SHAPING MODERN EGYPT: A CAPTIVATING TALE OF HISTORY AND POLITICAL TRANSFORMATION

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: This article examines Egypt's transformation from an Ottoman province to a modern state, starting with Napoleon Bonaparte's 1798 incursion and the modernization efforts of Mehmet Ali Pasha. It covers key historical periods, including the monarchy, the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936, and the Cold War and post-Cold War era.

Method: Using a historical-analytical approach, the study explores the eras of Gamal Abdel Nasser, Anwar Sadat, and Hosni Mubarak. It highlights Nasser's socialist policies and ties with the Soviet Union, Sadat's economic liberalization and the Camp David Accords, and Mubarak's economic reforms and political repression leading to the 2011 Arab Spring.

Conclusion: The article critically analyzes Egypt's struggle for independence, democratic governance, and socio-economic development. It emphasizes the need for strengthening democratic institutions, diversifying the economy, enhancing education and healthcare, and promoting political inclusivity.

Implication of the Research: The research offers recommendations to help Egypt build on its historical legacy and ensure a prosperous, democratic, and stable future, addressing key socio-political challenges.

Originality of the Research: This article provides a nuanced historical account and analysis of Egypt's political evolution, integrating modernization and dependency theories, and offers valuable insights for scholars, policymakers, and practitioners interested in Middle Eastern politics and development.

Keywords: Egypt, Ottoman Empire, Mehmet Ali Pasha, Modernization, Cold War, Arab Spring, Political Evolution, Democratic Institutions.

"MOLDANDO O EGITO MODERNO: UMA HISTÓRIA CATIVANTE DE HISTÓRIA E TRANSFORMAÇÃO POLÍTICA"

RESUMO

Objectivo: Este artigo examina a transformação do Egipto de província otomana num Estado moderno, começando com a incursão de Napoleão Bonaparte em 1798 e os esforços de modernização de Mehmet Ali Pasha. Abrange períodos históricos importantes, incluindo a monarquia, o Tratado Anglo-Egípcio de 1936 e a Guerra Fria e a era pós-Guerra Fria.

Método: Utilizando uma abordagem histórico-analítica, o estudo explora as épocas de Gamal Abdel Nasser, Anwar Sadat e Hosni Mubarak. Destaca as políticas socialistas e os laços de Nasser com a União Soviética, a liberalização econômica de Sadat e os Acordos de Camp David, e as reformas econômicas e a repressão política de Mubarak que levaram à Primavera Árabe de 2011.

Conclusão: O artigo analisa criticamente a luta do Egipto pela independência, governação democrática e desenvolvimento socioeconômico. Enfatiza a necessidade de reforçar as instituições democráticas, de diversificar a economia, de melhorar a educação e os cuidados de saúde e de promover a inclusão política.

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Implicação da investigação: A investigação oferece recomendações para ajudar o Egipto a desenvolver o seu legado histórico e a garantir um futuro próspero, democrático e estável, abordando os principais desafios sociopolíticos.

Originalidade da pesquisa: Este artigo fornece um relato histórico matizado e uma análise da evolução política do Egipto, integrando teorias de modernização e dependência, e oferece insights valiosos para acadêmicos, formuladores de políticas e profissionais interessados na política e no desenvolvimento do Oriente Médio.


"DANDO FORMA AL EGIPTO MODERNO: UNA CAUTIVADORA HISTORIA DE HISTORIA Y TRANSFORMACIÓN POLÍTICA"

RESUMEN

Propósito: Este artículo examina la transformación de Egipto de una provincia otomana a un estado moderno, comenzando con la incursión de Napoleón Bonaparte en 1798 y los esfuerzos de modernización de Mehmet Ali Pasha. Cubre períodos históricos clave, incluida la monarquía, el Tratado anglo-egipcio de 1936 y la Guerra Fría y la era posterior a la Guerra Fría.

