The Impact of De-globalization on Multi-National Companies in Egypt

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Abstract

This study examines the impact of de-globalization on multinational companies (MNCs) operating in Egypt, focusing on socio-economic dimensions and the implications for achieving Egypt's Vision 2030. The research highlights several critical outcomes stemming from de-globalization, including negative job creation, wage dynamics, gender disparity, and the need for continuous skill development and training programs. The study finds that younger workers entering the labor market face significant barriers in securing employment that aligns with their qualifications, raising concerns for individual economic mobility and the overarching development goals espoused by the Egyptian government. The issue of wage dynamics further complicates the

labor landscape, as many employees within MNCs report wages that fail to meet basic family needs, highlighting a critical gap between globalization's anticipated benefits and local economic realities. This wage stagnation poses a threat not only to the financial stability of households but also to broader economic growth, as employees with limited disposable income contribute less to local markets. The study also highlights the pervasive issue of gender disparity in employment, with women remaining significantly underrepresented in the workforce. underrepresentation not only reflects entrenched cultural norms but also highlights systemic barriers that limit women's participation in economic activities. The implications for economic growth are profound, as the exclusion of women from the workforce stifles innovation, reduces productivity, and perpetuates cycles of poverty. The study suggests that MNCs can play a pivotal role in facilitating professional development align with corporate initiatives that objectives simultaneously addressing employee needs. Implementing comprehensive training programs not only augments employee satisfaction but also enhances workforce readiness, improving organizational resilience in the face of economic uncertainties. By investing in their workforce, MNCs can pave the way for greater innovation and productivity, benefiting both the companies and the local communities in which they operate. Corporate responsibility and community engagement are also key

themes in the study. MNCs must move beyond traditional business practices and proactively engage with local stakeholders to foster meaningful relationships that drive mutual benefits. By prioritizing local sourcing initiatives and building partnerships with nearby suppliers, MNCs can strengthen their supply chains while contributing to the sustainability of local economies. The study offers several compelling policy recommendations, including establishing regulatory frameworks that bolster local employment, ensuring fair labor standards, and protecting workers' rights. Engaging in dialogue with MNCs can create incentives for companies to invest in local communities and prioritize the hiring of Egyptian workers, fostering environment of collaboration rather than competition. Additionally, educational reforms that emphasize skill development in line with market demands are essential in preparing the workforce for future challenges. In conclusion, the study serves as both a reflection of the challenges posed by deglobalization and a call for necessary changes within corporate strategies and governmental frameworks in Egypt.

Keywords: De-globalization, Multinational Companies, Egypt, Employment Dynamics, Wage Stagnation, Gender Inequality, Skill, Development, Corporate Responsibility, Vision 2030.

I. Introduction

Both the globalization of commerce and foreign direct investment (FDI) appear to have peaked between 2007 and 2010. These changes have come with increased trade and investment restrictions (Witt, 2019). As a result there is growing evidence suggests that we may live in a period of de-globalization at least since a decade ago. If Globalization is commonly defined in International Business (IB) as the process of increasing interdependence among nations (Chase-Dunn et al., 2000; Guille'n, 2001; Meyer, 2017; Rugman & Verbeke, 2004; Verbeke, Coeurderoy, & Matt, 2018). Accordingly, deglobalization can be defines as the process of weakening interdependence among nations. While (de-)globalization has multiple facets, the focus of this study is on the conflict between the socio-economic effect of the deglobalization and the sustainability development goals in context of the developing countries, taking Egypt as a case study.

Multinational companies have a strong influence on both the international and national arenas, given their economic and financial influence with a social and political impact on host countries, especially developing ones. This is perhaps what is clearly evident from the spread of these companies around the world, with their number reaching about 65,000 companies around the world, followed by more than 850 headquarters and

branches. It gives it the opportunity to control nearly half of the world's trade markets (Abdul Aziz and Jassim, 2010). This may give the developed countries that own this type of companies the opportunity to use them to exert pressure on the governments of countries that oppose their policies or are developing countries alike, to push these countries to adopt a certain position or abandon some of their policies, especially since these companies possess the economic and political power that enables them to control the management of the affairs of some countries internally to direct the countries as they wish to steer the ship, which is what both developing and developed countries suffer from, except that their influence is clearly evident in developing countries, which often have fragile and weak governments, which gives them - multinational companies Nationalities - The opportunity to dominate and control countries and their national companies, to cause economic damage to the host countries at the near and distant levels, which may lead their economies to the edge of the abyss or slide into a deep valley.

However, the dominance that multinational companies seek to achieve through investing in host countries is not the only aspect that these investments have. Rather, these companies may have the magic solution to many of the problems facing host countries - especially developing ones - if the host countries make good use of this valuable opportunity to use it in the way of revitalizing their economies and working to solve them, the most

important of which is unemployment, as multinational companies often employ national workers. After training them on the technology they possess, the company transfers it to the host country, which helps them to provide workers with the expertise they lack, in addition to revitalizing their national economy by pumping foreign currency into the national markets. In fact, despite the many positives those multinational companies carry within them when they enter into investment in developing countries. With the appearance of the term de-globalization as a recognized fact, viewpoints have differed on the extent of its worthiness in providing aid to countries or not, so voices have risen calling for the preference not to rely on it in helping developing countries to rise while being satisfied with national efforts - which may take longer than rushing to resort to these companies - based on the fact that this rise is an illusory rise that quickly turns into a disaster for the national economy in particular (Abd El- Shafi, 2023). The sudden withdrawal of investments by multinational companies from a developing country as a result of political or economic unrest in the host country, leaving the national economy empty-handed.

In light of the above, the primary objective of this study is to examine the impact of de-globalization on multinational companies in Egypt, focusing on the socio-economic impact, as well as measuring the extent of conflict with the sustainable development goals in their economic and social dimensions in light of Egypt's Vision 2030.

II. Literature Review

2.1. Beginning of the De-globalization Movement

Globalization is closely related worldwide to economic integration and multinationalism. **International** investment, free commerce, international compliance, and standard operating procedures are all important because of globalization. International institutions deemed crucial to commerce and economics included the Nations Conference Development on commerce and (UNCTAD), the World Trade Organization (WTO), and International Monetary Fund (IMF). However, globalism was criticized since it was uniust inequitable, which posed major problems for trade nations. Due to them, regionalism has grown, and at the national level, regional cooperation has increased via the use of (FTAs). trade agreements Furthermore, free regional Comprehensive accords like the integration and Trans-Pacific Progressive Agreement for Partnership (CPTPP), the European Union (EU), and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) represent a break from globalism and multinationalism (Hag-Min Kim and Ping Li, 2020).

Globalization and deglobalization have cvclical competition throughout history. The first global economy occurred from 1840 to 1929, followed by the depression and First World War, leading to the first deglobalization from 1929 to 1979. The Second World War saw western nations eliminate trade barriers and many became WTO members. The second globalized economy continued until the 2008 global financial crisis, causing concerns about inequality and income divide. Powerful individuals and small-to-medium enterprises believed they were not paid fairly, leading to new a pattern deglobalization (Jones, 2005). Stiglitz (2007) argued that emerging economies were not expanding at all and showed how the globe was becoming politically and economically unstable due to pollution, tariffs, subsidies, and an overly complicated patent system. Corrective government actions may therefore be beneficial after an analysis of imperfect markets. This exemplifies the drawbacks of globalization. Numerous observations of deglobalization have now been made.

First, wealthy nations have made import tariff barriers stronger, and trade governance organizations have found it simpler to enforce tariffs. In particular, the Trump Administration levied significant tariffs on China, Korea, and other countries that had benefited from a trade surplus

with the United States. The high tariffs and safeguards in previous years are depicted in Figure (1).

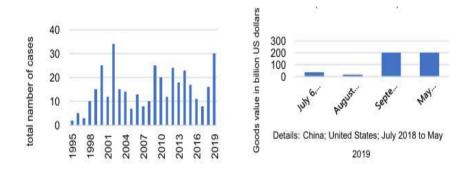


Fig (1): Safeguard and US tariffs issue. Source:

(https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/safeg_e/safeg_e.htm#statistics) and BBC, Statista (2019).

Some governments employed "grey area" measures to safeguard their sectors, and safeguard measures were rarely used. Although the overall number of safeguard cases globally declined starting in 2014, it has recently resumed its upward trend after 2018. On May 10, 2019, the United States raised import taxes on \$200 billion worth of Chinese products from 10% to 25%. A trade war broke out between the two biggest economies in the world. Second, several techniques have been used to erect non-tariff barriers (NTBs). NTBs are limitations resulting from complex or expensive regulations, constraints, or particular market demands for the import or export of goods. Unfair and

improper use of non-tariff measures, such as sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) measures and other technical transaction barriers (TBT), are examples of NTBs. Import prohibitions, general or product-specific restrictions, "buy national" policies, overpriced currencies, constrictive licensing, complicated regulatory environments, import licenses, seasonal import regimes, and similar measures can all result in NTBs to trade. Third, the global economy has tended to be organized around a GVC during the past several decades, which accounts for a significant portion of global output, employment, and trade (Pla-Barber and Villar, 2019). Global commerce was reorganized by GVC in terms of participation and comparative advantages. The global economy's shifting value chains have raised living standards in developing nations while increasing economic disparity in rich nations (Dollar, 2001).

According to Bellow, W. (2008), there are 14 features in deglobalization: (1) production for the domestic market;(2) level: (3) subsidies at the national strong trade policy;(4)industrial policy including subsidies, tariffs and strengthen the manufacturing sector; (5) long postponed measures of equitable income redistribution; (6) deemphasizing growth but emphasizing upgrading the quality of life; (7) transportation power and systems decentralized transformed into systems based (8) healthy renewable balance maintained sources;

between the country's carrying capacity and the size of its population; (9) environmentally congenial technology; (10) a gender lens to ensure gender equity; (11) strategic economic decisions to the market or to technocrats; (12) civil society monitoring and supervising the private sector and the state and a process that should be institutionalized; (13) the property complex transformed into a mixed economy; and (14) centralized global institutions replaced with regional institutions.

