was greatly dominated by the education context as it played a significant role in both fuelling and responding to the demands for change (Schaefer, 2018). Education has been a core foundation for nation-building after Tunisia attained its freedom in 1956. The country has focused on universal primary education access to education at all levels of the social spectrum, and eradication of illiteracy (Office of Education, 1975). Education leaders in Tunisia have always endeavoured to create a system that meets the demands of a fast-developing country, while still maintaining its independent national and regional identity. The subsequent reforms were intended to correct imbalances, focusing on the harmonization of education with the labor market and democratic ideals. Champagne (2007) in his analysis goes deeper into the effects of these reforms in Tunisia's

sociopolitical sphere, where he delves at their impact on university education system and how they can challenge or affect the political and economic climate of a given country.

The Arab-Spring revolution was catalysed by the fact that there were political instabilities and a mismatch of education to market needs among other factors that contributed to rampant unemployment among the youths. Studying the Tunisian educational landscape after 2011, Isabel Schaefer (2018) takes into account the link between political instability and unemployment among youths. As Schaefer (2018) argues, the high level of the unemployment rate for the youth was one of the most important factors that led to 2011 revolution. An example of a considerable change in educational results over time was given by Miquel Pellicer (2017) in his article on the returns to education in Tunisia after Arab Spring. The study reveals that the rate of return to education is diminished, by nearly one-third for cohorts born between 1951-1970 compared to older generations (Pellicer, 2017). The Arab Spring, therefore, necessitated a quick review and overhaul of the education system to match dynamics on the ground with variations in governance systems and revolutionary reforms. This was important in creating an atmosphere of liberty for the development of knowledge. According to Adnan ElAmine, (2019) contrary to the political model of governance that has been widespread in public universities all over the Arab world which mostly limits academic freedom and dissent knowledge induction; Tunisia has embraced openness coupled by reforms in its state of higher education as further elucidated. Since the Arab Spring, this has contributed to Tunisia's unique path to democracy and educational advances.

Further, curriculum reforms were implemented and the Tunisian education system internationalized. The National Report template MERIC-Net (2019) provides a clear summary of the higher education system in Tunisia. It is important to note that central legislative reforms such as the 2008 Higher Education Act and initiatives in 2011 were aimed at internationalizing Tunisian universities—these underscore the fact that Tunisia strives for a proactive approach to its educational framework regarding national development and global trends (MERIC-Net, 2019).

Additionally, Ifa and Guetat (2018) discovered a direct relationship between investments of public funds in education and GDP per capita, pointing at economic effects caused by educational spending. Furthermore, the study by Rahmouni and Aleid (Rahmouni & Aleid, 2020) makes an essential contribution as it reveals the positive relationship between student motivation and supportive teaching techniques that are applicable to educational development in the MENA region. The "Tunisia Public Opinion Survey 2016" by Robbins (2016) shows a clear shift from rote learning toward an education system that develops critical thinking and practical skills.

Moreover, the post-Arab Spring period has unfolded a larger number of new tendencies associated to the social aspects of education, including gender issues and regional disparities. However, even when these changes are being observed, challenges still persists. The research by Marie Thourson Jones 'Regional Disparities and Public Policy in Tunisian Education' (Jones, 1986) examines the regional inequalities existing within the Tunisian despite nationwide schooling efforts.

Based on the analysis of provincial-level data, the paper (Jones, 1986) draws attention to the disparity between coastal and inland areas in terms of enrolment and attendance at prestigious educational fields and evaluates the relevance of public policy to these inequalities, revealing that areas with higher social and economic status usually deliver better educational results. Kashina (2021) investigates these pervasive obstacles of attaining gender equality in the educational field and points out that despite legal efforts directed at gender balance, fundamental social and cultural influences based on Islamic tradition affect educational preferences as well as career choices.

In their work, "Assessment of efficiency in basic and secondary education in Tunisia: A regional analysis," Sourour Ramzi, António Afonso, and Mohamed Ayadi (2016) analyse the efficiency of primary and lower secondary education in 24 governorates of Tunisia. The study does not show any relationship between school resources and educational efficiency but points out that there is regional variation in efficiency of education caused by poverty at varying levels. In spite of above-mentioned disparities, the education level of the general population in Tunisia has been rising over time with a reduction in illiteracy rate and an increase in secondary and tertiary levels of education (Ramzi et al.2016).

2.3 Conclusion

A comparative study of education policies in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring shows a scene fraught with substantial changes and continued challenges. The Arab Spring was a driving force for reviewing and revitalizing the education system in both countries.

Decentralization, gender equality, and modern pedagogical practices marked the reforms of education in Egypt. On the contrary, in Tunisia, the emphasis of reforms has been made on harmonizing traditional values with modern demands as well as aligning its education system with international norms.

3. Methodology

This chapter introduces the research methodology that was used to evaluate how Arab Spring affected the education systems in Egypt and Tunisia. With a focus on qualitative methodology, this section outlines why Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) was also selected for this study and its application to the current work. This chapter provides further information on the theoretical approach that underpins analysis, methods of data collection as well as ethics observed throughout the research. Using such methodological foundation allows for a rigorous and consistent analysis of the changes in socio-political sphere after the Arab Spring as far as education is concerned.

3.1 Introduction

Studying the reforms in education in Egypt and Tunisia due to the Arab Spring, this research pays attention to the actual strategies that were brought about in both countries and the success of such strategies to enhance access, quality, and inclusion in education. This study aims to identify and assess the reforms implemented, evaluate their impact, and compare the approaches of both countries to understand the reasons for their specific strategies.

The complicated sociopolitical changes that occurred in Egypt and Tunisia in the aftermath of the Arab Spring complicate the question of being able to define causal relationships through traditional statistical methods. Instead, qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) is intended for complex phenomena with many interacting factors without linear connections between them. (Hanckel et al., 2021)

QCA as a theory-driven approach, enables the researcher to integrate theoretical frameworks and concepts into the analysis (Hanckel et al., 2021). This aligns well with the dissertation's focus on understanding the interplay between education policies and sociopolitical transitions in post-revolutionary contexts.

This dissertation relies heavily on qualitative data extracted from documents, books, and scientific papers making QCA that can handle ordinal and nominal data effectively (Hanckel et al., 2021), suitable for analysing this type of information.

3.2 QCA

Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) is a powerful tool to deal with complex, nonlinear phenomena that go past the strictures of traditional statistics by analyzing intricate causal relationships such as non-linear dynamics and feedback loops. QCA is appropriate for non-randomized comparisons and does not need large sample sizes or randomized experiments but can be used in practical settings. Being driven by theory, it gives the possibility to include theoretical models that make obtained results more accurate and applicable in a broader area. Another feature that makes QCA widely used in social science research is that, it works well with ordinal and nominal data. Its superiority lies in being able to identify both

necessary and sufficient conditions for outcomes, give detailed knowledge concerning casual relationships among questioned variables as well as bring out the underlying mechanisms causing a given situation. (Scott & Marshall, 2009)

This research uses QCA approach to assess the nature of the educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring. Key to this approach is the acknowledgment of the complexity in educational systems which are shaped by a wide range of socio-political forces. The methodology relies on a structural analysis of the reform strategies adopted by the two countries and examines the specific social and political backgrounds that led to the reforms and hence their implementation. It critically analyses the educational responses to the Arab spring in relation to the historical, cultural and political backgrounds of each country. This comparative approach is not just a description but rather an analysis that aims to reveal the regularities and laws which guide educational reforms in the time of political turmoil. Through the use of this approach, therefore, the study goes beyond a simple comparison to allow for a much better understanding of the relationship between changes in sociopolitical context and education policy formulation. The results of this comparative analysis are intended to provide important lessons, not just for Egypt and Tunisia but also in other regions undergoing the same socio-political changes, portreying the need for contextual understanding in informing effective educational policies

3.3 Theoretical Framework

This study through a socio-political lens analyses the education systems in Egypt and Tunisia based on the theory that education is not only the medium of knowledge, but also a critical aspect of nation and state-building, identity formation and social change. (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990). The framework for this research is rooted in the impact of sociopolitical events on education systems. It explores the role of education both as a driving force, as well as a result of the transformative changes emerged from the Arab Spring.

Key Concepts

- **Education as a Sociopolitical Tool:**

Education is a fundamental tool used to mold an individual and even the society at larger. It is used as a hand of power in social mapping it helps pass content from one generation to the other and helps in nation-building. The utility of education in relation to sociopolitical transitions is that it can be used to instil democratic values, encourage active citizenship and create an egalitarian society. (Freire, 1970; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977).

- **Education Policy as a Reformative Mechanism:**

Education policies refer to the sets of formal or informal instructions that determine how the education process is organized, its content and style of communication. They demonstrate the needs, goals and objectives of an organization and they can be used to reform programs based on wider societal problems or desired outcome. (World Bank, 2015)

- **Sociopolitical Transitions as Moments of Change:**

The sociopolitical transitions are, in their own way, a period of considerable turbulence and changes. Such transitions frequently incorporate changes in balance of power, formation of new social agencies and redefinition of political values. (Huntington et al., 1991)

Theoretical Frameworks

- **Critical Pedagogy:**

Paulo Freire (1970) argues for critical pedagogy, which is basically education that enables people to critically analyse their social and political environment. Freire (1970) focuses on education as a tool for social justice by challenging power constructions and developing critical thinking abilities.

- **Social Reproduction Theory:**

The theory of social reproduction, one that was worked out by Pierre Bourdieu and Jean-Claude Passeron (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977), proposed that instead of modifying social disparities educational institutions only served to perpetuate them. This was their supposed role as they sustain these class-based hierarchies through cultural capital and relative power status (Apple, 2004; Giroux, 2003).

- **Political Sociology of Education:**

Political sociology of education focuses on the political aspects of education, as its role is determining and reflecting political ideologies of a nation and mobilization of citizens via politics in order to influence political outcomes (Arnové & Torres, 2003). It explores the role of education in promoting political stability, democracy practice, and socioeconomic change (Arnové & Torres, 2003).

- **Transition Theory:**

Transition theory, which was created as a tool to analyse democratic transitions, examines what favours or hinders the development of established democratic regimes. It focuses on political actors, social movements, and outside influences in the direction of the transition process (Macewan, 1988)

The use of the sociopolitical perspective provides a complete essential framework for analysing education policies post-Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia. In this model, education is seen as a living organism with many implications with social, political and economic settings. This lens provides an understanding of how education policies shape and are shaped by the socio-political state of affairs under the perception of education as a social establishment that contributes to the formulation of social norms, values, and identities. Moreover, educational policies are positioned as political means that embody the interests and values of the ruling elites and a tool which can support or impede particular social and political objectives.

3.4 Data Collection

In order to undertake an in-depth analysis of the education policies that have been implemented after Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia, a systematic collection of data is necessary, using both primary sources as well as secondary sources. The primary sources used in this research work included government documents such as education policy plans, ministerial decrees and legislative acts that offered insight into the objectives and approaches of reforms. Policies should reflect the impact on society and reports from NGOs provide a viewpoint with respect to marginalized groups. The issues related to public discourse and stakeholder reactions can be identified through media coverage, such as articles in newspaper and on the Internet.

Secondary sources include journal articles which have in-depth analysis and theoretical framework while other are books by education policy and development professionals to give an overview of the sector. Taylor and Francis, Google Scholar, and JSTOR are some of the web-based sources that provide access to diverse scholastic publications.

The process of data collection consists of several steps. To begin with, identify important key words concerning education policies and sociopolitical changes in Egypt and Tunisia background. Afterwards assign key phrases and words to these questions, based on which one can perform a thorough research in the numerous online portals including academic data bases, government websites and others of the sort. Organize important information as documents are found in a structured way such as authorship, publication year, title, main arguments and findings. Evaluate the level of quality and trustworthiness in these documents, adhering to characteristics such as authority of the author, source of publication, and methodological strength. Ultimately, the process is concluded by describing suitable qualitative or data analysis methods that can be applied to assess the collected data, interpret the findings in the context of the theoretical framework as well as discussing limitations of measured variables and implications for future research.