Método: Utilizando un enfoque histórico-analítico, el estudio explora las eras de Gamal Abdel Nasser, Anwar Sadat y Hosni Mubarak. Destaca las políticas socialistas de Nasser y sus vínculos con la Unión Soviética, la liberalización económica de Sadat y los Acuerdos de Camp David, y las reformas económicas y la represión política de Mubarak que condujeron a la Primavera Árabe de 2011.

Conclusión: El artículo analiza críticamente la lucha de Egipto por la independencia, la gobernabilidad democrática y el desarrollo socioeconómico. Enfatiza la necesidad de fortalecer las instituciones democráticas, diversificar la economía, mejorar la educación y la atención médica y promover la inclusión política.

Implicación de la investigación: La investigación ofrece recomendaciones para ayudar a Egipto a aprovechar su legado histórico y garantizar un futuro próspero, democrático y estable, abordando desafíos sociopolíticos clave. Originalidad de la investigación: este artículo proporciona un relato histórico matizado y un análisis de la evolución política de Egipto, integrando teorías de modernización y dependencia, y ofrece ideas valiosas para académicos, formuladores de políticas y profesionales interesados en la política y el desarrollo de Oriente Medio.

Palabras clave: Egipto, Imperio Otomano, Mehmet Ali Pasha, Modernización, Guerra Fría, Primavera Árabe, Evolución Política, Instituciones Democráticas.

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1 INTRODUCTION

The modern history of Egypt is a compelling narrative of socio-political transformations shaped by both internal dynamics and external pressures. This study leverages modernization and dependency theories to analyze these transformations. Modernization theory, which suggests that traditional societies can develop by adopting traits from more advanced societies, is applied to examine the reforms initiated by Mehmet Ali Pasha and subsequent leaders. Dependency theory, highlighting the constraints imposed by external economic and political
influences, provides insight into Egypt's interactions with European powers and its ongoing struggle for genuine independence. This research employs a historical-analytical methodology, combining primary and secondary sources to construct a detailed narrative of Egypt's political evolution. Primary sources include official documents, treaties, speeches, and archival records, while secondary sources encompass scholarly books, journal articles, and contemporary analyses. The study follows a chronological approach to trace the continuity and changes in Egypt’s political landscape from the late 18th century to the early 21st century.

The study addresses several research questions: How did Mehmet Ali Pasha's reforms lay the groundwork for Egypt's semi-autonomous status within the Ottoman Empire? What were the impacts of European interventions, particularly the construction and control of the Suez Canal, on Egypt’s sovereignty? How did Gamal Abdel Nasser's socialist policies and alliance with the Soviet Union reshape Egypt’s socio-political and economic structures? In what ways did Anwar Sadat's policies, including the Camp David Accords, transform Egypt's domestic and foreign policies? What were the key factors leading to Hosni Mubarak’s resignation during the Arab Spring, and how did his policies contribute to this outcome?

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature on Egypt’s modern history is extensive and varied, offering numerous perspectives on the country's socio-political evolution and the impact of both internal reforms and external influences. This section reviews key scholarly works and theoretical frameworks that provide a deeper understanding of Egypt's transformation from an Ottoman province to a modern state. Works such as Cole (2001) and Mitchell (2013) offer detailed analyses of colonial and post-colonial dynamics in Egypt, emphasizing the socio-cultural impacts of European interventions. These texts highlight the significant role of external powers in shaping Egypt’s political landscape, particularly through the construction and control of the Suez Canal. Additionally, historians like Marsot (2007) provide comprehensive overviews of Egypt’s political history, detailing the interplay between domestic leaders and foreign influences. Gamal Abdel Nasser's era is extensively covered in scholarly literature, with Said (2002) and Hejkel (2003) offering critical insights into the ideological and political shifts during his presidency. Nasser’s socialist policies and alignment with the Soviet Union marked a significant departure from previous regimes, and these works explore the socio-economic changes and challenges during this period. Further, Beattie (1994) discusses Nasser’s efforts to modernize Egypt while contending with internal and external pressures.
Anwar Sadat’s presidency, including his landmark peace treaty with Israel, is critically examined in texts by Hamuda (1985) and Qamil (2012). These works discuss the broader implications of Sadat's policies, including economic liberalization and the shift towards a pro-Western stance. Additionally, Podeh (1999) analyzes the political and diplomatic strategies employed by Sadat to navigate the complex international landscape. Hosni Mubarak’s era is explored in works by Emin (2011) and Shehib (2011), which detail the economic reforms and political repression that characterized his rule. These studies provide a foundation for understanding the complexities of Egypt's political evolution and the socio-economic challenges that persisted throughout these periods. Further, Cook (2012) examines Mubarak’s strategies for maintaining power and the factors leading to the 2011 Arab Spring protests.