2-1. The concept of De-globalization

According to some definitions in the IB. globalization is the process of nations becoming more interdependent (Chase-Dunn et al., 2000; Guille'n, 2001; Meyer, 2017; Rugman & Verbeke, 2004; Coeurderoy, & Matt, 2018). Therefore, the process of reducing international interconnectedness is known as de-Although (de-)globalization globalization. aspects, this study focuses on the socio-economic domain. It is important to note that the world, not a single country, is the level of analysis (Chase-Dunn et al., 2000). Similar globalization does to how not need greater interdependence among all nations—for example, North Korea may have deviated from the trend by becoming less dependent following the end of the Cold War-deglobalization does not necessitate a decrease

interdependence among all nations. worldwide events that are indicative of globalization or deglobalization.

De-globalization been occurring globally has several years, particularly in of international terms business, trade, and foreign direct investment (FDI). This weakening of interdependence indicates that countries rely less on goods and services or investment from other countries, relative to domestic economic activity levels. suggests trade and investment flows This that percentages of GDP should be declining. The World Bank's data supports this expectation, showing a decline in trade levels from 30.2% in 2007 to 30.1% in 2009 and 2010, and a similar trend in FDI levels. These changes are not accounted for by drops in overall investment levels (Chase-Dunn et al., 2000; Subramanian, 2011; World Bank, 2017 and 2018).

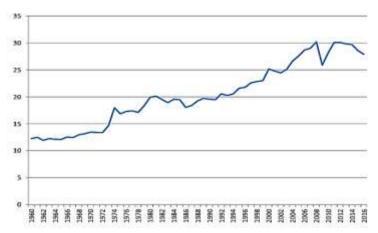


Fig (2): World average levels of imports of goods and services as a percentage of GDP, weighted by GDP.

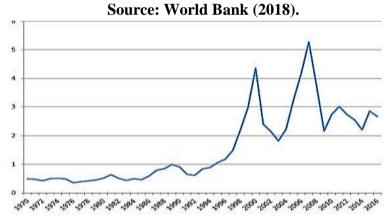


Fig (3): World average levels of inward FDI flows as a percentage of GDP, weighted by GDP.

Source: World Bank (2017).

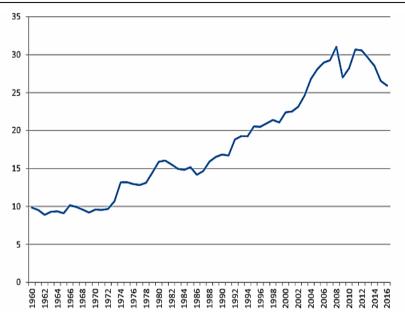


Fig (4): World average levels of imports of goods and services as a percentage of GDP, weighted by population.

Source: World Bank (2017).

These figures are vulnerable to distortions, such as currency conversion to US dollars and inflation adjustments. Correction mechanisms like purchasing power parities (PPP) and constant prices are estimates that are susceptible to estimation and measurement errors. For example, the 2011 corrections of PPP exchange rates in the Penn World Tables resulted in China's economy growing by 27% in 2005. These corrections are not accounted for by equivalent drops in overall investment levels.

In order to do a robustness test, I weighted imports and foreign direct investment by population, as per Chase-Dunn et al. (2000).

Figures 5 presents the findings. In general, they agree with those derived from weighting by GDP, particularly in light of the most recent downward trends. These measurements are obviously prone to various aberrations. For example, Figure 2-4 does not show a peak in 2000 because China and India are significantly more heavily weighted.

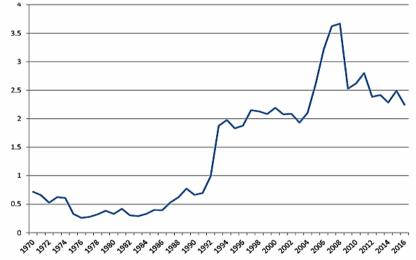


Fig (5): World average levels of inward FDI flows as a percentage of GDP, weighted by population.

Source: World Bank (2017).

Other alternative indicators paint a consistent picture of the effects of globalization as well as modifications to the trade and investment laws that support them. The de facto and de jure trade

globalization sub-indices of the KOF Globalization Index (Dreher, 2006; Dreher, Gaston, & Martens, 2008; GygliHaelg, & Sturm, 2018) take into account shifts in the regulatory landscape. From 1970 to 2015, the final year for which the indices are currently accessible, Figure 6 depicts the chronology of these metrics. De jure trade globalization peaked in 2010, but de facto trade globalization peaked in 2008.

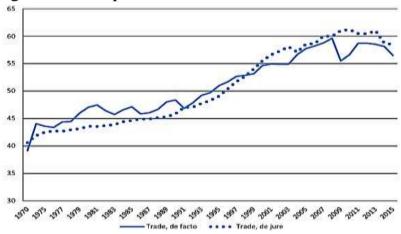


Fig (6): KOF Globalization Index, sub-indices for de facto and de jure trade globalization. Source: KOF Swiss Economic Institute (2018).

By using the underlying data, one may obtain insights into the FDI dimension, even if the KOF Globalization Index only offers a composite financial globalization index that includes both direct and portfolio investments. The composite financial globalization index uses IMF statistics on the net position of foreign direct investment stocks normalized by GDP to account for de facto FDI globalization. This indicator, which has

significantly decreased from its high in 2011, is also consistent with the potential of continued de-globalization, as Figure 2-7 illustrates.

The KOF Globalization Index uses the Economic Freedom Index's investment limitations variable to measure de jure FDI globalization. The variable's trend from 1995, the earliest year for which the dataset contains data, is seen in Figure 2-8 (Fraser Institute, 2018). Given that greater values signify greater economic freedom, the chart implies that de jure FDI globalization peaked in 2000–2001 and has subsequently been on the decline. All things considered, even if these figures don't provide concrete evidence, they do support de-globalization and a move toward less economic interdependence. This is especially noteworthy in light of the ongoing advancements in technology, which permitted greater degrees of economic interconnection in the past and beyond (Chase-Dunn et al., 2000; Jones, 2007).

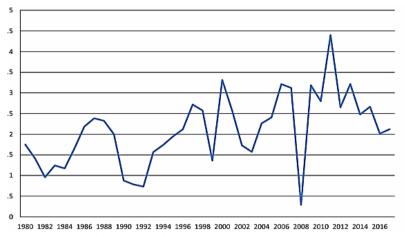


Fig (7): World net foreign direct investment position as percentage of world GDP. Years before 1980 not available.

Source: IMF (2018a, b).

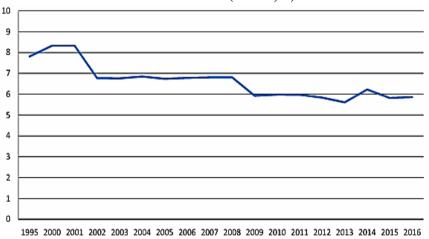


Fig (8): Foreign ownership/investment restrictions. Higher = fewer restrictions. Years before 1995 and from 1996 to 1999 not available. Source: Fraser Institute (2018).

The term deglobalization was first used by Walden Bello in the Deglobalization - Ideas for a New World Economy (2005). Bello does not consider deglobalization as an ongoing phenomenon, since the integration processes in 2005 were at their peak, but he proposes deglobalization as a process that would completely change the existing model of global economy governance.

and Warner (1995), Taylor (1996), Frankel (2000), Baldwin and Martin (1999), James (2017), and Obstfeld and Taylor (2002) are among the scholars who explore the hypothesis that economic globalization is a temporary phenomenon. Lewis and Monarch Constantinescu, Mattoo, and Ruta (2015), Bussière. and Marsilli (2015) have all examined current downward patterns in the global According to these writers, cyclical economic variables are typically insufficient to account for the international commerce. Even though these studies don't question the global economic mainstream, they are a good place to start since they consistently rule out a lot of phenomena that can cause a short-term decline in the amount of international commerce.

Very few authors have analysed broader context of current changes in the international economic system. Bordo (2017) notes widespread changes in the world

economy: a decrease in the volume of foreign trade and foreign investment, withdrawal of GVC, an increase in regulation, but he concludes that it is a break in the process of global integration, not the end of the process. In contrast, Jacoby (2018) and Evenett (2019) have analysed the current trend of mass trade protectionism, which they consider to be a symptom of serious disturbances in the international economic system and the beginning of deglobalization.

2-2. The Directions of De-globalization

2-4-1. International Trade

Following World War II, the globalization of the world economy was characterized by the explosive development of international commerce. After averaging 24% in the 1960s and 35% in the 1970s, trade's proportion of the global economy surpassed half of the global GDP in the early 21st century and hit a record-breaking 61% in 2008 (Figure 9). The expansion of global commerce was slowed in 2009 by the Global Financial Crisis (GFC). The amount of international commerce briefly rebounded in the two years after the crisis, but subsequently declined much more, such that even ten years later, it has not returned to its pre-crisis level.

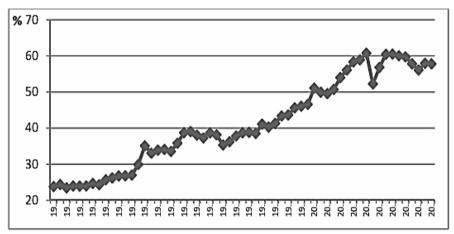


Fig (9): Share of international trade in GDP, 1960-2018. Source: World Bank Data

https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NE.TRD.GNFS.ZS

There was not a significant decline in the global economy's proportion of international commerce. In 2018, trade accounted for over 57% of global GDP, down from 61% before to the Great Financial Crisis. Nonetheless, this worldwide pattern suggests a fundamental shift because the fall came after more than 50 years of nearly constant expansion and continued for 10 years. Trade declines, whether local, regional, or worldwide, are frequently the consequence of cyclical weakness of export economies or, more frequently, a drop in the price of export goods. To far, structural disruption of the whole trading system has never caused a decline in trade. It seems that the present decline in global commerce volume is distinct.