In order to conduct a thorough review on education policies in post-Arab Spring Egypt and Tunisia, it is important to choose articles that are methodologically rigor, well written and overall, of good quality. Additionally, these documents have to fit the topic of the question, and their accuracy has to be ensured based on relevance as well as credibility in order for them to not be outdated. The importance of a focus on extensive and trustworthy source is vital in terms of delivering reliable and interesting researching products. To avoid bias and fostering trust in the findings, credibility is built by using reputable sources that are known for their expertise, accuracy as well as rigorous methodology. A comprehensive analysis takes into account different points of view, and admits the limitations of evidence and the complexity of issues in order to prevent one-sided interpretations.

- ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center): <https://eric.ed.gov/>

- ProQuest: <https://www.proquest.com/>
- Taylor & Francis Online: <https://taylorandfrancis.com/>
- World Bank Open Knowledge Repository: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/>
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS): <https://uis.unesco.org/>
- Middle East Research and Information Project (MERIP): <http://www.merp.com/>
- Arab Thought Foundation (ATF): <https://www.atf.gov/>
- OECD iLibrary: <https://www.oecd.org/>
- Elsevier: <https://www.elsevier.com/>
- Google Scholar: <https://scholar.google.com/>
- HealLink: <https://www.heal-link.gr/en/home-2/>

3.5 Data Analysis

Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) while studying post-Arab Spring education policies in Egypt and Tunisia, involves four key steps: case identification, coding, matching, and tuning. First, the initial selection of cases tries to capture a variety of scenarios such as comparing Egypt and Tunisia; Egypt with other countries in MENA region or Egypt and Tunisia in difference points in time. The number of such cases depends on the issue to be resolved and the availability of data. Then coding is done for the key variables, namely outcome (e.g., education reform success) and causal conditions (e.g., political stability). Values of these variables are assigned to each case. The third one is the comparison, which brings out coded cases and analyses how patterns and relationships between variables have formed by identifying configurations of causal conditions associated with the outcome. To end with, calibration checks the stability and scope of results therefore ensuring strength. The high consistency and coverage imply the strength of its results to ascertain deep knowledge about the dynamics of education reforms in these situations.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Integrity and respect must be maintained in the course of conducting research by following ethical consideration relating to sensitive data or addressing concerns that maybe are related. Particular issues include authorization protocols to access sensitive information and privacy protection guidelines. Lastly, institutional review board approval will also be requested to guarantee the ethical standards including protection of rights and prevent plagiarism.

3.7 Conclusion

This thesis uses (QCA) Qualitative Comparative Analysis to analyse education policies in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab spring. QCA is being selected as it serves well in uncovering intricate cause-and-effect relationships within limited or medium-size samples. It gains strengths in detecting patterns of causal variables associated to certain effects; thus, suiting the identified need to analyse complex relationships between policy initiatives and educational outputs in the studied nations. Data collection and analysis will be quite varied whereby, government documents and academic journals will feature prominently as some of the sources. This approach substantially contributes to this Thesis by providing an insight of more coherence regarding education policies and results within the period following Arab Spring.

4. Impact of the Arab Spring on Education

This chapter is a comparative analysis of the short- and long-term impact of the Arab spring on education systems in Egypt and Tunisia. In such a way, conducting analysis of the pre-Arab Spring educational environments and reforms that have been introduced since 2011 including policy and curriculum changes, as well as their impact on social or political structures, provides one with an understanding of both strengths and weaknesses of these suggested reforms.

4.1 Pre-Arab Spring education systems

In order to understand the post-Arab Spring educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia, a comprehension of the pre-existing education systems and the challenges the two countries faced is needed.

In Egypt, prior to the Arab Spring, education served as tool, for the shaping of national identity, that was impacted by wider politics. It was highly centralized under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Higher education besides being a compulsory system that emphasized on traditional and religious components. Institutions such as Al-Azhar University played a crucial role in the efforts to combine Islamic values with secular and global views, which influenced Egyptians' perception of their national identity (Fitria et al, 2022). The textbooks also encouraged particular history narratives that subjected students to define their contemporary national identities (Meital, 2006). In addition, institutions such as Hayah International Academy, character education programs attempted to establish moral values, respect, responsibility and citizenship as a part of a wider national identity formation (Mattar & Khalil, 2011).

There was a reflection of dominant ideologies, such as neoliberalism, authoritarianism and Islamism in the sphere of education that contributed to nation building through constructing and contesting concepts of national identity and citizenship (Sobhy Ramadan, 2012). Universities turned into focal points of political upheaval leading to national consciousness among the students, thus creating a collective identity where every aspect was supposed to be based on political or social-related issues (Abdallah, 1985). The education system was also responsible for shaping the career outcomes of Egyptian women, encouraging changes in gender roles and increased involvement in areas such as science and medicine although these developments were primarily available to urban elites and middle classes (Howard-Merriam, 1979). The Western educational systems and the participation of international bodies such as World Bank and IMF were prerequisite in reforming Egypt's education system with the introduction of active-learning pedagogies and learner-centred approaches (Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008; Sayed, 2006).

In Tunisia, the educational system was based on nation-centred discourses in order to create an authentic Tunisian identity that would blend historical and cultural roots with contemporary schooling ideas (Roberts et al., 2017). The narrative of Tunisia as a protectorate of France that gained its independence, with post-independence reforms that aimed at modernisation, was reflected in the curriculum as an effort to shape a national identity (Jules & Barton, 2014). The system relied on the narratives about postcolonial

liberation and emphasized civic belonging as well as cultural exceptionalism. Understood in this way, informal challenges to the official narrative were dialectically related to formal education (Rozen, 2015). The fact that the Tunisian education system increased youth's political participation was important in making them more politically engaged as opposed to escalating grievances (Pellicer et al., 2017). However, concerns over the quality and access to education compromised this role of educational systems to integrate people into one homogenous national identity (Faour, 2012).

In summary, both Egypt and Tunisia's education systems per-Arab Spring are reflecting their unique historical and cultural journeys that played critical roles in shaping national identities while balancing traditional values with modern educational principles and political awareness.

Religious Aspects into the Historical Context of Education

The past historical and ideological development in knowledge and education in Islam has a profound impact on Muslim communities with its legacy rendering diverse interpretations that vary considerably between secular to ultraconservative. These changes have been quite profound in the Muslim world and specifically in countries like Tunisia and Egypt.

Originally, Islamic education was holistic since it encompassed both faith and world teachings. But the passage of time has seen this concept change into a more regional approach where some societies focused on other narrower aspects of religious training (Sabic-El-Rayess, 2020). Muslim educational practices were influenced by Islam especially at the colonial and post-colonial era as was evident in most regions of the Arab world. The invasion of Egypt by Napoleon Bonaparte and the European colonization resulted into cultural and political changes which influenced education systems priorities and ideologies (Sabic-El-Rayess, 2020). During this time Salafism was on the rise. It began as an anti-colonial movement and transformed into a number of factions, some with militant inclinations (Sabic-El-Rayess, 2020).

The modern Muslim world is characterized by intellectual backwardness and radicalization. In many Muslim communities, education has been reduced to religious indoctrination which only leads to a blind belief in the divine and at the expense of rationality and critical thinking. This has resulted in most societies having high illiteracy levels but surprisingly, many Muslims are also highly educated more specifically to the fields of science and technology. (Sabic-El-Rayess, 2020).

The relationship of knowledge and education in Islam reflects the complex interplay between historical, cultural, and political factors. The variety of interpretations that exists within Muslim societies, evolving due to historical processes and modern challenges, emphasize the necessity for a sophisticated approach in order to understand how Islamic education contributed to forming both individual and social identities in modern-day Egypt and Tunisia.

Egypt

The education system in Egypt was extremely centralized with the state enjoying a great position of authority and control on curricula, appointment of teachers and policies implemented for education. Such a structure was many times known to create bureaucratic ineffectiveness and unresponsiveness to local needs (Ginsburg et al., 2010). Egypt, although it had reported very high school enrolment rates (Sakani & Zohry, 1994), the quality of education is one area that raises concern. However, overcrowded classroom in terms of poor trained teachers and the use of inefficient methods gave negative returns to education (Elbadawy, 2014). Educational facilities and opportunities varied greatly between rural and urban, high class and poor citizens. This created a cycle of inequality among the social classes and restricted upward socio-economic movement. (Megahed, 2008). Egyptian universities suffered massive overcrowding, inadequate funding and political encroachment. Gradually, there was a mismatch between the graduates acquired skills and those required by the labor market which then gave rise to unprecedented high unemployment rates among the youths (Sywelem & Makhoul, 2023).

Interrelationships of religion with political realms in Egypt have experienced notable variances from the era of King Faruk to the regime of Hosni Mubarak. King Faruk instrumented the use of religious organizations such as Al-Azhar University to counter liberal opposition (Platteau, 2011). This method was also developed by Anwar Al-Sadat, lift the ban (placed during Nasser's age) to the Muslim brotherhood to engage his leftist enemies (Platteau, 2011). But after 1979 when Sadat made a peace agreement with Israel, radical groups such as Jama'at Islamiyya posed a challenge to the regime with them doubting Sadat's legitimacy on Islamic issues. This led to the establishment of the Permanent Islamic Congress for the Propagation of Islam (Platteau, 2011). Hosni Mubarak who succeeding Sadat, suppressed the Islamist outfits with one hand and with the other ensuring that all of the state's religious bodies remained under government control (Al-Awadi, 2005).

The influence of Wahhabism as a result increased within the Egyptian nation, which was entangled with intra-national discord, and once again resorted to more rigid Islamic interpretations (Starrett, 1998). It happened at the same time when religious beliefs were becoming radical in all Muslim countries – either because of political leaders' initiatives to make them a defence means or with involvement of urban communities dissatisfied with the regime (Davis, 1984). This had been brought about by the failure of governments to meet the challenges of modernity through socialism, nationalism and secularism that were defiantly the dominants ideologies post-independence (Guirguis, 2012).

Thus, this historical computation that can be traced in Egypt demonstrates how religious groups shaped the social and political life of the country at different times and were frequently used very pragmatically by various political regimes.

Tunisia

Tunisia was frequently mentioned in a positive context with regards to its education system that enjoyed high rates of literacy and gender equity in educational attainment. Nevertheless, its quality and relevance were still areas of major challenges (Abdessalem, 2010). Education was oriented toward rote learning, leaving little regard for critical thinking and problem-solving skills. This hindered students from adapting and innovating in an ever-dynamic global setting. Similar to Egypt, there was an imbalance between the education system and

the labor market. Even though young Tunisians achieved higher education, the majority of them were unemployed or underemployed. Education in Tunisia was also deployed as a political instrument through its provision only of the ideologies necessary to be upheld by the ruling party's regime (Brody-Barre, 2013) thereby asphyxiating free speech and open criticism (ElAmine, 2019).

Post-independence Tunisia, aimed to give students modern skills, due to this fact, religious education was reduced into a course known as Islamic Education (Jaidi et al.2020). In the 1970s, the Ministry of Education revised the Islamic education syllabus to guard the youth against Marxism-communism and maintain religion as one of Tunisian's identity pillars. After political and cultural dynamics, such as the emergence of Political Islam, the Ministry of Education abolished the Sharia Sciences department and called for a conscious religious education reform. The disruption of the political and economic systems in the mid-1980s caused confrontations with the Islamic Tendency Movement (Jaidi, 2020). Subsequently, reforms were carried out in the sphere of education with "Islamic Education" (for primary to middle-level education) and the new subject of "Islamic Thought" (for secondary level) being introduced to inculcate critical thinking ability among students and abolish intellectual extremism practices (Jaidi, 2020). During the period of Ben Ali, reforms advocated for liberal Muslim thoughts featured Darwinian evolution and big bang theory in the science syllabus (Faour, 2012).