Recent studies have expanded on these foundational texts, offering new insights into Egypt's political dynamics and societal changes. Brownlee (2012) explores the persistence of authoritarianism in Egypt, analyzing the mechanisms that allowed Mubarak to maintain control for three decades. Kandil (2012) provides a detailed account of the military's role in Egyptian politics, highlighting its influence on both governance and economic structures. Springborg (2017) examines the economic policies of successive Egyptian governments, emphasizing the challenges of implementing market-oriented reforms in a politically repressive environment. This work underscores the difficulties faced by Egyptian leaders in balancing economic modernization with social stability. Shahin (2018) offers a comprehensive analysis of the post-Arab Spring era, focusing on the political and economic transitions that have taken place since Mubarak's resignation. This study highlights the ongoing struggles for democratic governance and economic development in the face of entrenched institutional and political obstacles. El-Ghobashy (2020) provides an in-depth look at the grassroots movements that have shaped Egypt’s recent political landscape. Her work explores the role of civil society organizations, labor unions, and youth movements in pushing for political change and their interactions with the state.

By integrating modernization and dependency theories, this article offers a nuanced understanding of how internal reforms and external influences have shaped Egypt’s political trajectory. Modernization theory posits that traditional societies can progress by adopting characteristics of more developed societies. This framework is applied to analyze the modernization efforts initiated by Mehmet Ali Pasha and continued by subsequent leaders. Dependency theory, which emphasizes the impact of external economic and political constraints, helps contextualize Egypt's interactions with European powers and its persistent struggle for true autonomy.
This study contributes significantly to academic research by providing a comprehensive historical account of Egypt's transformation from an Ottoman province to a modern state. It explores the interplay between domestic policies and international relations in shaping Egypt's political landscape, examining how leaders like Nasser and Sadat navigated Cold War dynamics and aligned with global powers to secure national interests while pursuing distinct domestic agendas. Furthermore, the study offers insights into the challenges of democratization and economic reform in Egypt, particularly during Mubarak’s era. It examines the paradox of economic liberalization alongside political repression, contributing to the broader discourse on authoritarian resilience and the conditions under which authoritarian regimes face significant public resistance.

Ultimately, this article provides a critical analysis of Egypt’s continuous struggle for genuine independence and democratic governance. It underscores the importance of political inclusivity, economic diversification, and institutional reforms in achieving sustainable development and stability. By offering recommendations based on historical analysis, the study aims to inform policy debates and contribute to ongoing efforts to address the socio-political challenges in Egypt.

In summary, this article not only chronicles significant milestones in Egypt’s modern history but also provides a theoretical and empirical basis for understanding the complexities of its political evolution. It bridges historical narratives with contemporary policy implications, offering valuable perspectives for scholars, policymakers, and practitioners interested in Middle Eastern politics and development.