In the empirical model set by Boz, Bussière, and Marsilli (2015), common cyclical factors were estimated: reduced

demand, import prices, and a crisis induced change in orientation towards domestic rather than import procurement. It was concluded that they accounted for only a half of the causes of international trade decline. Constantinescu, Mattoo and Ruta (2015) also found that only a half of the decrease in international trade volume can be explained by the weakening of economic activity, i.e. a decrease in GDP. Lewis and Monarch (2018) tested a possibility that the decline in trade volume was a reflection of a weakness in certain sectors of the world economy. They created a model in which imports were analysed as a function of consumption, investment and real exchange rates on the sample of several major economies. The results also show that the decline in international trade cannot generally be explained by the weakening of economies. The results of these studies summarize all the cyclical causes of the decline in international trade and suggest that the decline in foreign trade since 2010 is not transient by nature, that is, reflects long-term structural changes.

One significant shift in the global economy that is closely linked to the status of global trade is the abrupt increase in protectionism. An important structural shift in the current global economic system is reflected in any protectionism that aims to shield the domestic economy from the environment (raising import, export, and customs taxes, imposing import bans, or

implementing special security measures) as opposed to integrating with the environment.

The weakening of economic activity during the GFC prompted a number of restrictive trade measures by developed and developing economies. A number of measures such as increasing tariffs, imposing quantitative restrictions tightening customs rules escalated between 2008 and 2018. The World Trade Organization (WTO) estimates that import restrictions, imposed only in the period from October 2017 to October 2018, resulted in a decrease in international trade by \$480 billion and restrictions in the period from October 2018-May 2019 by \$336 billion (WTO, 2019). New restrictive measures on imports, introduced by the G20 economies during this period, are three and a half times higher than the 2012 average, since when the WTO calculates the scope of trade restrictions. According to the Global Trade Alert (GTA), which also includes trade remedies (antidumping and other instruments counteracting countries that are considered potentially harmful to the domestic economy), the number of these measures is far greater. According to GTA (2020), there are more than 1000 new restrictive measures each year, or more than 2000 in 2018. The 2019 WTO report states the following as a general feature of foreign trade: "During this period, trade tensions continued to dominate as a major feature and contributed to the uncertainty of international trade and the world economy.... The turbulence

continues. A record level of new restrictive measures was introduced in the previous period" (WTO, 2019, p. 2).

The US-China trade war, which characterized global commerce in 2018 and 2019, has received special attention. According to estimates, Chinese customs tariffs have decreased US products exports by around \$200 billion, while US customs duties have decreased Chinese goods exports by about \$500 billion. The global trade war between the two biggest countries had a substantial impact on global trade volume overall and fueled a broad decline in trust in international organizations and liberal global economic principles.

The most affected countries by trade restrictions (at the end of 2019) were: China, with over 6,000 restrictions, Germany with more than 5,000, followed by Italy, the USA, France, the United Kingdom, the Republic of Korea, Spain and the Netherlands with about 4,000 restrictive measures (GTA, 2020). The increasing number and volume of trade restrictions will cause, directly or indirectly, in the coming period an additional, though not significant, decrease in the volume of international trade. However. key change that makes the us talk about deglobalization is not the volume of trade, but the increasing protectionism of national economies. The marginalization of international trade rules undermines the authority and role of the WTO, on which the global trading system relies. There are still few authors who see deep disruption within the international

trade system itself, linking it much less to the weakening of globalization processes. Jacoby (2018, p. 60) links these processes to "Brexit" and Donald Trump's economic policies. The passive role of international institutions in these cases, according to Jacoby, points to the need for a complete reorganization and redesign of the IMF, the World Bank, the G20, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the WTO and "all other institutions responsible for monitoring trade and taking responsibility actors" (Jacoby, 2018). Evenet (2019, p. 15) points out that the WTO mitigates the state of trade restrictions in its reports by not including the mentioned trade remedies into harmful restrictions since 2017. The weakness and crisis of the WTO are particularly highlighted by the fact that the United Nations (UN) at the end of 2018 adopted the Convention on International Settlement Agreements (Singapore Convention on Mediation), and thus established a parallel model for resolving trade disputes, which is already under the authority of the WTO. This UN act is probably not an attempt at deliberately devaluing the World Trade Organization, but rather a reflection of the real need to end concrete disputes.

2-4-2. International Investments

From the 1970s to the 1990s, foreign direct investment (FDI) increased gradually but not significantly. Due to the opening of several new markets in the former Eastern Bloc, foreign direct investment (FDI) started to

increase sharply in the 1990s. FDI volumes grew at an annual pace of more than 20% (Chart 2). There was a notable drop in foreign investment between 2001 and 2003. But much as with commerce, the recession in the USA and the EU was the cause of this decline. As anticipated, FDI swiftly surpassed the prior level following these nations' recovery from the crisis because the economic slump during this time was cyclical. The average FDI increase from the 2001–2003 recession to the Great Financial Crisis (GFC) 2008 was 8% (UNCTAD, 2019a, p. 5).

During GFC 2008-2009, FDI growth halved. A few years later moderate growth and short-term growth followed (Figure 2-10), indicating that global investors have regained confidence in the stability of the world economy or at least in the stability of the economies of the countries they invested in, and secondly that there were still profitable opportunities to invest in foreign markets. The total world FDI inflow in 2015 was 2034 billion, and since then it began sharply declining. FDI decreased by about 2% in 2016, by 23% in 2017 and an additional 13% in 2018 to 1300 billion (UNCTAD, 2019a). In 2018, FDI inflows into Europe were halved again, with some countries registering a negative inflow as a result of the withdrawal of US multinational investment funds. This is

the lowest FDI level since GFC. Based on the logarithmic trend line (Figure 10), moderate FDI growth can be expected in 2019 and, probably in 2020, but it is almost certain that a short-term increase will not significantly change the trend line.

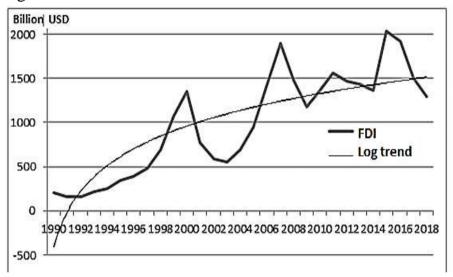


Fig (10): Foreign Direct Investment 1990-2018 (in billion \$). Source: Unctadstat data (2020), https://unctadstat.unctad.org/

One of the main causes of the overall drop in FDI in 2018 was the 40% drop in investment from industrialized nations. According to UNCTAD (2019a, pp. 2-3), their portion of the overall investment fell to 55%, the lowest amount ever noted. Additionally, albeit to a much smaller level, 10% less money was invested in developing nations (UNCTAD, 2019a, p. 3).

The recession is not to blame for the present drop in foreign direct investment, which started in 2016. A portion of the

drop in FDI can be attributed to "natural" flows, or anticipated flows determined by economic rules. Specifically, for over thirty years, the majority of economies were open to foreign capital inflows, which caused the global financial market to become rather saturated. The majority of the profitable prospects for new investments had been taken advantage of, and a decline in earnings resulted in both the lack of new investments and the withdrawal of funds from overseas initiatives that were already underway.

Another factor contributing to the fall in foreign direct investment growth, which was to be expected in some regions of the world, particularly in East and Southeast Asia, is the paradox inherent in globalization. Over time, labor and products costs become comparable globally due to the economy's openness. Therefore, globalization itself fueled the increase in labour costs in East and Southeast Asian nations, which are the most desirable locations for foreign investment, robbing them of a vital component of their appeal to FDI. In the context of international investment, this is a less significant factor because, according to the data, FDI inflows into developing nations have not decreased; rather, their development has been halted.

Both causes of FDI decline have relatively permanent nature. Although they are the result of market regularities, we cannot consider them cyclical. In addition to market laws that halt global integration processes, restrictive policies of large economies have

relatively lasting effects. Since the GFC, the number and scope of restrictive foreign investment measures have been in an upward trend. These measures include a number of instruments, which in quite different ways have adverse effects on foreign investors. The most common measures relate to restricting or prohibiting the inflow of foreign investment into certain economic sectors, but there are also cases where the state restricts its companies from investing in certain countries or sectors. China has introduced direct restrictions on its companies, while developed countries, home of the largest MNCs, are intensifying efforts to stem, reduce and discourage capital outflows. Such measures have been adopted by the US Foreign Investment Committee, the European Commission, Germany, the United Kingdom and Italy. Financial incentives for the domestic economy are also on the rise, one of the measures that limit foreign investment. The number of protected sectors is increasing and the protection is expanding to the most profitable services and products. Most new measures relate to investment restrictions in the areas of telecommunications, the Internet and the production of electrical components.

According to UNCTAD (2019a), the share of restrictive measures in total measures related to FDI increased from 10% to 34% between 2003 and 2018, that is, measures contributing to FDI liberalization were reduced from 90% to 66%. This is the largest share of the restriction since 2003. In addition, the

introduction of screening, mandatory assessment of each foreign investment by an authorized agency, is common. This mechanism was introduced by 24 countries, which together account for more than a half of the world's cumulative FDI. The direct impact of the new restrictions on the total volume of FDI cannot be quantified. We believe that they are, to a certain extent, a direct cause of their decline, but more importantly they contribute to the creation of negative investment environment, which in the future will contribute to further disinvestment.