In both countries, prior to the advent of Arab Spring, the education systems had their respective sources of power and while they achieved reasonable success at various points in time however had serious flaws. These systems were marked by either quality versus access disequilibrium or labor mismatch and failure to encourage creative output. These elements played a key role in enhancing the need of the public to revolt, especially among the youth that would ultimately be responsible for igniting Arab Spring.

4.2 Challenges faced by the education sectors

Egypt

Egyptian public schools were overcrowded and suffered chronic deprivation due to underfunding. Lecture halls were normally overcrowded, hence teaching and learning could not be done effectively. In turn, due to the lack of proper financing, there was a low level of infrastructure, inadequate learning materials, and meager wages for teachers – all key factors leading to the degradation of quality of education. (Zahran, 2023). The curriculum was far removed from what prevailed in the job market, it entirely neglected practical skills and critical thinking, proved to be extremely theoretical and outdated, thus leaving graduates unemployable. One crucial problem was related to the quality of teaching. Most of the teachers were not well prepared and compensated, thus creating a lack of motivation and a reliance on private tutoring to increase their income, thereby making disparities worse. The education system was centralized with little opportunities for innovation or local initiatives. The schools were not in a position to change the curriculums or methods of teaching so as to benefit their students or even respond to the challenges within their respective localities.

Tunisia

The Tunisian education system was heavily reliant on rote learning and memorization (Akkari, 2005). Methods of assessment were concerned with standard tests which were poor in terms of students' knowledge and critical thinking. This method acted as a barrier to the enhancement of creative and analytical abilities. (Al-Khadra et al., 2022). Literacy levels and the number of students in educational institutions were high, however, these factors were not aligned with the labor market. This meant that a large number of the graduates ended up lacking employability skills and hence, the levels of unemployment among the educated youth was high (Kthiri 2019). Although Tunisia recorded notable progress in access to education, there were still inequalities especially between urban and rural communities and among various socioeconomic classes. The opportunity to have a good education along valuable educational resources became dependent in many cases on an individual's social and topographical status (Akkari, 2005). Academia was politicized with limited academic freedom and possibilities for open discussion. Curriculum had played a big part in this since it was most compromised and reflected the government's agenda hence inhibiting development of independent minds which could operate independently (ANDET, 2019).

In Egypt and Tunisia, these issues made educational reform urgent. While there was much more social discontent that fuelled the Arab Spring movements, the disadvantages of the educational systems were a major reason for the uprisings. After 2011, both areas followed the way of political and social changes, and the issues in question had to be solved.

4.3 Immediate effects of the Arab Spring on the education systems in Egypt and Tunisia.

The Arab Spring had an immediate and significant effect on the education systems of both Egypt and Tunisia, as revolutions in these states were followed by radical political transformations that led to the rethinking and re-construction of educational policies and practices.

Egypt

On the onset, Arab Spring paralyzed the education sector. (Mazawi, 2015). Schools and universities shut down and the exams were cancelled (Wafa, 2013; Kohstall, 2015). During this time of revolution, students and educators participated fully with unprecedented levels of mobilization. An essay on the Arab Spring and theory of relative deprivation (Naazer, Farooq & Ahmed, 2017) sheds light on, how well-educated youth by using social media played a huge role in the uprisings; thus, calling for reforms to achieve socioeconomic elevation. With Egypt's liberation from Hosni Mubarak's regime there were great opportunities to discuss and set significant policies on education. The reform of education and civil society was profound, with a bias toward more democratic and politically active curricula (Mirshak, 2020; Sharobeem, 2015). Regardless, the reaction of the authoritarian regime was featured by systemic learning and adjustment to a new political landscape (Heydemann & Leenders, 2011). The education system was pushed to become decentralized, with transparency in education systems and a reduction in government control. One early after-effect was the

revision of curricula, that had been criticised for propagating authoritarian values (Mano Singham, 2005), with a focus on democratic values, human rights and critical thinking.

Additionally, the revolution revealed the problems of university students and the necessity to change higher education primarily in relation to academic freedom, university governance, and fulfilling a demand in the job market. (Mazawi, 2015; Altbach, 2015; Waterbury, 2019; Sharobeem, 2015; Wafa, 2013). Some of the key areas that were crucial and needed attention in the reforms included the educational challenges identified post-Arab Spring, such as, increased disparities in education as well as a growing gap between the market demand and the educational output (Alharbi, 2018). Reforms that focus on preparation for the labor market through the education systems clearly identifies the learning aspect as a process of social change and economic earning. (Alharbi, 2018).

Education in Egypt has been a blend of secular and sacred factors that lead to complexity (Neil, 2006). Even before the Arab Spring, the education had a separate state system based on a secular basis but included religious teaching primarily about Islam as the main religion. Nonetheless, the emergence of political Islam that was driven mainly by Muslim Brotherhood as witnessed during and after Arab Spring created arguments on the place of religion in learning (Dalacoura, 2018). Under the short-lived government of the Brotherhood, there were efforts to develop even closer connections between religious ideologies and educational content in an attempt to raise generation in compliance with their Islamic approaches (Wafa, 2013). However, the movement was challenged by numerous fronts who feared that secular educational values would slowly fade (Pahwa, 2013).

Tunisia

At the height of the revolution, there was a short break in Tunisia's educational sector (Abdeljaoued, 2018) opening a discourse on the future direction of education. The post-Arab Spring period was built upon serious educational reforms directed at contending with persistent challenges and new socio-political realities (Pellicer, 2017). During this period, the country's economy lost a significant output along with investments identified as the primary target of impact (Matta, 2016). Therefore it became apparent the need for a solution in regard with not only the economic but also political landscape challenges of the nation; hence, American community college model was suggested (Hagedorn, 2013). Another immediate reaction concerning the education system was the abolishing of political indoctrination, which took shape during Ben Ali's rule. Curriculum was depoliticized as a means of opening the educational space by bringing critical perspectives into it. (Tsourapas, 2013; Paciello, 2011).

After the revolution, there was a direction towards removing disparities present within the education system and enhancing its quality. These encompassed measures intended to minimize inequalities between schools in cities and those in the countryside and improve standards of teaching and learning. Education inequalities at regional level were exposed with a demand for public policy solutions. The role of public policies in funding and enhancing quality of higher education was also highlighted (Abdessalem, 2011) alongside the plight of teachers and learners in rural settings, concerning curriculum relevance and infrastructure (Adedeji, 2011).

The advantages to be gained from lowering the age at which English is taught in primary schools were considered, highlighting the policies of reform that should be pursued by educational policy makers (Amara, 2022). Finally, the Gini index (the Gini Index is a summary measure of income inequality) was also applied for the assessment of regional disparity in education among people from inland and rural areas (Trabelsi, 2013).

In terms of the role of education in relation to the labor market, it was observed that there was a decrease in the utility value posed by education for any good job, therefore calls for reforms aimed at enhancing graduate's employability and ensuring educational outcomes were aligned with those from labor market (Pellicer, 2017). The Arab Spring also fostered patterns of structural unemployment and raised layoff rates in the labor market. In addition, the re-establishments of the national identity were seen in socio-economic terms as a failure by the Tunisian youth (Gabsi, 2017).

Inequality in the higher education (Krafft & Alawode, 2018) among other factors came to result in a reformist course at higher education through emphasis on better academic freedom, improved university affairs and more relevant educational abilities to the economy. The reformations consisted of a necessity for strengthening the autonomy and accountability in public universities (Boughzala, 2016) besides with quality and effectiveness of education while reducing costs (Abdessalem, 2011).

In Tunisia, however, religion and education had a separate path. Pre-Arab Spring Tunisia was lauded as a secular nation in terms of its governance and control, founded by the first president Habib Bourguiba and maintained further by his successor Zine El Abidine Ben Ali. Still, the deposition of Ben Ali in 2011 cleared that way for even greater visibility of religious symbols in all aspects of public life, including education (McCarthy, 2014). The subsequent emergence of the Ennahda Party brought about a kind of balancing act in maintaining state secularity and incorporating Islamic viewpoints through education. During this period there were discussions on how to incorporate the teachings of religion in a way that maintained Tunisia's secular tradition.

Conclusion

Both countries have placed education at the centre of policy debates in the wake of Arab Spring. These changes were part of the wider hopes for democratization, social equity and economic prosperity that precipitated the Arab Spring uprisings. The education reforms, which started to be implemented during this period, became critically important for promoting long-term development and stability in Egypt and Tunisia.

4.4 Education Reforms in Egypt

Following the Arab Spring, Egypt initiated a number of educational reforms in the ambitious plans to restructure its education system as well as resolve some earlier underlying problems; these changes also fit into the general context of social and political ambitions. The curriculum underwent a major revision that entailed henceforth the elimination of educational aspects associated with ideologies propagated by the previous regime and the incorporation of teachings sought to emphasize democratic values, civic engagement and human rights.

Moreover, efforts to enhance the education quality were assembled by providing a modern curriculum, efficient employee technology, educational and non-athletic activities, effective teachers and leadership in schools as well as opportunities for professional and inner development (Ewiss, 2019). There was a shift from rote learning to encouraging critical thinking and problem-solving skills, aiming to foster more capable students. (Winter, 2023). The vision of the Ministry of Education was to generate human resources with growing competency, productivity, performance and integrity to create a knowledge-based society and economy. This vision was consistent with the principles of the UN Charter on Human Rights, which aimed to provide all sections of a school-age population an opportunity for secondary or general education, while focusing more on backward areas. (Ewiss, 2019). These strategic objectives followed the educational policies used in 2000-2010, which focused on accessibility, quality, and effectiveness of the institutional systems.

Noticing the failures of a highly centralized system of education delivery, since 1990 in government policies, the steps toward decentralization of education have been promoted with an accelerated tempo on part of the Egyptian state (Allam, 2021). This meant providing greater independence to local education authorities and schools (Zahran, 2023) so that they can adapt decisions according to their local needs with the end purpose of empowering more responsive and context-based educational measures. To promote the efforts of Education's decentralized governance, policies that aimed at technical schools and the enhancement of education personnel were put in place. (Ewiss, 2019). An enormous capital was invested in enhancing the schools' structural support, especially for those located in rural and underprivileged zones across the county. This move was completed in April 2020 when Egypt unveiled an ambitious strategy of pumping 6.8 billion EGP into construction projects to reduce overcrowding in the classrooms through new schools and additional classrooms (Winter, 2022).

Recognizing the importance of educators in creating a new-age generation, the government has introduced some new programs for teachers' training and professional development initiatives. Such programs intended to strengthen the approaches used for teaching and enhance the quality of education. One of the major reforms after Arab Spring was the EDU 2.0 overhauls. New courses for teacher training and teaching improvement were initiated with orientations to up-to date and innovative pedagogy such as classroom management and student involvement techniques. To enhance teaching standards and maintain teacher morale, it was important to introduce teachers' incentives as well as an evaluation system. (Moustafa, et al., 2022). Additionally, there was a focus in the incorporation of technology into learning by improving digital literacy and utilizing educational software and online learning systems. (OECD, 2015).

Regarding the system of higher education, a major level of autonomy was granted to institutions, concerning governance, development of curricula and research initiatives, in order to reflect the labour market needs and encourage entrepreneurship and innovation among students. (Lindsey, 2012). In addition, vocational and technical education was bolstered as a deviation from the traditional academic path integral in producing practical

skills among students for easier job placements. (Loveluck, 2012).

These reforms showed the departure from previous approaches of Egyptian universities, creating a fruitful environment for critically thinking and innovations, as well practical oriented with contemporary needs. As a part of a broader national agenda, these reforms intended to contribute to the country's progress, development, and democratization in the post-Arab spring era.