3 EGYPT'S POLITICAL EVOLUTION: FROM OTTOMAN RULE TO MODERN STATE

Until the First World War, the Middle Eastern countries, including Egypt, were part of the Ottoman Empire. However, Egypt’s administration differed significantly from the central Ottoman system. Local leaders in Egypt seized properties and levied taxes, maintaining their power through these means (Winter, 2001, p. 128). In the late 19th century, Western European colonization in Egypt prompted a reaction within the Egyptian national movement. European influence began with Napoleon Bonaparte’s campaign (1798-1801) and continued with the reforms of Mehmet Ali Pasha, regarded as the founder of modern Egypt (Djurant, 2001, p. 404). The British occupation of Egypt in 1882 spurred civic groups to advocate for "Islamic Union and the Islamic Resurrection" (Qevasibi 2007, p. 49). Scholars like Jamaleddin Afghani called
for unity against the British (Abduh, 1993, p. 14), emphasizing religious reform and strong governance, which were crucial in developing Arab nationalism. Egypt, being relatively homogeneous, experienced more stability and prosperity compared to other Arab countries, as noted by Ibn Khaldun, who stressed the ease of state-building in a society without tribal divisions (Ibn Khaldun, 2004, p. 121).

Despite Ottoman rule, the Mamluk system persisted in Egypt. Local Mamluk beys controlled land use, tax collection, and political power, often engaging in revolts and power struggles against the Sultan (Husain, 2010, p. 679). From Yavuz Sultan Selim's reign until 1798, Egypt was free from foreign occupation. However, Napoleon’s campaign marked the beginning of European imperial influence. His aim was to block British access to India via the Red Sea (Winter, 2001, p. 42). During his campaign, Napoleon sought to win Egyptian support by publishing speeches in Arabic, criticizing the Mamluks to legitimize French occupation.

In 1801, joint Ottoman and British forces ended the French occupation, ushering in the era of Mehmet Ali Pasha. Appointed "Vali of Egypt" by Sultan Osman in 1805, Mehmet Ali Pasha established significant reforms, effectively separating Egypt from the Ottoman administrative center (Ozer, 2007, p. 78). With its long history, Egypt is considered the first modern Arab state. Ottoman military representative Mehmet Ali Pasha played a pivotal role in this transformation by implementing significant reforms, comparable to the Tanzimat, establishing Egypt as an independent entity from the Ottoman Empire (Ozer, 2007, p. 96-102).

The changes in 19th-century Egypt cannot be solely attributed to Mehmet Ali Pasha, although his military reforms were foundational. Initially, Mehmet Ali maintained close ties with the Ottoman Empire, achieving significant successes for Sultan Osman. However, by the 1830s, Egypt under Mehmet Ali sought greater autonomy, leading to rivalry among the "Great Powers" (Gurbal, 2012, p. 24-27). Mehmet Ali Pasha, despite not being of Arab origin, is seen as a cosmopolitan statesman. His era marked the early development of Arab nationalism. After his death, leaders like Abbas Pasha (1848-1854), Said Pasha (1854-1863), and Ismail Pasha (1863-1879) continued his legacy. Said Pasha’s tenure saw Egypt accruing debt due to new policies initiated in 1861 (Emin, 2012, p. 17). In 1882, Colonel Ahmed Arabi’s revolt, supported by reformist Arab intellectuals and army officers, underscored rising nationalist consciousness. This movement, fueled by economic hardships and increasing taxes, demanded a national parliament and reforms (Cole, 2001, p. 154).

The First World War marked a turning point for the Egyptian national movement. With the Ottoman Empire joining the war alongside Germany, Britain declared a protectorate over Egypt in 1914. This protectorate formalized a regime that had been in place for nearly 30 years.
(Mitchell, 2013, p. 55). Egypt was officially detached from the Ottoman Empire and used as a base for Allied operations during the war. In 1922, Britain declared the end of its protectorate, recognizing Egypt's independence. However, the agreement allowed Britain to maintain control over the Suez Canal and influence the Egyptian government. This led to a power struggle between King Farouk and the Wafd Party, which had broad popular and British support.

King Farouk’s rise in 1936 marked a shift, with Arabic replacing Turkish in the royal palace. Despite demographic growth, living standards declined, and an elite class emerged from Cairo University, aligning with nationalist opposition against British rule. The 1936 Anglo-Egyptian Treaty, viewed as an obstacle to full independence, made Egypt a member of the Commonwealth. During World War II, Egypt became a strategic center, with key cities filled with military personnel and political intrigue. In 1942, British Ambassador Sir Miles Lampson forced King Farouk to replace Prime Minister Ali Mahir Pasha with Nahas Pasha under threat, an event Abdul Nasser later described as a "national disgrace," pivotal in the 1952 revolution ending the monarchy (Nasir, 1996, p. 46).