2-4-3. International Production

Another important component of globalization is the relatively recent phenomena of globally dispersed production, which goes hand in hand with traditional forms of economic integration like international commerce and foreign investment. Production processes have been more segmented into various organizational units globe around the result as a internationalization, with the goal of producing goods with the most economical structure for a certain production segment. corporations' Multinational primary activity, fragmented manufacturing, has led to nearly no finished product that does not incorporate inputs from many nations. Nowadays, practically every exporting company in every country is a member of worldwide production chains, also known as global value chains or global supply chains, whether or not they include foreign

capital participation. They now make up a large portion of the global economy.

The flow of inputs within international value chains cannot be measured by foreign trade data for a particular product group between the countries involved in its production. Namely, statistics always show the final value of an exported product, not considering that the import value of components for that product is only slightly lower (for added value) than the value of the exported product (Stanojevic, Kotlica, 2018). For more complex final products, it is not unusual for products to cross several borders or the same border several times at different stages of production. Trade statistics, at each border transition, record the entire value of the product. Instead of this data, the indicator of economic integration in international production is foreign value added (FVA). FVA is the value of an imported semi-finished product that is ready for further processing and export. This data is collected by the OECD (Trade in Value Added Database -TiVA) and UNCTAD (Eora Global Value Chain Database) using partially different methods. Both bases provide nominal values. Only by determining the share of FVA in the total GDP of the country, in total exports or in total trade can we get a true picture of the extent of disintegration of international production chains.

Businesses now have less confidence and are less inclined to participate in global supply chains as a result of the tightening trade and investment restrictions. These modifications decrease prospects for upcoming ventures and make existing foreign Furthermore, they unreliable. make illogical investments additional investments in expanding capacity or participant numbers. Over the two decades, from 1990 to 2010, FVA share in exports had grown gradually but steadily (UNCTAD, 2018). FVA, like all economic parameters, fell dramatically in the GFC period. As with foreign trade and investment, there was a temporary and moderate recovery, and then since 2015, the degree of integration into international production if not declining, like in a large number of countries, it definitely stagnated in all other regions of the world. FVA as an indicator of international production decreased globally in 10 years, from 31% in 2008 to 27% in international trade, and UNCTAD estimates that its stagnation or a slight decline will continue in the coming years (UNCTAD, 2018, p 22).

A shift in China's development strategy, which is one of the factors contributing to deglobalization, signaled the start of the global economy's deglobalization. Over the past 20 years, China's economic growth has drastically changed the country's economic situation, composition, and potential. It was formerly a cheap labour force that drove worldwide manufacturing and served as the primary reason MNCs from all industrialized nations were there, but it has since increased to a median income level. Additionally, production without workers and environmental

standards is no longer an option. For this reason, a lot of businesses have been shifting their manufacturing from China since 2009. The FVA percentage of China's GDP and exports likewise shows this (Figure 11).

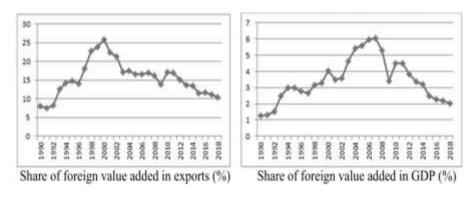


Fig (11): China's Integration into Global Product Chains, 1990-2018.

Source: Unctadstat, unctadstat.unctad.org, and the World Bank, data.worldbank.org/indicator.

Foreign value-added is steadily declining not only in China but also in the nations that house the biggest global corporations. We also calculated the percentage of foreign value added in exports from these nations. Since the GFC, FVA has been trending lower in all nations. This percentage dropped from 12% to 9.5% in the USA, 33% to 26% in the UK, 52% to 43% in Germany, and 38% to 33% in France (Figure 12).

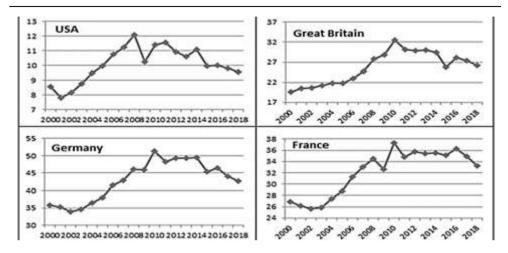


Fig (12): Integration of major investor countries in global product chains, reflected by the FVA share in exports, (%).

Source: Unctadstat, unctadstat.unctad.org, and the World Bank, data.worldbank.org/indicator.

Due in part to the instability of the global market and in part to the fact that these altered circumstances no longer provide enormous profits, international corporations are withdrawing into domestic markets following the Great Financial Crisis. The fall in foreign direct investment can also be explained by the fact that decades of completely open markets for vertical integration have almost eliminated any lucrative prospects for new global value chains. Lower taxes or being close to the market are still two traditional reasons for extraterritorial production. We can no longer refer to this as a production chain, though, as

manufacturing has been transferred to a foreign nation and vertical industrial connectedness has been steadily lost.

2-3. Drivers of Deglobalization

Globalization and deglobalization are influenced by factors related to trade, economic, political, cultural, social, and technological dimensions. The growth of globalization and its associated benefits are also the reasons for its decline. The election of Donald Trump as the president of the USA is considered the beginning of deglobalization as he convinced Americans that other countries were taking away their employment opportunities, thus posing a threat to globalization (Reznikova et al., 2018).

The president began by creating barriers to free trade, including as the United States' withdrawal from the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TTP) and the imposition of hefty import duties, in an effort to undermine globalization. Deglobalization cases have grown as a result of migration. Max Weber, a German philosopher, presented a theory describing the effects of globalization prior to the outbreak of World War 1. In this instance, individuals from lower-class cultures benefited greatly from deglobalization (Prashantham et al., 2018).

Max Weber conducted his first noteworthy research on Polish farmworkers who were emigrating to East Germany. Migration was used by certain countries, such as France, to incite populism against Germans. (Reznikova and others, 2018). Japan is uncommon among developed countries in that it has a low immigration rate, which is attributed to rising welfare expenses and job loss fears. Due to income loss and increased competition, the middle and lower classes bear the brunt of high immigration's distributive effects. In South Africa, xenophobia has also played a role in the deglobalization of the nation (Dür et al., 2019).

Capital flows are always considered the chief motive for deglobalization. It seems anonymous and international when capital is swiftly moving; complications are only brought when capital retreats, as people are left wondering the source of delay. There has been a renationalization of finance since 2008, mainly through regulatory concerns (Reznikova et al., 2018). After migration, the EU-UK financial flow pact is a priority. Capital flows help. Human capital and financial openness boost capital flows in receiving countries. Undeveloped business frameworks have consequences. Before Brexit, the EU adopted equivalence. (Dür, 2019). The regime's organisations played the EU's job. The EU's choice to avoid "unfairly regulated foreign companies" is supported by the US's straightforward legislation. Financial flows are information-sensitive. Financial reports assist explain an economy, which underpins international politics. Financial institutions caused deglobalization after the 2008 financial crisis (Reznikova et al., 2018). Information is seen as a weapon and an instrument for national power. Microsoft, Google, Amazon, and telecom companies dominate interaction systems and complicated software that connect the information economy (Dür et al., 2019).

Edward Snowden's disclosures from the National Security Agency have demonstrated the intelligence and power of the global network (Dür et al., 2019). There has been discussion over who sets laws pertaining to the reliability of the connected system and whether or not they are advantageous to all countries. The 19th-century British regulations were followed by globalization. The United States was responsible for monetary arrangements and safeguarding the global system during the globalization of the 20th century (Reznikova & Ivashchenko et al., 2018). Access to financial markets by foreign entities is contingent upon the soundness of the domestic banking system.

2-4. Factors affecting De-globalization

Deglobalization affects everyone. Deglobalization impacts global market cooperation. Most countries generate varied items suit global demand nation is self-sufficient. as no Globalization disrupts commerce; hence governments will sabotage and oppose it. Countries may limit their resources to limit trade competition. Several nations manufacture raw resources. International market limitations or reforms may have a major impact on national economies (Holm, 2019). Global de integration increases products and services,

multinational companies' profit margins. Deglobalization reduces global market size and international peace. The US's restrictions on Huawei cellphones' Android features have sparked a trade war between the two nations (Holm, 2019).

Global de integration increases products and services, companies' profit lowering multinational margins. Deglobalization reduces global market size and international peace. The US's restrictions on Huawei cellphones' Android features have sparked a trade war between the two nations (Holm, 2019). Integrating cultures from diverse nations promotes cultural values. Power players' control of international politics based on their nations' interests creates a wall between Deglobalization civilizations. makes weaker nations fee1 victimized, making them detest residents from wealthy countries. Disintegration of cultures divides individuals, making it harder for some to work abroad. Several nations discontinued female and girl education when globalization circumcision successful. Since deglobalization encourages cultural preservation, certain practices will no longer be considered improper. If international politics aren't equal, nations won't do the same or respect other cultures (King, 2018). International politics instills hatred between Christianity and Islam, which is unfounded. Developed nations have sophisticated universities. Foreign students would utilize their lessons to obtain job skills (Holm, 2019). Their damaged attitude will also make them undesired in Christian nations. To help kids find international possibilities, schools should be calm and confident. Terrorist-related American school shootings have triggered panic attacks and distress in pupils (Holm, 2019).

Deglobalization has a detrimental effect on children and education because nations with stringent immigration laws need outsiders to complete copious amounts of paperwork. Migration can have positive effects, but it can also result in crime, terrorism, and drug trafficking. Foreigners frequently travel to underdeveloped countries to encourage education, but persuading locals is difficult in the deglobalized world. Fragmentation can result in commercial failures, whereas understanding globalization are necessary for better education. Cultural differences, such the animosity Muslims and Christians have for Americans, can potentially lead to an upsurge in terrorism as a result of deglobalization. The expected wall in Mexico makes it tougher for the US government to combat drug trafficking. Nevertheless, in the US and the UK, immigration limits have contributed to a decrease in terrorism and crime ((Holm, 2019; King, 2018).