2013	2014	2015
<p>The Egyptian Ministry of Education introduced a new education system based on three levels:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary education (6 years) • Secondary education (3 years) • Tertiary education (4-6 years) 	<p>The Egyptian government announced a plan to increase state funding of education:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From 2.5% of GDP to 4% of GDP by 2020. 	<p>The Egyptian Ministry of Education introduced new educational programs and teaching methods:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To improve students' knowledge and skills. • To prepare students for the labor market.
<i>(Stopikowska, 2012)</i>	<i>Ministry of Education and Technical Education. (2023). Education Sector Plan for Egypt.</i>	<i>(UNESCO, 2015)</i>

Table 1: Educational reforms in Egypt 2013-2015.

2016	2017	2018
<p>The Egyptian government launched a program to strengthen vocational education and training:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construction of new vocational education and training schools. • Provision of scholarships to students to attend vocational education and training programs. 	<p>The government of Egypt announced a plan to promote equality and justice in education:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of special support to students with disabilities and from vulnerable social groups. 	<p>The Egyptian Ministry of Education introduced a reform program called EDU 2.0.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher training • Teaching improvement • Up-to date and innovative pedagogy
<i>(Elsaher & Marzouk, 2019)</i>	<i>(Ahmed et al. 2023).</i>	<i>(Moustafa et al., 2022)</i>

Table 2: Educational reforms in Egypt 2016-2018

The EDU 2.0 reform program is an educational transformation project aimed at bringing the Egyptian primary and secondary education system in line with the aspects of modernism, which was launched by Egypt's Ministry of Education and Technical Education in 2018. This reform aimed at the transition from old-fashioned rote learning to an education system that focuses on critical thinking, knowledge-oriented inquiry, and continuing education.

Main components of EDU 2.0 are shown in the table below.

Multidisciplinary Curriculum	Technology Integration	Professional Development	Access and Infrastructure	Reformed Assessment
Based on 21st-century skills and competencies. Developed in collaboration with international organizations and private entities.	Incorporation of digital technologies and resources, like the Egyptian Knowledge Bank, to enhance learning and teaching methods.	Continuous professional development programs for teachers. School management to ensure effective delivery of the new curriculum and pedagogies.	Improvement of the accessibility and quality of educational infrastructure to address issues like overcrowding and resource shortages.	Alteration from high-stakes exams to more comprehensive assessments that align with the multidisciplinary approach Focus on competency-based learning.

Source: (Moustafa et al. 2022)

Table 3: EDU 2.0

The successful adoption of these reforms is faced with challenges such as equitable distribution of resources, quality implementation, and cultural acceptance among the education community. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has speeded up some aspects of reform, especially regarding virtual teaching and learning, which emphasized the need to adapt to the new conditions. (Moustafa et al. 2022).

Religious integration in education post-Arab Spring

The post-Arab Spring climate was largely compatible with the goals of the Muslim Brotherhood's Freedom and Justice Party (FJP), without a push for significant changes. The curriculum included both monotheistic perspectives of Christianity and Judaism and a more conservative Islamic viewpoint. However, there was a focus on rote learning and memorization with less emphasis on developing analytical thinking skills (Faour, 2012). The Freedom and Justice Party (FJP) under Mohamed Morsi who won the presidential elections of 2012 (Al Jazeera, 2012), endorsed modern methods of instruction in scientific subjects, such as critical thinking and dialogue, but the Muslim Brotherhood emphasized the importance of religious education and ranked the learned above the ignorant (Faour, 2012). New religious education initiatives proposed by the Egyptian Family House, led by Al-Azhar, emphasised in diversity and basic freedoms in an attempt to incorporate courses that

embodied the common values and morals of Islam and Christianity (Faour, 2012). Moreover, the FJP party did not include the introduction of sharia or Islamic codes of conduct in schools (Faour, 2012).

In the post-Arab Spring Egypt, under President Abdel Fattah El-Sisi, a reassertion of state control over religious discourse in education, aiming to curb extremist ideologies was evident. This effort involved a series of educational reforms focusing on the promotion of religion tolerance and coexistence while countering radical views.

The key educational reforms introduced under President Sisi's government included:

- Advancing a School Curriculum Emphasizing Interreligious Tolerance
- Removal of Quranic Verses from General Curriculum
- Development of a New Curriculum for Human Rights and Religious Tolerance
- Inclusion of Jewish Scripture in Education
- Curb of Extremist Ideologies and Moderate Religious Learning
- Banning of Extremist Materials from Mosque Libraries
- Combatting Atheism through Al-Azhar's Bayan Unit

Source: Office of International Religious Freedom (2022)

These reforms and measures adopted were by the Egyptian government under President el-Sisi to establish religious education and discourse that will shape a more tolerant and accommodating society in combating extremism. Though some see such reforms as policies that have the capacity to deal with the source of radicalization, critics concern about their possible limitations and cases prohibition impacts, claiming that the state's domineering style of religious instruction could strangle academic freedom and marginalize other faith (Ibrahim, 2023).

Under President Abdel Fattah El-Sisi, significant reforms were introduced in Egypt's education system in 2019 as part of the National Project for the Development of the New Education System (Mirshak, 2020).

The key reforms included:

Limiting Rote Memorization	Curriculum focused on the development of critical thinking skills.
Alteration of the Assessment Systems	Introduction of the Grade Point Average (GPA) system which is not fully weighted to final exams.
Training of Teachers	Provision to train around 500,000 teachers to adapt to the new educational methodologies and technologies.
Introducing Electronic Learning Platforms	Implementation of technology in education to modernize the learning process.
Curriculum Content from International Sources	Content from Pearson, Britannica, and Discovery Education, as well as parts of the American curriculum.
Financial Support	Part-funded by the World Bank, with a total cost of around \$2 billion.

Source: Mirshak (2020).

Table 4: National Project for the Development of the New Education System, key reforms

4.4.1 Assessment of the implementation.

The process of carrying out the educational reforms after the Arab spring in Egypt can be described as being complicated, successful at different levels and full of challenges. The assessment of these reforms demands comprehension concerning their practical orientation as well as their influence on the education system and society.

While the direction towards decentralization was a key reform, its implementation faced challenges. In a system, where centralization had reigned for decades, the changeover to decentralisation meant a great deal, in terms of administrative structures, that met resistance and bureaucratic barricades (Barsum, 2018). The curriculum overhaul and the initiatives to train new teachers were achievable, however, the implementation was a fast process that resulted in certain inconsistencies and gaps, especially with regards to ensuring that all teachers had received adequate training on how to deliver the new curriculum. (Wafa, 2013). Investment into educational infrastructure proved to be more successful in the short term as

many schools were given overdue, much needed improvements. Nonetheless, the level of advancements differed greatly as some schools saw massive improvements while others left behind (Elbadawy, 2014). The poor infrastructure systems in place and the lack of access to quality services in the rural and poorer regions did not make these interventions effective (Mogheith, 2019). In addition, the adoption of technology in education was received well but shed light on a case of digital inequality. (Mogheith, 2019)

Reception of the revised curriculum is positive in general, and students reportedly find their educational experience more interesting and meaningful. However, impact on educational returns is still unfolding. (Wafa, 2013). Reforms on teacher training have proved to be of good quality in their performance, but there are different levels of implementation and quality across various regions (Ginsburg, 2011). Reports of school enrolment show an increase with lowered dropout rates especially in regions where infrastructure improvement was major (Elsayed, 2020). The integration of higher education in the labour market demands is underway and therefore the procedure remains in transition. Such is additionally the attitude towards vocational and technical education (Issa, 2012).

The consequences of the political uprising that came in the wake of the Arab Spring were multidimensional for Egyptian education due to both direct and indirect events. Although the physical destruction that targeted educational infrastructure was minimal, the disruptions resulting from closures of learning institutions and academic schedules were profound (Mirshak, 2020). The psychological climate of uncertainty had profound implications for students' mental health and their approach to education (Liu et al. 2019). While the physical impact on schools was limited, uncertainties about the future increased dramatically and played a much larger role in areas where protest activity was moderate (Liu et al. 2019). The increase in household education spending, especially at tertiary levels, counterbalanced the negative impacts of the unrest (Liu et al. 2019). A call for curriculum changes in this period was also evident in order to reflect better the changing political scene and previously concealed topics, such as democracy and human rights (Mirshak, 2020).

The Arab Spring increased political consciousness among students and educators, prompting them into discussing politics and social affairs more actively in various learning environments (Mirshak, 2020). At the same time, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), provided political education on citizens by creating alternative spaces for learning and discussing problems outside formal educational systems (Mirshak, 2020). Additionally, the uprising of the Arab Spring caused a reconsideration of educational focus, away from traditionally rote learning methods but into critical thinking and political literacy (Mirshak, 2020). In brief, the political turmoil of the Arab Spring in Egypt created a variety of factors which interacted to alter the educational terrain. This indicated that there was a complex dynamic between politics and educational practices and policies.

The relation between Islam and education in Egypt today.

The education system of Egypt entails religious education provided by Al-Azhar, which contains all Islamic studies taught in grade-school institutes. Students have no option but to take all the religion courses available; however, these course units do not count towards their total grades as they either pass or fail.

The curriculums focused on Islam are an essential component of the Egyptian educational policies and Islamic education, Arabic language learning as well social training. These largely have inculcated the behaviour that is conservative-Islamic-centric leaving no room for religious pluralism or other faith. (Ibrahim, 2023) It is also important to note that the module of Islamic studies is generally limited only to Muslim students, depending on terms – Christian students have their classes about religion (Ibrahim, 2023). Most of the other subjects are taught without any elements that signify instruction in another religion, but there are Islamic religious lessons such as Quranic texts and Islamic history.

Reforms notwithstanding, the current system of teaching in schools is found to be oppressive with regard to other religions and faiths as it is overly discriminatory for Sunni Islam. This premise necessitates a more pluralistic approach to education, based on human rights.

Islam has been an important part of the education system in Egypt. Islamic teachings have been a common feature in educational content with textbooks focusing on religious doctrines and norms, as a continuity to the overall context of the religious influence in public life. In the state schools, Islamic education is a separate subject however it is also incorporated into the study of Arabic language and social studies. Nonetheless, religious teachings and the manner of its presentation in education differs to some extent since it inclines more toward conservative Islamic values at times with negative impacts on pluralistic standards or other faiths.

To conclude, the educational reforms post-Arab Spring in Egypt have resulted in many changes and improvements that are continuously developing. Thus, by addressing the outlined process, one will be able to shed light on various issues inherently connected with the state in a social and political dimension. The implementation of the educational reforms is a significant milestone on the road to advancing Egypt's education system into one that is better and equally serves people, though further developments should be made in order to fully unleash its potential.

4.5. Education Reforms in Tunisia

The Arab Spring represented a milestone for Tunisia, not only in the context of political change but also concerning education. In this post-revolution era, a series of reforms were seen to take place in the Tunisian education system in order to renovate it so as to fuse it with democratic ethics and the contemporary societal requirements.

Ennahda, a major political party in Tunisia, came to power following the country's first democratic elections after the Arab Spring. They won a plurality of seats in the Tunisian Constituent Assembly election in October 2011. (Al Jazeera, 2011). This victory marked Ennahda's rise in Tunisian politics and its significant role in the country's transition towards democracy.

Originally an Islamic movement, Ennahda turned into the political party that incorporated democratic values. This change was characterized by divorcing the organization's religious functions from its political activities which was a critical move given Tunisia's post-

revolution environment (Filali-Ansary, 2016). This change was based on domestic and regional aspects that made the party become more moderate (Cimini, 2021). The approach followed by Ennahda had an objective of the integration of Islamic values in a framework that was modern and democratic, whereby identity is religious but respects requirements of a socio-political democracy. This move was indicative of a wider picture in which political Islam turned towards the realities of ruling under rapidly evolving sociopolitical landscapes (Filali-Ansary, 2016).