4 THE NASSER AND SADAT YEARS: REVOLUTION, REFORM, AND PEACE

Following the 1952 coup by the "Free Officers," both the Soviet Union and the United States were initially unsure of how to approach the new Egyptian leadership. The abrupt change in Egypt surprised both sides; the Soviet Union viewed the new government as U.S.-aligned, while China saw it as anti-revolutionary (Said, 2002, p. 123). Nasser pragmatically balanced relations with the Soviet Union and socialist countries, while also dealing with Arab populist frustrations against Western colonialism and the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. The Soviet Union supported Egypt against Britain in 1953-1954 and used its UN veto power to back Egypt regarding the Suez Canal. Relations between Egypt and the Soviet Union strengthened, especially after the Baghdad Pact in 1955, which Egypt viewed as undermining the Arab Defense Agreement (Alkaid, 2008, p. 36).

Nasser's alignment with the Soviet Union deepened after Iraq joined the Baghdad Pact, and Israel attacked Gaza in February 1955. Nasser responded to the withdrawal of Western financial support for the Aswan Dam project by nationalizing the Suez Canal in July 1956, leading to a trade boycott by Britain and France (Ridvan, 1986, p. 63). Unable to procure weapons from the U.S., Nasser turned to Czechoslovakia in September 1955. In 1958, Nasser's influence grew with the formation of the United Arab Republic (UAR) with Syria, though relations with the Soviet Union fluctuated. A coup in Iraq in July 1958 suggested possible Iraqi
entry into the UAR (Shadi, 2005, p. 23). Nasser visited the Soviet Union in April 1958, and Egypt's Chief of General Staff visited Moscow later that year. Nasser sought financial aid for his economic projects, initially hoping for support from the U.S. and UN. He was named "Man of the Year" by Time magazine in 1956 but ultimately turned towards socialist policies (Fauzi, 1990, p. 33).

Nasser's relations with the U.S. deteriorated as he emerged as a leader of the Arab world. Preferring traditional Iraqi leaders, the U.S. sold weapons to Iraq, bypassing Nasser. Nasser strengthened ties with Non-Aligned Movement leaders like Nehru and Tito, enhancing Egypt's international standing and influence in Third World countries. Egypt also pursued an active African policy, supporting independence movements, leading to the independence of around twenty African countries by 1961 (Hejkal, 2003, p. 18). The Non-Aligned Movement held preparatory meetings in Egypt, including the Cairo Conference of 1957-1958, which included state representatives and opposition political movements. After Egypt's defeat in the 1967 Israeli-Arab conflict, Nasser's influence waned. The closure of the Suez Canal resulted in significant revenue loss, and Egypt's relations with Saudi Arabia and other Arab countries shifted.

Despite these challenges, Nasser continued to address both foreign and domestic issues, focusing on "Arab nationalism" and "Arab Union." His death in 1970 from a heart attack led to Anwar Sadat's succession (Hamood, 2000, p. 5). When Gamal Abdel Nasser died on September 28, 1970, he left behind a crisis-ridden system, a demoralized population, and a divided society. The crucial question was who would inherit his power. To prevent unrest, Nasser's deputy, Anwar Sadat, assumed the presidency, which was confirmed by a referendum on October 15, 1970 (Sadat, 1979, p. 286).