2-5. Theories of Deglobalization

Liberalism doctrine lets many interests, people, and powers influence politics. Liberalism theory assumes average player coherence. These players consider economic wellbeing and personal and cultural preferences. Actors may choose positive sum collaboration or zero-sum competition depending on their interests (King, 2018).

Military power, Actors may use a variety of authorities to advance their goals. These powers usually have military and economic might. Dynamic outcomes are relevant locally and globally. International politics refers to nations ". International domestic, with significant forces influencing foreign policy. Foreign policy is tailored to the interests of dictators and powerful individuals, depending on the nation and subject. Liberalism captures reality, but its complexity makes it weak. Liberals say organizations aid collaboration in many ways (Holm, 2019). They formed a forum for discussing mutual interests and solutions. Several of these organizations decide global disputes and rule infractions.

Coercion drives globalization, according to realism theory. A sub-theory called "hegemonic stability (Holm, 2019). If it can and the advantages exceed the expenses, the "hegemon" will sustain the system. The arrangement becomes unstable when the hegemon loses authority to other states. Hegemonic deterioration has followed a pattern. When hegemony ends is unclear. Hegemony is "sticky" because economic order may outlive the nation. During an economic crisis, the hegemon loses power and the system fails (Holm, 2019).

Hegemonic stability's international systems mirror liberalism's institutions. They reflect the hegemon's power and goals rather than their own. The institutions must produce a set of regulations similar to running a nation. Realism theory clearly shows how deglobalization and hegemony decrease together. The theory links global economic processes to strong countries, most lately the US. Deglobalization reduces the power of the most powerful nations in absolute terms and relative to others. Hegemonic decrease in realism theory promotes deglobalization (Holm, 2019).

Marxism addresses production, capitalism, and unequal distribution. "Capital by its nature rushes beyond every geographical barrier to conquer the entire globe for its market," Marx predicted global expansion. Marxists believe deglobalization occurs because the trans-world link does not equalize profit and surplus accumulation possibilities. These are genuine capital development goals. Institutional and legal infrastructure create international surplus accumulation.

Neo-Marxists analyses transnational capital accumulation in peripheral and core nations in world-system and dependency studies (King, 2018). Neo-Gramscian emphasizes underclass issues in fighting global capitalism through conventional labor organizations and social groups including environmentalists, advocates, peasants, and peace activists. The theory limits power (King, 2018).

2-6. The Impact of Deglobalization on MNCs in Egypt

In spite of the significant growth in the internet and valueadded services, there are still several challenges that the internet community are currently facing. These challenges are common among Arab, African, and developing countries, include:

- Securing sufficient financial resources both from the government and the private sector, in order to sustain the ongoing developments.
- The inability of current legislations to convey sufficient legal enforcement and frame work for the internet services.
- Providing adequate Arabic information content on the internet in key sectors including education, business, and trade services. This will increase the societal internet penetration.
- Internet security and protecting the individual privacy.
- Increasing internet accessibility for the community at an affordable price.
- Providing adequate training and technical assistance to enable users especially professionals, to make best use of the internet technologies in their line of work (El Gawady, 2005).

Historical evidences experienced by countries and previous literatures have a debate on the effect of financial liberalization on economic growth as showing the both positive and negative effect of financial liberalization (Chaisrisawatsuk, W., and Chaisrisawatsuk, S. 2004) which depending on several factors such as the nature and structure of economic, maximum capacity of productivity in

domestic economy, infrastructures in domestic country, income structure and efficiency and effectiveness of economic policies in developing countries, different financial liberalization indicators that used in the previous literatures, econometrics techniques used in these literatures and the different variables used (Wei, 2015) as Quinn & Toyoda (2008) found that the effects of capital account openness are not dependent on presence of other variables (income, investment, population growth, trade openness, revolution coups and oil prices) as the relationship between openness and growth is linear and capital account liberalization has a positive effect on economic growth in both developed and emerging market nations.

Klein & Olivei (1999) found that open capital accounts had a significant and economically effect on economic growth in developed and developing countries. Countries with open capital account enjoyed with greater enhance in economic growth than countries with capital account restrictions. Bekaertet al. (2005) found that equity market liberalization had a significant effect on economic growth. As the equity market liberalization leads to a 1 % increase in annual real per capita gross domestic product growth, this increase is significant.

McLean & Shrestha (2002) found that financial liberalization has a positive effect on economic growth and other result is that foreign direct investment and portfolio inflows had a positive effect on economic growth but bank inflows had a negative one.

Abiad, et al. (2004) found that liberalization does improve efficiency of allocation of capital as liberalization's effect on the quality not the quantity of investment. Borensztein, et al. (1998) found that FDI has a positive overall effect on economic growth as this effect depends on the availability of human capital in developing countries as the effect of FDI in developing countries with very low level of human capital is negative, and also FDI is more productive than domestic investment and also has an indirect effect on growth.

Chaisrisawatsuk, W., & Chaisrisawatsuk, S. (2004) conclude that financial liberalization has both positive and negative effects on growth depending on the conditions in each country as the results of this paper are that first, there is positive relationship between volatility of exchange rate and financial depth in all four countries as more volatility of exchange rate leads to more capital flows. Second, negative relationship between exchange rate volatility and saving in Indonesia, Singapore and Thailand but this relation is positive in Malaysia. As greater financial liberalization and appropriate volatility in exchange rate are the important components to achieve a stable economic growth rate. Faria, et al. (2009) found that the result from index of financial liberalization model using impulse-response function show that there is no statistically significant between shocks among variables but country risk shocks has a positive response on exchange rate while the result from index of financial integration model shows that financial integration has negative effect on GDP and economic stability (it leads to raise the rate of inflation and exchange rate).

Assefa (2012) found that the Fixed Effect Models (FEM) results indicate a significant positive relationship between stock market capitalization and economic growth, and also significant but weak relationship between financial and trade openness and economic growth while the System Generalized Method of Moments (SGMM) results indicate a significant positive relationship between financial openness measure GEQY and economic growth, but negative and not strong relationship between real stock returns and trade (XM open indicator) and financial (GEQY indicator) openness so African countries open these equity markets to international capital and investors and encourage foreign direct investment (FDI).

III. Methodology

3-1. Methodological Procedures

This study falls within the descriptive studies in accordance with its objectives, which were represented in studying and describing the social and economic impact of reversing globalization and its effects on job opportunities, wages and the relationship with suppliers. It is known that the descriptive study works to depict the current reality and is not limited to collecting information and data, but rather enables the

use of quantitative measurement methods to then move towards classification, analysis and interpretation.

3-2. Population and Sample

The study population includes all employees of multinational companies in Egypt, and the research used the social survey method by sample, where a sample of 300 Egyptian employment was drawn from 3 multinational companies in Egypt, namely (Pepsi Company - QNB Bank - Vodafone Company) to represent the initial research sample, and the sample was chosen randomly to ensure that the sample is comprehensive of all professions, educational levels and income levels.

3-3. Study Instrument

The researcher used the questionnaire tool, which contained a set of items, the first of which was the initial data that clarifies the social and economic characteristics of the respondents. The second item contained a set of data on how to join the job, what are the conditions for this joining, the nature of the courses that the respondent joined, the most important problems he faces, the extent of job satisfaction, and evaluation workplace. methods within the At the beginning, questionnaire was arbitrated by faculty members and modified accordingly. The stability and validity of the questionnaire were also confirmed. After the researcher collected the data and

conducted a desk review of the questionnaires, some questionnaires were excluded and the research sample reached 275 items. After that, the researcher carried out the coding, transcribing, and tabulating of the questionnaire data, preparing correlation tables and graphs, and then extracting the results of the study.

3-4. Socio-Economic analysis of the Study Population

Multinational companies have a significant impact on the international and national arenas, particularly in developing countries. With around 65,000 companies worldwide and over 850 headquarters and offices, multinational companies have the opportunity to control about half of the global trade markets. This allows developed countries to exert pressure governments that oppose their policies or developing countries, pushing them to adopt certain positions or abandon some of their policies. However, their influence is evident in developing countries with fragile and weak governments, which gives multinational companies the opportunity to dominate and control countries and their national companies, causing economic damage to host countries at both near and long-term levels. Multinational companies may also possess the magic solution to many problems facing host countries, especially unemployment, as they often use national labor after training them on the technology they possess. This can help burden workers with the

expertise they lack and revive their national economy by pumping foreign currency into the national markets.

However, there are differing opinions regarding the extent of their worthiness in providing a helping hand to countries. Some argue that it is better to wait for national efforts before resorting to these companies, as this could lead to disaster if multinational companies withdraw investments due to political or economic unrest in the host country. Understanding the policies that govern the global strategy of multinational companies has an important impact on the size of the gains that developing countries obtain from globalization and set the necessary economic policies to attract incoming foreign direct investment. Therefore, it is crucial for developing countries to carefully consider the suitability of resorting to multinational companies and set necessary economic policies to attract foreign direct investment.

IV. Results and Discussion

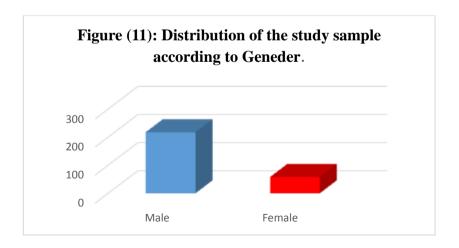
4.1. Social and economic characteristics of the sample.