As the Egyptian counterpart, Tunisia also strived to decentralize its education system. This was by ensuring a wider range of stakeholders in the decision-making processes which would include, educators, parents and civic society organizations among others. (Jules 2014; Milovanovitch 2014). This transition was undertaken by giving local education authorities and schools more power to deal with their specific regional problems (Milovanovitch, 2014). Among the initial and impactful modifications, political indoctrination was taken out of the syllabus. This was an important stage in the educational transformation, where the education system became a tool to foster democratic values, critical thinking, and an environment for open discussions. To help the country develop a well-informed and active citizenry, the new curriculum contained courses that promoted knowledge in human rights, civic duties, and democratic doctrines. (Al-Khadra et al.). Over and above the content of the subjects, more focus was placed on skills and competencies as critical thinking, problem-solving and communication. Attention was moved from learning facts by heart into developing reflective, analytical and problem-solving skills. (Akkari, 2005) in order to make students not only obtain academic knowledge but be competent at all spheres of life due to the fast global development.

Furthermore, Tunisia realized the necessity of technological advances in education. Digital literacy support, integration of technology into the learning process, and expansion of educational accessibility via online platforms were implemented. (Dridi, 2023). Steps were taken to eliminate inequalities of access and provide quality education between the rural and urban communities. This involved enhancement of infrastructure as well as targeting resource distribution to deprived areas (Krafft, 2018). This enlightened that inclusive education demanded that every part of the society should access to quality learning regardless of whether it belonged to a marginalized group. (International Labour Organization, n.d.)

Universities received greater autonomy and academic freedom, which sharply differed from the tight control of the previous regime. The autonomy was meant to ensure that the academic community was more vibrant and could function independently (ElAmine 2019). Additionally, research capabilities and innovation were sought in the higher education backed up by the increased share of resources put in education especially universities through public financing (Abdessalem, 2011). Institutions of higher learning were advised to participate in research that suited the objectives of national development as well as the emerging global scientific discoveries. Therefore, the emphasis on research as an essential element of achieving national development goals is confirmed by Tunisia's active policy regarding sustainable and efficient energy use (Saidi, 2014). Such focus on research is essential for the development of the national and worldwide knowledge-based economy (Altbach, 2013).

As in the case of Egypt, Tunisian tertiary institutions were urged to reform their curriculum and programs to be more relevant to the labour market as well as tackle the problem of

unemployed graduates. (Khelifi, 2022). Understanding that the academic traditional path did not match with the labor markets' demands, Tunisia made efforts in improving the vocational and technical education pathways. These conduits played an important role in the contemporary economy and hence, considerable funds were injected towards their improvement thus equipping students with skills that were of immediate practical benefit (Horvitz et al., 2020; Abdessalem 2011). These endeavours sought to to increase the variety in education of Tunisian people, and therefore increase employability.

Keeping in mind that effective curriculum implementation is highly dependent on the competency of teachers (Muharlisiani et al., 2019) focus was laid heavily towards elevating teacher training. This comprised of recent programmes on approaches to pedagogy and class administration, driving towards modern educational methods (Saidi, 2019).

These measures have been a collection of reformist moves towards the harmonization and alignment of the Tunisian education system to that which represents its desire for democratization coupled with projected economic necessities in the country's post-revolution period. They were motivated by the perspective of developing an education system, which would not simply provide individuals with knowledge but also teach them to be active and responsible citizens in a democratic society.

Religious integration in education post-Arab Spring

Following the Tunisian Revolution, parallel education systems with a religious character increased. This included Qur'anic schools that did not follow the prescribed syllabus and enterprises of al-Zaytuna Mosque to supplement an unofficial religious education. (Jaidi et al. 2020). Although, modern teaching styles as critical thinking and dialogue were supported by Ennahda, the ruling party, the problem of Ennahda impacting the education system was closely related to Tunisian long time matured civil secular society. The strategy that Ennahda came up with on implementing sharia in the education sector was liberal. (Faour, 2012).

Even though Tunisian public schools offer Islam as the only religion taught in school, their approach to religious instruction has always been liberal, focusing on instilling tolerance and respect for other faiths (Faour, 2012). This involves advancing the universal recognition of Western democratic values and implant awareness into issues revolving around religion (Faour, 2012).

In Tunisia, the post-Arab Spring era declared the state control over religious discourse in education. The Tunisian government implemented various education reforms (Office of International Religious Freedom, 2022) concerning religion and countering violent extremism:

- Mandatory Islamic Education
- Inclusion of Other Religions in Curriculum
- Religious Sessions for Prisoners Identified as Extremists
- Promotion of Moderation and Tolerance by Imams

4.5.1 Assessment of the implementation.

The change in the educational ethos of Tunisia was marked with a new curriculum focused on democratic values, human rights as well as promoting critical thinking. The revised

curriculum promoted the student enrolment with a more open-minded, conscious, and active population. (Al-Khadra et al.). Besides with the shift toward decentralization that created customized approaches to education (Yousfi, 2019), Tunisia forwarded to a more flexible and adaptable education system. Better teacher training and development programs resulted in increasing teaching quality (Looney, 2015). Teachers were more prepared to deliver a new form of syllabus, and class dynamics became livelier and informative for learners. Vocational education exposed learners to the work environment transitioning them directly from school into employment contributing to narrowing the divide between skill-based learning and labor market needs (Khelifi, 2022). Concerning inclusivity, the education reforms by targeting marginalized and impoverished population groups contributed in the reduction of educational disparities (Abdessalem, 2011).

Although the reforms were made with good intentions, implementation challenges became apparent. The reforms faced drawbacks from some sectors, logistical challenges and inability to be fully implemented across the nation. The drawbacks range from resistance to change, especially among teachers in regard to the digitalization of education (Hamlaoui, 2020) and institutional corruption that affected the quality of instruction outcomes and resulted into a dependency on private tutoring (Milovanovitch, 2014). Decentralisation process met inconsistencies; certain territories adjusted better than the others. Thus, progress was not made in a uniform manner throughout the regions of the nation. During some occasions, there was a gap between the reforms made at the level of policies and their interpretation in classrooms. However, the challenge was to make all schools and teachers fully adopt and implement the new approaches.

Just like in Egypt, incorporating technology into education brought out the issue of the digital divide. Poor technological infrastructure in less developed rural regions made it difficult to effectively carry out digital education campaigns. (Hamlaoui, 2020). Nevertheless, the role of ICT (Information and communication technology) in influencing student performance has remained controversial (Karamti, 2016). The importance of a critical perspective on technology integration in education helps to enhance the appropriate learning outcomes and students' digital learning skills (Bower, 2017). However, there are problems related to the inclusion of technology in teaching, including unresponsiveness among teachers (Kurt, 2014). It is still in progress to assess the lasting implications and sustainability of these reforms. Such changes on the longer-term perspective are still in question, namely, their level of improving general educational results as well as congruence with labor demands.

To conclude, although the results of educational reforms in Tunisia after the Arab Spring were remarkable in relation to curriculum modernization, improvements with teacher training as well as encouragement for inclusivity and vocational education, there were also constraints regarding implementation agreement, digital literacy and bridging policy-practice gaps. These difficulties underscore the necessity for ongoing assessment, modification and encouragement so that the benefits of these reforms can be implemented fully.

Conclusion

To conclude, besides the fact that the Arab Spring led to political and social revolutions, it also stirred important changes in relation to religion and education. Although Egypt struggled between secular and religious forms of education, Tunisia found a way to preserve secular methods of teaching in an emerging religious openness. These dynamics highlight the

complexity of religion and education on how combined they structure society during times of transition.

5. Discussion

This chapter presents a comparative analysis on the educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia. The significance of these reforms is discussed from a socio-political point of view, with a comparison of approaches, outcomes and strategies of each country. The comparative analysis explores the interplay of politics, social perceptions and education reforms and presents similarities and divergence on the trajectory of education.

5.1. Significance of the topic in the context of social and political changes

The analysis of education reforms in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring is of high value. It offers insights on how countries have struggled to address the problem of aligning their education system with emerging political maturity and social demands. Moreover, it emphasizes the central importance of education for any kind of deep social and political transformation – education has to be kept as a cornerstone in the building of strong, progressive societies that find it appropriate to treat all citizens justly and equally.

The case of education reforms in the aftermath of Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia is not a set of independent policies but rather closely tied to larger social and political changes taking place. This is why the nature of this topic can be viewed from several angles thus indicating the role played by education in moulding and adapting to social changes. The Arab Spring highlighted the impact of common civil and economic dissatisfaction. Through educational reforms that will in turn alleviate some of the underlying causal factors of such frustrations, Egypt and Tunisia can enhance social harmony, which could theoretically act as a deterrent to future uprisings.

Educational reforms were the reaction of both Egypt and Tunisia on the socio-political disorders caused by the Arab Spring. This period was largely contributed to by youth who demonstrated their anger and dissatisfaction with unemployment, opportunities shortage, and political oppression through their collective call for a change that would involve a reconsideration of the existing educational policies and practices (Chapman & Miric, 2009; Alharbi, 2018). The rallying youth in both nations were a critical part of the Arab Spring and influenced with their activities, and through their demands, the educational reform issues that arose with the epicenter education quality as well as relevance (Paasonen & Urdal, 2016; Kanaan, 2015). Being the key factor in empowering this demographic, educational reforms helped the youth to acquire necessary skills and knowledge that will allow them to participate more actively in the transforming societies they inhabit.

The offered education reforms after the Arab Spring are in line with the new social and political agenda of Egypt and Tunisia that includes a focus on democracy, human right, as well as economic opportunities. Education is a major factor that determines the economic and social development of a country, thus successful educational reforms may result in developing a better workforce, greater economic prospects and quality of life. When restructuring education, these countries aimed at a realignment of the educational system with the emergent societal values.

During the presidency of Mohamed Morsi in Egypt, no significant changes were observed concerning the educational system. Morsi from the Muslim Brotherhood concentrated on other issues in political and social sphere thus the sector of education remained stationary (Office of International Religious Freedom, 2011). However, his stay in power was short-lived because of a military coup d'état that was spearheaded by Abdel Fattah el-Sisi.

President Sisi introduced serious reformations in education to encourage liberal thinking and review curricula as well and use technology in teaching processes. Such reforms were intended to interfere as less as possible with politicization of education and radical ideologies. The Ennahda party of Tunisia had a notable role in the road to democracy after the Arab Spring. Their concept of education was, thus, all-embracing; the Islamic teachings were combined with the perception of religious beliefs. Contrarily, the process of radical change in education that Egypt went through was more lethal unlike to that of Tunisia which rationally focused on religious tolerance and promoting countering violent extremism within the conventional methodology.

Other countries undergoing similar challenges can learn a lot from what happened in the case of Egypt and Tunisia. The educational reforms and their achievements as well as failures in the aftermath of revolutionary events are a guideline for states under revolution or with expectations of major social and political transformations. In addition, they show a political desire to invest in the future generation and resolve entrenched issues that could have led to chaos.

5.2. Comparison of the approaches and outcomes of educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia.

Comparative Approaches

Decentralization was a critical strategy in both Egypt and Tunisia. Nevertheless, Egypt based its decentralization process on autonomy facets of self-administration to some extents; Tunisia focused on the procedure of decision-making by involving more officials. Both nations implemented major curriculum changes. Egypt specifically worked towards ensuring that any element of the previous regime was excluded, whereas democratic values were integrated into the people, for Tunisia, it strived to depoliticize curricula and establish a culture about democracy and human rights. Both countries put a lot of emphasis on teacher training and development. Nevertheless, the degree of effectiveness and the speed of implementation varied from nation to nation where Tunisia had more coherence when incorporating alternative teaching tools across its sub-regions. Egypt and Tunisia both made an identification of primary importance of vocational and technical education in solving youth unemployment. In fact, Tunisia mainly went further in upgrading the status and quality of vocational tracks.