Although not a prominent figure during Nasser’s administration, Sadat had been close to Nasser and headed the Arab Socialist Union during Nasser's first heart attack in 1969. He was perceived as a "Yes President" due to his agreement with Nasser’s policies, yet he demonstrated his own assertive leadership style (Emin, 2007, p. 101). Opposition initially supported Sadat, viewing him as a "weak man" who could be manipulated. However, Sadat's strategic moves soon consolidated his power. One of his first critical foreign policy decisions was extending the ceasefire agreement with Israel until February 1971, despite opposition to his openness towards a peace agreement with Israel. In a parliamentary address on February 4, 1971, Sadat proposed reopening the Suez Canal and signing a peace treaty with Israel if it withdrew from the Sinai Peninsula, which was met with strong opposition but had U.S. support (Sadat, 1978, p. 143). Sadat faced peak opposition over the proposed alliance between Egypt,
Syria, and Libya. Despite internal resistance, he signed the Federation of Arab Republics plan on April 17, 1971. After initial rejection by the Arab Socialist Union, he revised the decision-making process to require unanimous approval, ensuring the plan's acceptance on April 19, 1971. To solidify his power, Sadat dismissed his Soviet-aligned rival, Ali Sabri, on May 2, 1971, and replaced the leadership of the Arab Socialist Union. This move eliminated opposition and consolidated his control. Sadat declared May 15 as Audit Day, later renaming it Audit Revolutionary Day, establishing it as a national holiday. Believing he had sufficient domestic support, Sadat made significant foreign policy shifts. He met with the Soviet ambassador to explain the dismissal of Sabri and reassured continued good relations with the Soviet Union. Sadat's pragmatic and strategic decisions allowed him to maintain power until his assassination in 1981.

5 MUBARAK'S REIGN: STABILITY, REPRESSSION, AND THE ROAD TO REVOLUTION

Following Anwar Sadat's assassination in 1981, Hosni Mubarak assumed the presidency. Faced with political and economic challenges, Mubarak sought reforms, particularly liberal economic policies, to stabilize Egypt. This period coincided with the Soviet Union's dissolution and global democratic movements, prompting demands for political change and prisoner releases in Egypt. Although Mubarak expanded some rights, including media freedoms, the democratization process remained limited (Emin, 2011, p. 39). Mubarak's era is characterized by continued state pressure on the populace, reflecting his inconsistency with global democratic trends. He prioritized political power growth while maintaining positive relations with Israel and the United States, a policy initiated by Sadat (Qamil, 2012, p. 267). The U.S. viewed Egypt as a stabilizer against regional radicals, particularly Iran, and provided significant military aid. However, diplomatic crises occasionally strained the Egyptian-American partnership. In 2008, U.S. President George Bush criticized Mubarak’s administration at the Davos Forum, leading to a reduction in U.S. aid from $2 billion to $1.3 billion starting in 2009 (Hejkel, 2012, p. 268). Despite domestic opposition, Mubarak enacted legal reforms for the 2005 elections, introducing secret ballots and multiple candidates for presidential elections. The constitutional amendment in 2005 allowed multiple candidates, but restrictive criteria made it difficult for independents to qualify.

The 2005 presidential election saw Mubarak win with 88.7% of the vote, though only 23% of voters participated, highlighting the reforms' ineffectiveness in promoting genuine
democracy. Following the presidential election, parliamentary elections were held, with the ruling party winning. Despite being legally banned, the Muslim Brotherhood secured 88 seats by running independent candidates. Throughout his rule, Mubarak maintained a state of emergency, suppressing radical movements and strengthening security services. He avoided appointing a vice president, suggesting his son Gamal Mubarak as a potential successor, causing discontent within the bureaucracy. His pro-Israel policies and lack of a national stance on Palestine further alienated the populace. Economically, Egypt saw growth under Mubarak, with per capita income rising from 2005 to 2010, making it the 26th most developed country. However, this economic growth exacerbated wealth inequality, with over half the population living below the poverty line.

Mubarak’s reliance on IMF and World Bank loans increased Egypt's economic dependency. His administration's ban on religious political parties and use of emergency laws to suppress religious movements contributed to growing public discontent. This division between the people and leadership culminated in the January 2011 protests, driven by economic hardship and political repression. In response to the protests, Mubarak appointed Omar Suleiman as vice president and announced his intention to participate in the upcoming elections. However, the continued unrest led Mubarak to resign on February 11, 2011. He faced legal action for human rights violations, mismanagement, and the deaths of 800 protesters. Mubarak, along with his son Gamal and Interior Minister Habib el-Adly, was prosecuted, and Mubarak was sentenced to life imprisonment (Shehib, 2011, p. 123).