As for the gender and age composition of the research sample, it was found that the majority of the sample was male, with a percentage of about 78.9% compared to 21.1% of females, Table (1). This may be due to the fact that the opportunity to obtain job opportunities among males is higher than that of females. This is consistent with many studies that have indicated the variation in the effects of deglobalization according to the

different contexts in which it is achieved. This effect appears clearly in many developing countries, including Egypt, where cultural and social legacies represented in the low skills of women contribute to increasing the likelihood of their exclusion from the production process, which negatively affects their class status.

Table (1): Distribution of the study sample according to gender variable.

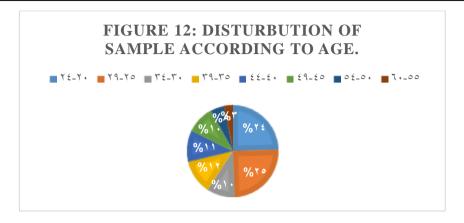
Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	217	87.9
Female	58	21.1
Total	275	100



As for the age composition, the age group from (25-30) years occupied the highest percentages, reaching 24%, followed by the age group that falls under the category of (20-25), where their percentage reached 23.7%, then the age group from (35-40), whose percentage reached 11.6%, while the lowest percentage was from (55-60), which reached 4.7%. (Table 2), and this may be due to the fact that young people are the most seeking to obtain job opportunities, modernity, completion of their education and openness to practical life. For most young people, work is the way to earn income and acquire many skills and experiences and the beginning of achieving their ambitions in the future.

Table (2): Distribution of the study sample according to the age variable.

Age	20-24	25-	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-60	Total
		29							
Frequency	65	66	26	32	29	26	13	8	275
Percentage %	23.70	24	9.5	11.6	10.5	9.5	4.7	6.5	100

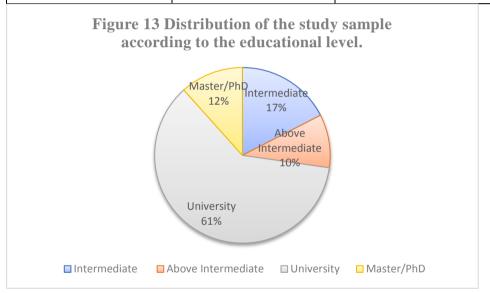


As for the educational level of the research sample, the researcher tried to look at Egyptian Employees in MNCs as a class that depends in its work on its physical or intellectual effort and is characterized by the fact that the degree of its participation or control over the means of production is almost non-existent. It is a class that always seeks to improve its conditions and seizes the opportunity to move to the upper class, although some of the policies followed by the state have made some of them descend to the ranks of the lower class. It is also a class that varies in terms of profession, income level, educational level and economic status.

By referring to the research sample, it became clear that the majority of those who obtained a university education were 61.1%, followed by the percentage of those who obtained an intermediate education level, which amounted to 17.5%, and the percentage of postgraduate education was 11.6% (Table 3).

Table (3): Distribution of the study sample according to the educational level variable.

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Intermediate	48	17.5
Above Intermediate	27	9.8
University	168	61.1
Master/PhD	32	11.6
Total	275	100



The data in Table 3 are consistent with some studies (Karema Kareem, 2005: 462-463) that confirmed that with the increase in information technology, technologies replace human work, and thus the demand for unskilled labor decreased. This is consistent with the study we are considering, where it was noted that the

percentage of job opportunities available to groups that fall under high educational levels increased, and thus there is a gap between educational levels in favor of the university sample.

Table 4 shows the nature of the professional structure of the research sample, as it was noted that it includes many professions. According to the requirements of Egyptians working in multinational companies in Egypt, we will find that it includes individuals who practice many professions. There are those who practice high technical professions, where their percentage reached 35.6%, followed by those who work in service work, where their percentage reached 22.2%. As for clerical and administrative professions, their percentage reached 18.2%, while the percentage of those who work in high administrative professions reached about 17.5%. The researcher believes that the high percentage of high technical professions is due to the fact that today's world is a world governed by the special skills of individuals, and thus individuals become distinguished by what they possess of skills from individuals or ordinary workers in obtaining more job opportunities.

It is worth noting that the high percentage of workers in the service sector shows that in light of globalization, as "Carnival" sees it, organizations become more flexible and are characterized by a focus on the consumer and an increase in quality and diversity. In light of this global system, patterns of work have

emerged that have changed the division, at the same time, the results of the study agree with some old studies (Kerka Sandra, 1998: 5; Itimad Alam, 2003: 116), regarding the decrease in the percentage of workers in senior administrative and clerical professions. This is due to the fact that in light of deglobalization, the size of the middle management category has been observed to decrease due to the increased use of technology in performing many activities, which has contributed to reducing the total job opportunities in Egyp

Table (4): Professional composition of the study sample.

Variables	High tech	Senior Administrative	Clerical and administrative job	Service	Handicrafts or Commercial	Other	Total
Frequency	98	48	50	61	18	0	275
Percentage	35.6%	17.5	18.2	22.2	6.5	0	100

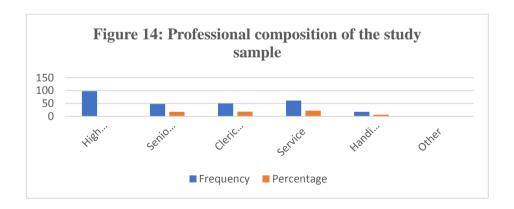


Table 5 shows the employer of the research sample, where it became clear that the vast majority work in the food production or industry sector in general for multinational companies, represented by Pepsi, a soft drinks company, where their percentage reached 48%, compared to the banking sector for multinational companies, represented by QNB Bank, where their percentage ranged from 36.4%, and the percentage of workers for the multinational mobile phone company, represented by Vodafone, reached 15.30%.

Table (5): Distribution of the study sample according to sector.

Variables	Production (industrial/food)	Banking sector	Technology and Communications	Total
Frequency	100	132	43	275
Percentage	36.4%	%£A	15.6%	100%

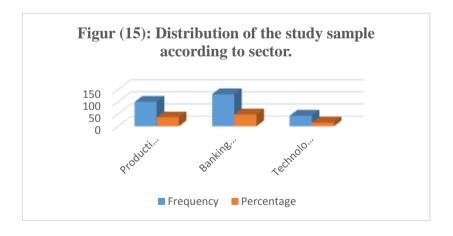


Table (6) shows the type of work, whether it is permanent or temporary work. It was noted that the two percentages were somewhat close, as the percentage of workers with a permanent contract reached about 54.6%, compared to 46.4% working with a temporary contract. This is due to the fact that in light of deglobalization, the new labor market has become more demanding of mental skills and abilities than physical and muscular abilities. Therefore, there is a distinction in the working conditions between individuals, and even a difference in wages and work contracts appears. The study agreed with many studies) Ahmed Shawky, 2005: 57-58) in this regard, which confirmed the end of the concept of collective work contracts, permanent work, and permanent employment, and was replaced by work for a limited period and work for some time, not for a long time. Today's work is governed by the special skills of individuals that make them distinct from ordinary workers.

Table (6): Distribution of the study sample according to work type.

Variables	Permanent work	Temporary work	Total
Frequency	190	85	275
Percentage	69.1%	30.9%	100%

Table (7) shows the distribution of the study sample according to the variables of place of birth and place of residence. It was noted that most of the study sample were born in urban areas, whether at the level of birth or residence, as their

percentage at the level of birth reached 83.6% and at the level of residence, 91.6%. This increase in residence in urban areas in the same sample is explained by the stability of a percentage of them, which reached approximately 50% in urban areas, as the percentage of those born in rural areas of the study sample reached 16.4%, with 45 people, while only 23 of them were satisfied with continuing to live in the countryside. The researcher believes that this trend is due to the stability of 50 villagers to reside permanently in cities, in addition to the ease of access to their workplace and saving the cost of transportation or having to be away from the family for long periods, until the nature of the city in Egypt enjoys a clear distinction in terms of living services and better educational opportunities from the point of view of many in Egyptian society. It is worth mentioning that the major cities in Egypt suffer from traffic and residential congestion and manifestations and sources of pollution of almost all types, the high cost of living.

Table (7): Distribution of the study sample according to the variables of place of birth and place of residence.

Variables	Countryside			Urban		
		As;		As;		
	A birth place	A residence place	A birth place	A residence place		
Frequency	į o	**	77.	707	770	
Percentage	16.4%	8.4%	83.6%	91.6%	%1	

Table (8) shows the monthly income levels of the respondents, where it was noted that the income of Egyptians working in multinational companies varied, and this is due, as previously stated, to the fact that they include different categories of university graduates who are called in sociology white-collar workers, as they are distinguished from blue-collar workers who perform manual work and physical effort. This is consistent with what this study has concluded regarding the variation in the income levels of the respondents according to the educational level and place of work. The percentage of those whose incomes ranged from less than 5,000 pounds was 41.4, followed by the percentage of those whose incomes ranged between 5,000-10,000 pounds, 18.90%, and then came the sample members whose incomes ranged between more than 10,000, about 17.10%.

Table (8): Distribution of the study sample according monthly income level.

Variables	< 5000 L.E	5000 < Salary < 1000 L. E	≥ 10000	Total
Frequency	115	105	55	275
Percentage	41.7%	38.18%	20.12%	100%

Table (9) shows the extent of income sufficiency to meet the family's requirements, where about 57.80% responded that income was insufficient, compared to 42.20% who confirmed that income was sufficient. It is worth noting that the percentage of individuals who confirmed that income was sufficient, although it was less than the percentage of those who confirmed that it was insufficient, and this may be due to the fact that individuals within the Egyptian society are accustomed to adapting to their income. One of the most prominent examples of this is reducing family spending to a minimum, and this is done by purchasing cheap or low-quality goods. We should not forget that women play an important role in managing the family, as they can make the small income meet the needs of their family. They may borrow or sell what they own to provide spending on the basic needs of their family. In addition, they reduce spending on some non-food items such as clothing and transportation. This result is consistent with many studies.