Comparative Outcomes

In both cases, the new curricula have been well accepted but the full implementation and use in classrooms remains uncertain. In Tunisia, the effect on student engagement and development of critical thinking skills is clearer. Both countries observed to improve the quality of education yet challenges of maintaining the same standard across all regions

remain. In the case of Tunisia, efforts to improve inclusiveness and accessibility have specifically focused on marginalized groups. Egypt also advanced, particularly in the development of infrastructure but there are still inequities in access and resources. An educational approach in line with labour market requirements, is developing in both countries with Tunisia having a clear focus on the strengthening of vocational education and Egypt pursuing higher education reforms. Resource constraints, resistance to change and political instability were among key factors that prevented the two countries from fully implementing reforms. Consequently, the speed and the order of implementation of reforms has differed as well.

Overall Comparison

The reforms in Egypt and Tunisia continued to be quite different after the Arab Spring, as they differed approaches and levels of success, though they remained similar to each other in simplifying the educational system and adapting it to democratic and economic requirements. The major achievements of Egypt include the decentralization of the system and its connection with the technology, whereas Tunisia has made important improvements in the field of the curriculum reform and inclusive education. The implementation problems, as well as ensuring similar results in different locations, demonstrate that reform efforts in education within transitioning societies are highly complex.

5.3. Similarities and differences in the strategies adopted by each country.

Similarities

Egypt and Tunisia both agreed on the distressing need to revolutionize their teaching syllabuses. The nations concentrated on eliminating the obsolete and regime-oriented substance and substitute it with content that was in line with democratic values, critical thinking, and civic-mindedness. Recognizing the crucial importance of teachers both states gave much attention to teacher training and educational advancements. This was intended to prepare the educators adequately on how they could implement the new curriculum and enable students to have interactive learning that would be effective. The education systems in both countries therefore emphasised on market depending on learning and development. This was more noticeable in amplifications made to vocational and technical training which tried to eradicate the disparity between education outcomes and requirements of the market. Decentralization was the usual approach, though implemented in various ways. It aimed at deviating from the centralized model of administration to a more decentralized one where local interests were accommodated in addressing regional educational issues.

Differences

The decentralization pattern of approach that was embraced by Egypt in this case was more administrative since it emphasized on transfer of power to the local authorities. In contrast, Tunisia laid an accent on government participation which includes a much wider set of groups into the process of decision making. Although both states updated their curricula, the scale and direction of the changes were quite different. The reforms in Tunisia were more significantly thorough to the extent of removing politics from the curriculum and incorporating new concepts of democracy. Egypt on the other hand, had a pronounced attempt to incorporate technology and modern educational techniques aside from paying

attention to these facets. Greater consistency was demonstrated by Tunisia in implementation of reforms across regions, a factor that was partly due to the country's smaller size and more integrated educational structure. However, Egypt had major challenges in the uniform implementation across its large and diverse regions as well as huge population masses. The response of the two countries towards reform was perhaps affected massively by their peculiar political landscapes after the Arab Spring. These two factors presuppose that Tunisia's path of transition was more stable in comparison to Egypt, where the political journey after 2011 has been much more turbulent, and this affected educational changes in terms of their consistency and tempo. Although both countries understood the necessity of radical changes in higher education sphere, Egypt paid more attention to university autonomy and orientation on international development and labour market. However, Tunisia was more interested in the democratization of higher education concepts and principles of academic freedom.

Aspect	Egypt	Tunisia
Curricular Overhaul	Focus on democratic values, critical thinking, civic engagement, and technology integration	Comprehensive depoliticization and democratic concepts
Teacher Development	Prioritized	Prioritized
Labour Market Alignment	Strengthened vocational and technical education	Strengthened vocational and technical education
Decentralization	Administrative, local authority control	Participatory governance, stakeholder involvement
Implementation Consistency	Challenges in uniform implementation across regions	More consistent across regions
Political Landscape Impact	Turbulent transition affecting reforms	Stable transition enabling systematic reforms
Higher Education Focus	University autonomy, global trends alignment	Democratic values, academic freedom integration

Table 5: Similarities and Differences in Education Reforms: Egypt - Tunisia

Overall Analysis

The approaches of the educational reform strategies in Egypt and Tunisia, although convergent on critical targets such as curricular revision and training-based alignment with labour market demands were divergent. These divergences mirror the distinct political, social, and educational backgrounds of every nation in the post-Arab Spring era. These differences

notwithstanding, the reforms in both countries represent an important step toward more democratic systems of education that address needs relevant to a contemporary economy.

5.3. How each country's political and social dynamics influenced their education reforms.

Egypt

Egypt's post-Arab Spring period was marked by political revolutions and alterations of government that directly influenced reforms in education. These shifts allowed different regimes to have different priorities and approaches to education, which sometimes caused the absence of continuity in reforms. Egyptian community, and young people in particular had a high demand for modernization of the country's education system into technology-integrated one. This social drive impacted the government's focus to include digital tools and methodologies in the education sector. The other special case was that considering the vast diversity of Egyptian people, reforms could not be effectively made. A one-fits-all kind of reform was simply impossible to have in Egypt. Identifying this need for customization to accommodate various regional needs resulted in more decentralization aimed at addressing inequalities regarding access and quality of education among regions. The long-term authoritative heritage in Egypt affected the reforms of curriculums specifically through the desire to delete didactic materials that favoured ideology of earlier regime and replace it with democratic values and perceptive thinking.

Tunisia

Stable political transition, relatively long in comparison to the rest of the post-Arab Spring countries' transitional periods but at the same time smooth as a seamless process, has given Tunisia freedom and opportunities for consistent systemic educational reforms. The stability in leadership created a favorable atmosphere for implementing long-term educational policies. The Tunisian educational reforms were also significantly driven by the constructive involvement of civil society and stakeholders. Such involvement resulted in more accessible and representative educational policies. Specifically, the social dynamics in Tunisia – such as the concerted effort to attain democracy and human rights – played a significant role in determining how curriculum reforms would be implemented. Democracy principles and human rights education were consciously introduced into the curricula. This was informed by the social desire for equality in educational access as Tunisia worked to lower disparities that abounded in education and promote inclusive society. Therefore, actions that were done to eliminate regional disparaging or include outcasted crowds reflected the social interactions at large.

Comparative Insights

The state and societal developments in Egypt and Tunisia had a great impact on their education reforms. Egypt had a different experience as it had a larger and more diverse population and faced numerous periods of political instability hence the need to decentralize and integrate technology. The fact that Tunisia conducted a smoother transition, and its civil society played an active role made this country develop much more steady and inclusive approach to reform with strong emphasis on democratic education and equalization of opportunity. This clearly illustrates that educational reforms were responses not only to the

internal challenges faced in both countries but also reflections of their wider political and societal restructuring following Arab Spring.

Religion

The educational reforms after 2011 in Egypt, and Tunisia reflect the individual responses of each country to the management of religious discourse and activism. When it comes to Egypt, the president Abdel Fattah el-Sisi was busying himself with radical changes in the educational sphere. These ranged from changing the curriculum so that memorizing information would be replaced with critical thinking, to the use of e-learning programmes as well as teacher training on a massive scale. The main component of these modernizations consisted in the de-politicization of education and ousting extremism from the educational context, when religious studies turned towards moderation and tolerance.

In comparison, the Tunisia's policy after the Arab Spring was less radical and concentrated on a balance between Islamic education and incorporation of other religious teaching. Compulsory subjects about Islam fundamentals were added to the curriculum for state schools and room was given even for studying Judaism and Christianity. Moreover, Tunisia did not only contain the efforts in the area of education but also conducted rehabilitation programs for prisoners with extremist backgrounds and trained imams to spread the ideas of moderation and tolerance.

Comparatively analysing these reforms, it becomes clear that the two countries have different priorities as well as differing methods of addressing religious extremism in schooling. The reforms in Egypt were also more far reaching and structural, looking to change the education system as a whole. Tunisia, on the other hand, was also concerned with moderation and tolerance but took a more pragmatic effort of integrating religious education that echoed its historical endorsement for religious pluralism and conservative Islam. Nevertheless, both countries have the same objective as far as combating extremism and advancing to more inclusive and tolerant educational practices.

6. Conclusion

The final chapter aims to synthesize the main findings of the research while placing it in a larger context and reflecting on its implications for socioeconomic development in Egypt and Tunisia due to educational reforms. Thus, it consolidates the main implications that can be derived from conducting a literature review and analysis addressed in the previous chapters. The chapter also reflects on some of the long-term consequences such reforms have, particularly in terms of redefining educational environments and overall socio-political development horizon after the Arab Spring years for Egypt and Tunisia.

6.1. Summary of key findings from the literature review.

The Arab Spring became an efficient stimulating factor for considerable educational reforms in both Egypt and Tunisia. This pointed out the necessity for the creation of educational systems not just limited to imparting knowledge but the ones that groom the learner into a critical thinker and an individual aligned with democratic principles as well as economic environment. Both countries made attempts towards the decentralization of education systems and revision of learning activities. While Egypt underlined administrative decentralization and technology integration, Tunisia highlighted the depoliticizing of the curriculum as well as improvements of critical thinking procedures and democratic education. Teacher training and professional development were focal aspects present in the reforms of both countries since the educators needed to have contemporary pedagogical skills, which could enable them to competently implement the revised syllabuses.

However, despite these measures, there were difficulties in ensuring uniform high-quality levels of implementation across all regions for both countries which brought to the fore the intricacies of institutional overhauls in diverse and dynamic societies. The seriousness given to the reforms was geared towards ensuring that education systems were closely conjugated with labour market demands, and this mainly involved the transformation of education towards technological training pathways. Noteworthy efforts were made to increase inclusiveness and equitable access to education, especially among the Tunisian population; however, there still are challenges that must be addressed in order for these goals to be achieved. Egypt and Tunisia have succeeded in the alignment of educational policies towards societal change and economic needs. In future, both nations should remain keen on resolving the prevailing challenges especially with respect to consistency of quality, inclusivity and keeping pace with the ever changing economic insights. The way forward is a continuous level of investment, consistency in policy and innovations in teaching.

To sum up, reforms concerning education that occurred in Egypt and Tunisia following the Arab Spring can be seen as essential stages of a more vibrant, inclusive, and future-oriented educational system. Though positive strides have been made, continued efforts and adjustments are requisite to fully achieve the promise of these reforms and guarantee that education remains vital in the growth and liberalization of both societies.

This research is very unique from the available literature in many aspects and makes an original set of contributions to the study field on educational policies after Arab Spring which has benefited both Egypt and Tunisia.

First and foremost, whereas the majority of studies on reforms have dealt with each reform separately, this thesis applies a comparative approach by comparing the educational landscapes in Egypt and Tunisia after the Arab Spring. This method underlines the distinct roadmaps both countries have undertaken in their educational reform, thereby showing institutional development of each by informing on some challenges and successes, thus providing a comprehensive perspective to post-revolutionary educational policy.

Secondly, the research penetrates further in analysing how educational reforms interact with broader themes of social and economic contexts. This is by looking at the reforms alongside labour market needs, religion and also democratic ideals. Furthermore, this study goes beyond a policy analysis, it evaluates the application and influence of these developments revealing by their implementation details about variances across different contexts within each nation. This is clearly a much-needed comprehensive approach as most of the literature leave out important aspects and do not often note the various dynamics related to practical implementation.

At large, the research does not only add to a greater understanding of educational reforms in Egypt and Tunisia but also provides with an approach for evaluating policies targeting education in other post-revolutionary realities emphasizing on the necessity of considering context-related aspects and comparative perspective within policy analysis.

6.2. Reflection on the broader impact of these reforms on Egypt and Tunisia's societal and economic development.

Impact on Societal Development

In Egypt and Tunisia, the alterations in curricula that focus on democratic value implantation and civic participation may have quite a significant effect on social development overall. First of all, these reforms help in raising a rightly more conscious generation about their rights and duties to sustain democratic practices. Ensuring accessibility and equality in education has been already initiated aiming to tackle such long-lasting social inequalities, mostly throughout Tunisia. Education for all categories of people is an important stage in the development and reduction of inequality.

Both countries have a sizable youth population, and it has been acknowledged that the only way to facilitate the young people is through education. The prospect of these reforms has a great potential to transform the structure in society, especially regarding political participation and creativity since they drive educational outcomes based on the needs and aspirations of young people.