6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Egypt's modern history is often traced back to 1798, when Napoleon Bonaparte's arrival marked a significant turning point. At that time, Egypt had been a province of the Ottoman Empire for 350 years, governed under a complex administrative arrangement. Although the French occupation was brief, as British and Ottoman forces expelled them in 1801, its impact was profound. In 1805, Mehmet Ali Pasha, an Albanian officer in the Ottoman Army, became Egypt's governor. Inspired by the French, he initiated a series of modernization reforms, including establishing a European-style bureaucracy, creating a modern military and navy, building arsenals, founding schools, and promoting cotton as a cash crop for export to Europe. These reforms effectively made Egypt semi-autonomous from the Ottoman Sultan. Despite these advancements, Egypt's independence was continually undermined by European powers. The successors of Mehmet Ali lacked his vision, military prowess, and political acumen,
making Egypt susceptible to European schemes, notably involving the Suez Canal. The construction and control of the Suez Canal became a focal point of international interest and intervention. The 1936 Anglo-Egyptian Treaty marked a significant but contentious step towards Egyptian independence. Egypt gained the status of a "Member State" in the Commonwealth, yet British influence persisted through the rebranding of the British High Commissioner as the British Embassy. This arrangement maintained Britain's supervisory role over Egypt.

During the early 1950s, the Soviet Union emerged as a key supporter of Egypt, particularly against British interests. In 1954, the Soviet Union exercised its UN Security Council veto to support Egypt regarding the Suez Canal dispute with Israel, strengthening Soviet-Egyptian relations. Gamal Abdel Nasser's presidency marked a shift towards socialism and closer ties with the Soviet Union. His regime improved education and healthcare but was repressive, and the economy stagnated. Egypt's defeat in the 1967 Six-Day War with Israel was a significant blow, and Nasser's death in 1970 led to Anwar Sadat's presidency.

Sadat reversed many of Nasser's socialist policies, promoting foreign investment and liberalizing the economy. His landmark achievement was the 1978 Camp David Accords, which established peace with Israel. However, Sadat's assassination by extremists in 1981 brought Hosni Mubarak to power. Mubarak's era was marked by efforts to further liberalize the economy, though political repression persisted. His administration maintained close ties with the United States and Israel but faced growing domestic discontent due to economic disparities and political oppression. The 2011 Arab Spring protests forced Mubarak to resign, opening a new chapter in Egypt's history.

6.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

- Strengthen Democratic Institutions: Egypt should focus on building robust democratic institutions to ensure transparency, accountability, and citizen participation in governance. This includes reforming the electoral system to allow fair and competitive elections;

- Economic Diversification: To reduce dependency on foreign aid and loans, Egypt should diversify its economy. Promoting sectors like technology, manufacturing, and tourism can create jobs and drive sustainable economic growth;
- Enhance Education and Healthcare: Continuing to improve education and healthcare systems is crucial for long-term development. Investing in these areas can build human capital and improve overall quality of life;
- Address Economic Inequality: Policies should aim to reduce economic disparities by supporting small and medium enterprises, improving access to finance, and implementing social safety nets for the vulnerable population;
- Promote Political Inclusivity: Encouraging the participation of diverse political groups, including marginalized and opposition parties, can foster a more inclusive political environment and reduce societal tensions;
- Strengthen Rule of Law: Ensuring an independent judiciary and enforcing the rule of law can protect human rights and provide a stable environment for economic and social activities;
- Foster Regional Cooperation: Enhancing diplomatic relations and cooperation with neighboring countries can promote regional stability and economic integration, benefiting Egypt's long-term interests;

By addressing these recommendations, Egypt can build on its historical legacy to create a more prosperous, democratic, and stable future for its citizens.

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