Table 9: The sufficiency of monthly income to meet the sample family's needs

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	116	159	275
Percentage	42.2	57.8	100%

As for the respondents who answered that income was insufficient, if we look at how they behave, we find that they try to meet their needs by resorting to parents who have become essential in helping their children, especially young people, in light of rising prices and low-income levels. Their percentage reached 45.60%. This was followed by resorting to associations, which is a form of solidarity that occurs between individuals, as many resort to these associations as they are the ideal solution to meet their needs for large sums on some occasions such as the beginning of the school year or holidays or the marriage of children, as their percentage reached 23.80%, while 12.50% resorted to borrowing from friends (Table 10).

Table (10): Behaviors of the study sample when the monthly income is not enough.

Variables	Requesting financial support from parents	Borrowing from friends	Requesting a loan from work	Requesting social support	Other	Total
Frequency	73	20	17	38	12	275
Percentage	45.6%	12.5%	10.6%	23.8%	7.5%	100%

As for housing, it was noted that about 59.60% of the sample members live in a home they own, compared to 40.40% who live in rented housing (Table 11).

Table (11): Distribution of the study sample according Type of housing.

Variables	Ownership	Rental	Total
Frequency	193	72	275
Percentage	70.2%	29.8%	100%

The researcher tried to find out which workers and employees of multinational companies live in a home they own, and it became clear that about 52.8% of the owners work in Pepsi as a multinational company, 29.8% of the owner worker in QNB bank, and 17.4% of workers in the Vodafone company (Table 12).

Table (12): Distribution of the study sample according Type of housing (n = 193).

Variables	Pepsi	QNB	Vodafone	Total
Frequency	102	64	25	193
Percentage	52.8	29.8%	17.4	100%

This may confirm what the researcher previously mentioned in the theoretical part that there is a disparity in income levels due to the place of work of the respondents, as it was an important factor in determining the economic level of the sample individuals. It also confirms the validity of the previously

proposed statement that under de-globalization, the impoverishment of some segments of the middle classes has increased, while at the same time the wealth of others has increased. It should be noted that income levels vary under globalization between different places of work, even for the same qualification and professional role. There is no doubt that 40.40% of people have a diminishing income level in the face of rising housing prices. Under the dominance of capitalist values, land is viewed as a commodity whose value is determined by market forces, in addition to the high cost of raw materials used in construction. From this standpoint, some individuals with low incomes live in underdeveloped areas within cities.

As for the impact of working for a multinational company on the housing level, the percentage of those living in more two rooms increased, reaching 56.70%, compared to 22.9% living in two rooms (Table 13). There is no doubt that the narrowness of the housing for a large number of respondents, especially if they have a large number of children, will result in many problems that have been previously raised by sociological writings, perhaps the most important of which is the lack of privacy and frequent quarrels. This has resulted in a large percentage of the sample seeking to change their housing, reaching 51.3% (Table 14) in the hope of increasing services, in addition to the narrowness of the size, in addition to the abundance of noise.

Their percentages ranged between 27.7%, 20.5%, and 16.9%, respectively (Table 15).

Table (13): The impact of working in a multinational company on the housing level of the study sample.

Variables	Two Rooms	Three Rooms	Four Rooms or	Total
			more	
Frequency	63	156	56	275
Percentage	22.9%	56.7%	20.4%	100%

Table (14): The effect of working in a multinational company on the desire to change the standard of housing for the study sample.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	141	134	275
Percentage	51.3%	48.7%	100%

Table (15): Reasons for wanting to change the standard of housing from the study sample.

Variables	Inadequate size	Distance from services	Avoiding sources of pollution and noise pollution	Distance from workplace	Ensuring a good level of education for children	Other	Total
Frequency	40	21	33	31	54	16	275
Percentage	20.5%	10.8%	16.9%	15.9%	27.7%	8.2	100%

It is worth noting that the desire of these respondents to change their place of residence makes us think that the residence of these individuals is similar to the residence of lower-class individuals who live in slums or in backward areas that lack basic infrastructure requirements in addition to the abundance of noise and small size, which results in the crowding of the housing unit with a large number of individuals so that it becomes disproportionate to its residents. At the same time, we find that 48.7% do not prefer to change their residence for reasons, the most important of which are its proximity to the family (33.7%) and its proximity to work (24.6%), in addition to its proximity to transportation (17.7%) (Table 16).

Table (16): Reasons for wanting not to change the standard of housing from the study sample ($n'' = 1 \lor \circ$).

Variables	Near to work	Cheap	Near to family	Near to the transport	Other	Total
Frequency	43	23	59	31	19	175
Percentage	24.6%	13.1%	33.7%	17.7%	10.9	100%

There is no doubt that these reasons are very important. This is due to the fact that many modern families prefer to live near their families in order to help them take care of their young children, especially if the wife works, in addition to the fact that they try to save their expenses in some life matters such as transportation. As for the social characteristics of the study sample, it was noted that a large percentage of the sample members were married, reaching 59.6%, compared to 39.6% who were unmarried (Table 17). This shows that the researcher tried to have sample members vary in their age levels so that their

opinions would express the most important changes that occurred in their situations and the changes that occurred in job opportunities. It was noted that most of the sample members were married and had children, reaching 80.1% (Table 3.18).

Table (3.17): Social characteristic of study sample (n = 275)

Single	Married	Divorced	Widower	Total
109	164	1	1	275
39.6%	59.6%	0.4%	0.4%	100%
	109	109 164	109 164 1	109 164 1 1

Table (3.18): Distribution of the study sample according to having children (n''' = 166).

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	133	33	166
Percentage	19.9%	80.1%	100%

The highest percentage was recorded for sample members who had only two children, 38.3%, compared to 35.3% who had three children (Table 19). It is clear that the reluctance of most sample members to have a large number of children agrees, as indicated by "Herbert Spencer" that the higher the educational level and the greater the mental effort that a woman makes as a result of her going out to work, this reduces her ability to Reproduction. In this regard, we mention that Karsunders had previously stated that people's customs, traditions, and community conditions affect population size. The less the community's resources help

in establishing projects, the smaller the population becomes. As for the educational status, it was noted that it varied among the individuals in the research sample, as their percentage in nursery reached 26.9%, and in primary and secondary education 24.9%, and reached 11.3% in university education (Table 20).

Table (19): Distribution of the study sample according to number children (n^4 = 133).

Variables	One	Two	Three or more	Total
Frequency	35	51	47	133
Percentage	26.3%	38.3%	35.3%	100%

Table (20): Distribution of the study sample according to educational stages $n^4 = (133)$.

Variables	Pre-primary education	Primary	Preparatory	Secondary	University	Total
Frequency	27	39	21	28	18	133
Percentage	39.6%	59.6%	0.4%	0.4%	100%	100%

4.2. Attitudes of sample members towards education

Work is considered the primary means of lawful earnings and the basic pillar of production. Work is a conscious effort by which a person aims to produce goods and services to satisfy his needs. The United Nations and all specialized agencies, such as the International Labor Organization, have supported the necessity of promoting work as a basis for any successful development. The international media on human rights has also

adopted the human right to obtain a job opportunity, and the call to increase investment in people has been repeated.

At the Copenhagen Conference in 1995, work was given great importance, as all participants called for providing job opportunities, reducing unemployment, promoting and employment (Siraj al-Din and Khaled, n.d.: 25). But a question arises here: What is the possibility of job opportunities available to the middle class in light of the information revolution? In light of the existence of a new production pattern, individuals are trying hard to find any job opportunity in order to survive. When the respondents were asked about how they joined the work, 45.1% answered that efficiency and educational qualifications are the main reason for obtaining a job opportunity, compared to 28.7% who had the opportunity to work through educational and mediation, followed by 14.2% qualifications qualifications only, and the lowest percentage came through advertising on the Internet, where it was 4%, table (21). By analyzing these results, we find that the vast majority of the respondents joined the work because of the importance of the educational qualification and their efficiency. This is consistent with some studies (Seraj El-Din, 2004: 100-101) that confirmed that employment in light of globalization is directed towards skilled workers who have the ability to adapt to technology. The importance of this factor appeared more clearly in workers in the

investment sector, where their percentage reached 34.2%, followed by the government sector at 7.7%.

Table (21): Reasons for the study sample to obtain the current job opportunity in a multinational company in Egypt.

Variables	Educational	Educational qualification	Job advertisements	Educational	Total
	qualification and		on traditional media or the Internet	qualification only	
	competence	and recommendation/	or the Internet		
		relationships			
Frequency	27	39	٤٩	18	133
Percentage	39.6%	59.6%	۳٦.٨٠%	٠.٣٠%	100%

The researcher concluded that despite the small percentage of respondents who joined the job through advertising on the Internet, this confirms what some writings have previously indicated that the Internet has become an opportunity for individuals to view a huge amount of information during the process of searching for a job or profession, as they can view the professional guide for jobs and determine their skills and areas of interest, in addition to the fact that some individuals create their own websites and register them on the network to search for work, giving companies the opportunity to view these applications. The researcher expects that the percentage of obtaining work through the Internet will increase in the coming few years. She tried to identify the existence of a difference in how to join the job between the different professional categories. It became clear that the categories that joined the job most

through competence are the higher technical categories, as their percentage reached 22.9%. As for advertising on the Internet, the highest percentage was for those with writing and administrative professions. This may be due to the skills that some of them have in using the Internet and benefiting from it in obtaining job opportunities, compared to others who are not qualified to use modern technological means (Figure 3.6).



53.1 % answered their training courses before joining the work for 46.9 %, which did not join any, table (22).