Impact on Economic Development

The focus on job and technical training, as well as better integration of general education with the needs of the labour market, is essential for economic growth. Through filling students with important skills and knowledge, these reforms can increase employability, decrease youth unemployment and address the requirements of a changing economy. Firstly, the reforms directed to introducing critical thinking, problem-solving skills and entrepreneurial

ideas in the curriculum form a basis for innovation and entrepreneurship in both countries. This is essential for supporting economic growth and diversification in a world increasingly dependent on knowledge. Better education systems have the potential to create economic demand to both countries. Consequently, the ability to attract foreign direct investments and enhance global competitiveness largely depend on a relatively competent and well-educated workforce.

Long-term Implications

These educational reforms have significant long-term effects. Through restructuring the educational systems, Egypt and Tunisia address not only current issues but also pave the way for long-term socio-economic development. Indeed, education is a weapon that shapes the future of nations and thus the post-Arab Spring reforms have an opportunity to drive changes in both Egyptians' and Tunisians' societies within several decades.

To sum up, educational changes that can take place in Egypt and Tunisia are beyond classroom nature. They play a crucial role in determining how their respective societies and economies will look like in future, hence the ability to participate actively if these countries' development process.

7. References

- Abdallah, A. (1985). *The student movement and national politics in Egypt, 1923-1973*. Al Saqi Books.
- Abdeljaoued, M. (2018). Tunisian Academics at the Turbulent Times of the ‘Jasmine Revolution’: Publication Challenges and Survival Strategies. *Publishing Research Quarterly*, 34(3), 347–361. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12109-018-9596-x>
- Abdessalem, T. (2011). Scope, relevance and challenges of financing higher education: The case of Tunisia. *PROSPECTS*, 41(1), 135–155. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-011-9177-7>
- Ahmed Aref El-Haddad, R., & El-Haddad, R. (2023). Inclusion in Egypt between Laws and Implementation-A Critique. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.17055.12960>
- Akkari, A. (2005). The Tunisian Educational Reform: From Quantity to Quality and the Need for Monitoring and Assessment. *PROSPECTS*, 35(1), 59–74. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-005-6818-8>
- Al-Awadi, H. (2005). Mubarak and the Islamists: Why Did the “Honeymoon” End? *The Middle East Journal*, 59(1), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.3751/194034605783996934>
- Alharbi, M. (2018). A Review of Education and the Arab Spring: Resistance, Reform, and Democracy. *International Journal of Research in Educational Sciences*, 1(2), 311–318. <https://doi.org/10.29009/ijres.1.2.12>
- Al Jazeera. (2011, November 14). Ennahda victory confirmed. <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2011/11/14/final-tunisian-election-results-announced>
- Al Jazeera. (2012, June 24). Celebration in Egypt as Morsi declared winner. <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2012/6/24/celebration-in-egypt-as-morsi-declared-winner>
- Allam, D. (2021). Explaining the persistence of “decentralisation” of education in Egypt. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2021.102357>
- Altbach, P. G. (2013). Advancing the national and global knowledge economy: the role of research universities in developing countries. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(3), 316–330. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.773222>
- Amara, I. ben, & Melliti, M. (2022). English in Tunisian Primary Schools: Stakeholders’ Perception and Reform Validity. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 14(2), 111. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v14i2.19814>
- ANDET (2019). *The Revealed Report on Education in Tunisia 2019*.
- Apple, M. W. (2004). *Ideology and Curriculum*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203487563>

Arnové, R., & Torres, C. (2003). *Comparative Education: The Dialectic of the Global and the Local*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Barsoum, G. (2020). When marketization encounters centralized governance: Private Higher education in Egypt. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2020.102215>

Barsoum, G. (2018). Egypt's Many Public Administration Transitions: Reform Vision and Implementation Challenges. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 41(10), 772–780. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2017.1387145>

BBC. (2011, February 12). *Egypt crisis: President Hosni Mubarak resigns as leader*. BBC News. <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-12433045>

Boughzala, M., Ghazouani, S., & Hafaiedh, A. ben. (2016). *Aligning Incentives for Reforming Higher Education in Tunisia*. www.erf.org.eg

Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J.-Claude. (1990). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. Sage.

Brody-Barre, A. G. (2013). The impact of political parties and coalition building on Tunisia's democratic future. *The Journal of North African Studies*, 18(2), 211–230. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629387.2012.742365>

Champagne, J. (2007). 'Job seekers' and 'enterprise incubators': Educational reform in Tunisia. *Changing English: Studies in Culture and Education*, 14(2), 201–215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13586840701443032>

Chapman, D. W., & Miric, S. L. (2009). *Education Quality in the Middle East*. In *International Review of Education* (Vol. 55, Issue 4). Springer.

Cimini, G. (2021). Learning mechanisms within an Islamist party: Tunisia's Ennahda Movement between domestic and regional balances. *Contemporary Politics*, 27(2), 160–179. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13569775.2020.1868103>

Dalacoura, K. (2018). Islamism, secularization, secularity: the Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt as a phenomenon of a secular age. *Economy and Society*, 47(2), 313–334. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03085147.2018.1458944>

Dinelti Fitria, Berry Devanda, Wienda Gusta, Nurhizrah Gistituati, Rusdinal, & Azwar Ananda. (2022). Education System in Egypt. *International Journal Of Humanities Education and Social Sciences (IJHESS)*, 1(6). <https://doi.org/10.55227/ijhess.v1i6.162>

Dridi, T. (2023). Tunisian High School Students and Digital Media Literacy: A Quantitative Study. *Journal of Education*, 203(1), 196–210. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220574211025979>

E Issa, A. T., & Gumaa Siddiek, A. (2012). Higher Education in the Arab World & Challenges of Labor Market. In *International Journal of Business and Social Science* (Vol. 3, Issue 9). www.ijbssnet.com

Ead, H. A. (2019). Globalization in higher education in Egypt in a historical context. *Research in Globalization*, 1. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resglo.2019.100003>

- El Amine, A. (2019). Governance of Higher Education in the Arab World and the Case of Tunisia. *International Higher Education*, 97, 7–9. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2019.97.10938>
- Elbadawy, A. (2014). Education in Egypt: Improvements In Attainments, Problems with Quality and Inequality. www.erf.org.eg
- Elsayed, A., & Marie, O. (2020). Less School (Costs), More (Female) Education? Lessons from Egypt Reducing Years of Compulsory Schooling. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3637898>
- Elshaer, A. M., & Marzouk, A. M. (2019). Vocational Skills And Training In Tourism And Hospitality Education In Egypt: An Analytical Framework. In *International Journal on Recent Trends in Business and Tourism* | (Vol. 3, Issue 3).
- Faour, M. (2012). Religious Education and Pluralism in Egypt and Tunisia.
- Faour, M. (2012). School Climate and Citizenship Skills. www.CarnegieEndowment.org/pubs.
- Filali-Ansary, A. (2016). Tunisia: Ennahda's new course. *Journal of Democracy*, 27(4), 99–109. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jod.2016.0066>
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Continuum.
- Gabsi, Z. (2022). Tunisian youth as drivers of socio-cultural and political changes: glocality and effacement of cultural memory? *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 49(4), 537–558. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13530194.2020.1820856>
- Ginsburg, M., & Megahed, N. (2011). Globalization and the Reform of Faculties of Education in Egypt: The Roles of Individual and Organizational, National and International Actors. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 19, 15. <https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v19n15.2011>
- Ginsburg, M., & Megahed, N. (2008). Global Discourses & Educational Reform in Egypt: The Case of Active-Learning Pedagogies. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309726636>
- Giroux, H. (2003). *On Critical Pedagogy*.
- Guirguis, M. (2012). Islamic Resurgence and Its Consequences in the Egyptian Experience. *Mediterranean Studies*, 20(2), 187–226. <https://doi.org/10.5325/mediterraneanstu.20.2.0187>
- Hagedorn, L. S., & Mezghani, W. T. (2013). Bringing Community Colleges to Tunisia. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 2013(161), 101–111. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cc.20051>
- Hamlaoui, S. (2021). Teachers' Resistance to Educational Change and Innovations in the Middle East and North Africa: A Case Study of Tunisian Universities (pp. 171–184). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-31160-5_11
- Hanckel, B., Petticrew, M., Thomas, J., & Green, J. (2021). The use of Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) to address causality in complex systems: a systematic review of research on public health interventions. *BMC Public Health*, 21(1), 877. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-10926-2>

- Heydemann, S., & Leenders, R. (2011). Authoritarian Learning and Authoritarian Resilience: Regime Responses to the 'Arab Awakening.' *Globalizations*, 8(5), 647–653. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14747731.2011.621274>
- Horvitz, B. S., Garza Mitchell, R. L., Garcia, L. R., & Singleton, C. D. (2020). Vocational and Technical Learning. In *Handbook of Research in Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 465–479). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36119-8_22
- Howard-Merriam, K. (1979). Women, Education, and the Professions in Egypt. In *Review* (Vol. 23, Issue 2). <https://about.jstor.org/terms>
- Huntington, S. P., Mihajlov, M., Lapidus, G. W., Rumyantsev, O., Binyan, L., de Soto, H., & Orsini, D. (1991). Democracy's Third Wave Can Yugoslavia Survive? Soviet Reaction, Russian Reform Overcoming Underdevelopment.
- Ibrahim, A. S. (2010). The politics of educational transfer and policymaking in Egypt. *Prospects*, 40(4), 499–515. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-010-9173-3>
- Ibrahim, I. (2023, September 17). A decade of curricular reform? Egypt's Schools Still Teach Division and discrimination. The Tahrir Institute for Middle East Policy -. <https://timep.org/2023/09/17/a-decade-of-curricular-reform-egypts-schools-still-teach-division-and-discrimination/>
- Ifa, A., & Guetat, I. (2018). Does public expenditure on education promote Tunisian and Moroccan GDP per capita? ARDL approach. *Journal of Finance and Data Science*, 4(4), 234–246. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfds.2018.02.005>
- Jaidi, M. A. (2020, October 30). The politicisation of religious education in Tunisia. *Legal Agenda*. <https://english.legal-agenda.com/the-politicisation-of-religious-education-in-tunisia/>
- Jones, M. T. (1986). Regional Disparities and Public Policy in Tunisian Education. *Comparative Education*, 22(3), 201–220. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305006860220303>
- Josua, M., & Edel, M. (2021). The Arab uprisings and the return of repression. *Mediterranean Politics*, 26(5), 586–611. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629395.2021.1889298>
- Jules, T. D., & Barton, T. (2014). Educational governance activities and the rise of educational contagion in the Islamic Maghreb The case of Tunisia. *Educational Governance Activities InterDisciplines*, 2. <https://doi.org/10.2390/indi-v5-i2-121>
- Kanaan, H. (2015). Pedagogy of the Oppressed within the Arab Spring Era.
- Karamti, C. (2016). Measuring the Impact of ICTs on Academic Performance: Evidence From Higher Education in Tunisia. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 48(4), 322–337. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2016.1215176>
- Kashina, A. (2021). GENDER EQUALITY IN TUNISIA: CURRENT TRENDS. *Journal of Social Sciences Transformations & Transitions*. <https://doi.org/10.52459/josstt1140721>

- Khelifi, S. (2022). Employability reforms in Tunisian higher education: a path-dependence perspective. *The Journal of North African Studies*, 27(4), 663–690. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629387.2020.1858810>
- Kohstall, F. (2015). From reform to resistance: Universities and student mobilisation in Egypt and morocco before and after the Arab uprisings. *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 42(1), 59–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13530194.2015.973183>
- Krafft, C., & Alawode, H. (2018). Inequality of opportunity in higher education in the Middle East and North Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 62, 234–244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2018.05.005>
- Kthiri, W. (2019). Over-Education in the Tunisian Labor Market, Characteristics and Determinants. www.emnes.org
- Kurt, S. (2014). Creating technology-enriched classrooms: implementational challenges in Turkish education. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 39(1), 90–106. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2013.776077>
- Langsten, R., & Hassan, T. (2018). Primary education completion in Egypt: Trends and determinants. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 59, 136–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2017.10.013>
- Lindsey, U. (2012). Freedom and Reform at Egypt's Universities. www.CarnegieEndowment.org/pubs.
- Liu, J., Modrek, S., & Sieverding, M. (2019). The effects of political protests on youth human capital and well-being in Egypt. *Social Science and Medicine*, 243. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.112602>
- Looney, R. (2015). The Political Economy of the Post-Arab Spring. *Journal of South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies*, 38(3), 1–29. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jsa.2015.0008>
- Loveluck, L. (2012). Education in Egypt: Key Challenges.
- M. Bower. (2017). Technology Integration as an Educational Imperative. In *Design of Technology-Enhanced Learning* (pp. 1–16). Emerald Publishing Limited. <https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78714-182-720171001>
- M. Ghoneim Sywelem, M., & Mohamed Elsayed Makhoul, A. (2023). Common Challenges of Strategic Planning for Higher Education in Egypt. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 11(6), 430–439. <https://doi.org/10.12691/education-11-6-12>
- Macewan, A. (1988). *Transitions from Authoritarian Rule* by Guillermo O'Donnell, Philippe C. Schmitter and Laurence Whitehead. *Latin American Perspectives*, 15(3), 115–130. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2633794>
- Mattar, N., & Khalil, R. (2011). Character education seeking the best of both worlds: A study of cultural identity and leadership in Egypt. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 5(11), 23–52. <https://doi.org/10.18848/1833-1882/CGP/v05i11/51941>

- Mazawi, A. (2015). The Arab Spring: A Higher Education Revolution Yet to Happen. *International Higher Education*, 65. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.65.8580>
- McCarthy, R. (2014). Re-thinking secularism in post-independence Tunisia. *Journal of North African Studies*, 19(5), 733–750. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629387.2014.917585>
- Megahed, N., Ginsburg, M., Abdellah, A., & Zohry, A. (2012). The Quest For Educational Quality in Egypt. In *Quality and Qualities* (pp. 41–67). SensePublishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6091-951-0_3
- Meital, Y. (2006). School textbooks and assembling the puzzle of the past in revolutionary Egypt. *Middle Eastern Studies*, 42(2), 255–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00263200500417561>
- MERIC-Net. (2019). The Higher Education system in Tunisia National Report The Higher Education system in Tunisia.
- Milovanovitch, M. (2014). Trust and Institutional Corruption: The Case of Education in Tunisia. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2439311>
- Ministry of Education and Technical Education. (2023). Education Sector Plan for Egypt.
- Mirowsky, J., & Ross, C. E. (2005). Education, learned effectiveness and health. *London Review of Education*, 3(3). <https://doi.org/10.1080/14748460500372366>
- Mirshak, N. (2020). Education as Resistance: Egyptian Civil Society and Rethinking Political Education Under Authoritarian Contexts. *Critical Sociology*, 46(6), 915–930. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0896920519856398>
- Mogheith, A. A., Wahb, A. A., & Yassin, L. A. (2019). Technology Integration in Education in Egypt. <https://fount.aucegypt.edu/studenttxt/74>
- Moustafa, N., Elghamrawy, E., King, K., & Hao, Y. (2022). Education 2.0: A Vision for Educational Transformation in Egypt. In *Education to Build Back Better* (pp. 51–74). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-93951-9_3
- Muharlisiani, L. T., Bariroh, S., Etiyasningsih, Sundari, S., Adrijanti, Susetyorini, Elan, U., Kusumaningrum, D., Farida, N., & Rahayu, D. I. (2019). Teacher's Pedagogic Competency: Implementation of 2013 Curriculum through a Sustainable Academic Supervision. *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Community Development (ICCD 2019)*. <https://doi.org/10.2991/iccd-19.2019.78>
- Naazer, M., Farooq, S., & Ahmed, M. (2017). Arab Spring and the Theory of Relative Deprivation. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 8(1). <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/317378096>
- OECD. (2015). Schools for Skills-A New Learning Agenda for Egypt. www.oecd.org/edu/policyadvice.htm
- Office of Education (DREW). (1975). The Educational System of Tunisia.
- Office of International Religious Freedom. (2022). 2021 Report on International Religious Freedom: Egypt. <https://www.state.gov/reports/2021-report-on-international-religious-freedom/egypt/>

Office of International Religious Freedom. (2022). 2021 Report on International Religious Freedom: Tunisia. <https://www.state.gov/reports/2021-report-on-international-religious-freedom/tunisia/>

Office of International Religious Freedom. (2011). 2010 International Religious Freedom Report - Egypt. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/irf/2010_5/index.htm

Office of International Religious Freedom. (2011). 2010 International Religious Freedom Report - Tunisia. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/irf/2010_5/index.htm

Paasonen, K., Urdal, H., & International Peace Research Institute. (2016). Youth bulges, exclusion and instability: the role of youth in the Arab Spring.

Paciello, M. Cristina. (2011). Tunisia: changes and challenges of political transition. [Centre for European Policy Studies].

Pahwa, S. (2013). Secularizing Islamism and Islamizing Democracy: The Political and Ideational Evolution of the Egyptian Muslim Brothers 1984–2012. *Mediterranean Politics*, 18(2), 189–206. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629395.2013.799324>

Pellicer, M. (2017). The evolution of returns to education in the Middle East and North Africa: Evidence from comparable education policy changes in Tunisia. *Economics of Education Review*, 62, 183–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2017.11.008>

Pellicer, M., Assaad, R., Krafft, C., & Salemi, C. (2017). Grievances or Skills? The Effect of Education on Youth Attitudes and Political Participation in Egypt. www.erf.org.eg

Platteau, J. P. (2011). Political Instrumentalization of Islam and the Risk of Obscurantist Deadlock. *World Development*, 39(2), 243–260. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2009.11.028>

Rahmouni, M., & Aleid, M. A. (2020). Teachers' practices and children's motivation towards science learning in MENA countries: Evidence from Tunisia and UAE. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2020.101605>

Ramzi, S., Afonso, A., & Ayadi, M. (2016). Assessment of efficiency in basic and secondary education in Tunisia: A regional analysis. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 51, 62–76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2016.08.003>

Rios, W. v, Lumayno, V. C., Teresa, M., Barola, T., & Estorosos, J. S. (2013). The Impact of Education on the Socioeconomic and Political Development of a Nation.

Robbins, M. (2016). Tunisia Five Years after the Revolution Findings from the Arab Barometer. www.arabbarometer.org.

Roberts, K., Kovacheva, S., & Kabaivanov, S. (2017). Still troubled: Tunisia's youth during and since the revolution of 2011. *Societies*, 7(4). <https://doi.org/10.3390/soc7040029>

Rougier, E. (2016). "Fire in Cairo": Authoritarian-Redistributive Social Contracts, Structural Change, and the Arab Spring. *World Development*, 78, 148–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2015.10.005>

- Rozen, J. (2015). Civics Lesson: Ambivalence, Contestation, and Curricular Change in Tunisia. *Ethnos*, 80(5), 605–629. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00141844.2014.938092>
- Sabic-El-Rayess, A. (2020). Epistemological shifts in knowledge and education in Islam: A new perspective on the emergence of radicalization amongst Muslims. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 73, 102148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2019.102148>
- Sakani, O., & Zohry, A. G. (1994). Socio-economic and demographic factors affecting school enrollment in Egypt. *The Egyptian Population and Family Planning Review*, 28(2), 116–138.
- Sayed, F. H. (2006). *Transforming Education in Egypt*. The American University in Cairo Press.
- Schaefer, I. (2018). *Political Revolt and Youth Unemployment in Tunisia*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-65085-2>
- Scott, J., & Marshall, G. (2009). *A Dictionary of Sociology*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acref/9780199533008.001.0001>
- Sharobeem, H. M. (2015). The Impact of the Arab Spring at an Egyptian University: A Personal Experience. *Middle East: Topics & Arguments*, 4, 110–121. <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:147308740>
- Sobhy Ramadan, H. (2012). Education and the Production of Citizenship in the Late Mubarak Era: Privatization, Discipline and the Construction of the Nation in Egyptian Secondary Schools. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.25501/SOAS.00013607>
- Starrett, G. (1998). *Putting Islam to Work Education, Politics, and Religious Transformation in Egypt*. University of California Press. <https://doi.org/10.1525/california/9780520209268.001.0001>
- Stopikowska, M., & Mohamed El-Deabes, Y. (2012). THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF EGYPT: CONTEXTS, FRAMES AND STRUCTURES. 40.
- Trabelsi, S. (n.d.). *Regional Inequality of Education in Tunisia: An Evaluation by the Gini Index*.
- Tsourapas, G. (2013). The Other Side of a Neoliberal Miracle: Economic Reform and Political De-Liberalization in Ben Ali's Tunisia. *Mediterranean Politics*, 18(1), 23–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13629395.2012.761475>
- UNESCO. (2011). *Improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools across African countries*. Adnan ElAmine. (2019). Governance of Higher Education in the Arab World and the Case of Tunisia. *International Higher Education*, 97, 6–7. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2019.97.10937>
- UNESCO. (2015). *Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Egypt*.
- Wafa, D. (2015). Arab spring impact on executive education in Egypt. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 29(5), 596–608. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2012-0125>
- Wafa, D. (2013). The State of higher education and training in Egypt post the Arab Spring (pp. 89–104). [https://doi.org/10.1108/S2045-7944\(2013\)0000002007](https://doi.org/10.1108/S2045-7944(2013)0000002007)

- Waterbury, J. (2019). Reform of Higher Education in the Arab World. In *Major Challenges Facing Higher Education in the Arab World: Quality Assurance and Relevance* (pp. 133–166). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-03774-1_7
- Winter, O. (2023). *Generational Change: Egypt's Quest to Reform its School Curriculum*.
- Wolfsfeld, G., Segev, E., & Sheaffer, T. (2013). Social Media and the Arab Spring: Politics Comes First. *International Journal of Press/Politics*, 18(2), 115–137. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1940161212471716>
- Wood Dixon, M. (2010). Investing in Inequality: Education Reform in Egypt. *Middle East Report, WEAPONS OF THE STRONG*, 255, 40-43,47. URL: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40660871>
- World Bank. (2014). *World Development Report 2015: Mind, Society, and Behavior*. The World Bank. <https://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-0342-0>
- Yousfi, H. (2019). Reshaping state/local communities relations in Tunisia: The socio-cultural and institutional challenges of the decentralization project. *European Management Journal*, 37(5), 625–636. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2019.05.002>
- Zafar, Z., & Ali, S. (2018). Education System of Pakistan: Social Functions and Challenges. In *Journal of Indian Studies* (Vol. 4, Issue 1).
- Zahran, N. (2023). *Assessing The Implementation of Egypt's Education 2.0 Reform: The Case of Sohag*. <https://fount.aucegypt.edu/etds/2116>
- Zaki Ewiss, M. A., Abdelgawad, F., & Elgendy, A. (2019). School educational policy in Egypt: societal assessment perspective. *Journal of Humanities and Applied Social Sciences*, 1(1), 55–68. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jhass-05-2019-004>
- Al-Khadra, W., Al-Thani, S. J., Brown, N. J., El-Deghaidy, H., Karami-Akkary, R., Muasher, M., & Zacharia, C. (2022). *Innovation and New Directions: Searching for Novel Paths in Arab Education Reform*.

Author's Statement: I hereby expressly declare that, according to the article 8 of Law 1559/1986, this dissertation is solely the product of my personal work, does not infringe any intellectual property, personality and personal data rights of third parties, does not contain works/contributions from third parties for which the permission of the authors/beneficiaries is required, is not the product of partial or total plagiarism, and that the sources used are limited to the literature references alone and meet the rules of scientific citations.