Table (22): Distribution of the study sample's response to the question about whether they had attended training courses before starting work or not.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	146	129	275
Percentage	53.1%	46.9%	100%

This means that the majority of the sample have become more accepted for the idea of training in professions. In light of de-globalization, training has been complementary to education, good education may give way to providing job opportunities, but training ensures the needs of the market and contributes to raising efficiency and skill and provides an opportunity for the labor market to a skilled worker, and this agrees with the answers of the research sample that they took courses in the computer as their percentage reached 5.7% in exchange for 29.7% They took courses in foreign languages, table (23), and the vast majority of the sample members answered 65.9% that these courses that they took played a role in joining the work, table (24), in addition to that indicated 83.7 % Is that it benefited greatly from these courses in exchange for 16.3 %, indicating that they did not benefit from these courses.

Table 23: Distribution of the study sample that took courses before joining work according to the type of courses ($n^5 = 146$).

Variables	Computer	Language	Other	Total
Frequency	89	50	7	146
Percentage	61%	34.2%	4.8%	100%

Table 24: The role of training courses in obtaining a job opportunity in multinational companies from the point of view of those who obtained them from the study sample ($n^5 = 146$).

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	85	61	146
Percentage	58.2%	41.8%	100%

Table (25) shows that most members of the sample show that the benefit came by increasing their capabilities to perform their business better and reached 74%, while some people answered that they became more confident and experienced at work 48.6%, table (26). This was evident in the sample of the industrial sector, where 32.8% answered that the courses contributed to the performance of their business better, followed by the technology and communications sector, where 8.3% answered that they became more experienced and confident in work, table (27).

Table 2°: The extent of benefit from training courses in the current work from the point of view of the study sample that received these courses. $(n^5 = 146)$.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	108	38	146
Percentage	74%	26%	100%

Table 27: The benefit of training courses for working in multinational companies from the point of view of the study sample that received these courses ($n^5 = 146$).

Variables	Improve work performance	Accelerate career advancement	Increase self-confidence and work experience	Other	Total
Frequency	٧١	13	48	14	157
Percentage	48.6%	8%	32.8%	10.6%	100%

Table 27: The relationship between the benefits of training courses for working in (MNCs) and the multinational companies' sector from the point of view of the study sample that obtained these courses ($n^6 = 133$).

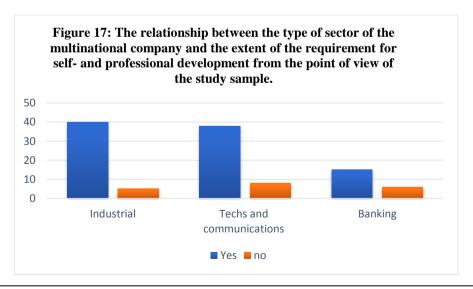
Sector	Improve work performance	Accelerate career advancement	Increase self- confidence and work experience	Other	Total
Industrial	Frequency	10	1	11	22
(Pepsi)	%	7.50	0.80	8.30	16.50
	Frequency	6	2	4	12
Techs and Communications	%	4.50	1.50	3.00	9
(Vodafone)	Frequency	55	10	34	99
	%	41.4	7.50	25.6	73.3
Total	Frequency	71	13	49	133
	%	53.40	9.80	36.90	100

By asking the respondents about the requirements of work in light of the spread of globalization control, 84% replied that the work requires an increase in their skills continuously, a table (28), and the vast majority of the industrial sector came at the forefront 45.1 % followed by the technology and communication sector 27.2 % (Figure). Perhaps this is due to the fact that the

labor market at the present time is witnessing a great degree of competition for the available job opportunities, as a result of the population increase and the inability of the labor market to absorb these numbers, and with the rapid technological changes that sweep the world, skills acquisition must be a continuous process in order to achieve development Sustainable and for the benefit of individuals and society.

Table (3.28): The extent to which working in multinational companies requires continuous personal and professional development (n = 275).

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	231	44	275
Percentage	84%	16%	100%



4.3. The most important changes that have occurred in job opportunities

The study concluded that with the increase in changes, the labor market has become a matter of supply and demand, and that each individual must seize his opportunity to work from among the. In the midst of what the state's requirements imposed to incite the spirit of competition between individuals and in. Many changes have occurred in the conditions for joining work. The sample of research individuals indicated that education has become insufficient to acquire skills (28.½%), this is equivalent to what the sample believed in the decline of globalization and the de-globalization combined at a rate of 28.3%, with 14.5% in favor of the decline in the principles of globalization and 13.3% in favor of de-globalization in multinational companies, and therefore it is necessary to develop the capabilities, skills and efficiency of individuals, and their percentage was 21.8%, Table (29).

This means that individuals must perform their work better and prove their taste, and each individual must learn from his experiences and the experiences of other people. Early Western studies have proven that individuals with high achievement tend to work hard and have the ability to learn quickly, and it is their responsibility to move society to a more advanced state (Abd Elhamid, 2002: 17-18). One of the most important aspects of change is also the foundations on which the evaluation of

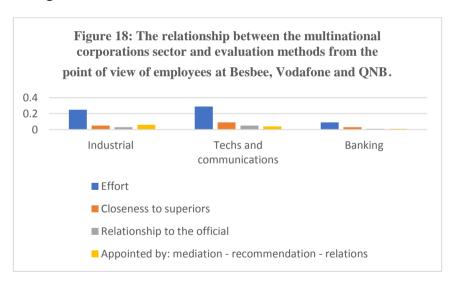
workers is based, as the vast majority answered that the effort exerted is the foundation on which the evaluation of roles in the post-modern era is based, and their percentage reached 64.1%, while 15.8% indicated the continuation of a number of traditional foundations for evaluation, such as closeness to superiors, mediation, favoritism, hypocrisy, and other foundations that have no connection to the objective evaluation of professional roles. Closeness to superiors is a phenomenon in the administrative community and means the tendency to hide the truth of what the individual feels towards his superior and support actions, which leads superiors to reject the realistic behavior issued by flatterers, and this results in many negative effects on the work environment. Therefore,

Table 29: Reasons for the difficulty of finding a job opportunity in a multinational company in Egypt from the point of view of employees (n = 275).

Variables	Decline of globalization	Effect of deglobalization	Commitment to the application of Western culture and the capitalist system	Quality requirements	Increasing the capabilities and efficiency of individuals	Education is not sufficient to acquire skills	Other	Total
Frequency	40	38	9	46	60	78	4	275
Percentage	14.5%	13.8%	3.3%	16.7%	21.8%	28.4%	1.5%	100

It can be said that the success of any administrative work is based on honest information. Successful management is the one that is concerned with establishing communication networks to ensure that information reaches superiors objectively and prevents them from falling into the trap of flattery (Seraj El-Din, 2004: 87-88).

If we go back to the research sample, we will find that the vast majority believes that the effort exerted is the basis of evaluation in all sectors of multinational companies in Egypt (Figure 18), where 25.7% responded in PepsiCo as a representative of the industrial sector in the study, while 28.8% responded in Vodafone as a representative of the technology and communications sector, while in the banking sector the percentage reached 9.3%.



The study sample agreed that these changes occurred in the work environment with regard to the basis of evaluation compared to the past. Their percentage reached about 49.8% compared to 26.9%

who saw that there were no significant changes (Table 30). The highest percentage indicated that the evaluation was based on the length of service, and 39.1% responded to that, compared to 28.8% who indicated on the basis of efficiency. The third place was based on the evaluation of annual performance reports, with a percentage of 21.2% (Table 31).

Table (30): The extent of change in evaluation methods and standards from the point of view of employees in multinational companies in Egypt (n = 275).

Variables	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Frequency	137	74	64	275
Percentage	49.8%	26.9%	23.3%	100%

Table 31: Changing performance evaluation criteria in multinational companies from the perspective of employees (n = 275).

Variables	Duration of Service	Annual Report	Favoritism - Recommendation - Relationships	Current Efficiency	Total
Frequency	٦١	33	17	45	275
Percentage	39.1%	21.2%	10.9%	28.8%	100%

Despite the apparent agreement between the different business sectors regarding the foundations of performance evaluation, it was noted that there was a significant amount of variation in terms of emphasizing the importance of these foundations in relation to each other. The research sample in all sectors indicated that the evaluation was previously based on the

length of service, as the percentage reached 21.8% in the industrial sector for multinational companies, while the highest percentage in the technology and communications sector reached 13.5%, which was based on efficiency. As for the private sector, it was also based on efficiency, while in the banking sector for multinational companies, it was 7.70%. Table 32 shows the foundations for evaluating employees in the past.

Table (32): The relationship between performance evaluation criteria in multinational companies and the type of sector from the employees' point of view. $(n^7 = 156)$.

Sector		Duration of Service	Annual Report	Favoritism - Recommendation - Relationships	Current Efficiency	Total
Industrial	Frequency	34	13	8	11	66
(Pepsi)	%	21.8	8.3	5.1	7.10	42.30
Techs and Communications	Frequency	9	2	9	12	23.
(Vodafone)	%	5.8	1.30	5.8	7.7	14.70
Banking	Frequency	18	18	0	21	1
(QNB)	%	11.5	11.50	0	13.5	0.60
Total	Frequency	61	33	17	45	156
	%	39.1	21.2	10.9	28.8	100

4.3. Methods of adaptation of sample members to work problems

Each individual has a set of opinions, beliefs and feelings about his work, which is called job satisfaction, which is a direct result of the individual's background of knowledge, information and experiences about his work. Based on this, his feelings towards his work are formed. Through this, the individual begins to determine his behavior, which appears in his way of dealing with superiors and colleagues, his rates of absence and tardiness, and in the way he respects work laws. It is worth noting that there are a group of factors that contribute to creating a driving force for individuals' behavior towards their work. Naturally, the problems that the individual faces within the scope of his work have a clear impact on the level of his satisfaction with work and in adopting behaviors hostile to the organization of work. When the problems that individuals face increase, his feeling of dissatisfaction within the scope of his work increases (Martin and Schumann, 1998: 17-18).

If we return to the current study, we find that the vast majority face problems within their field of work, where their percentage reached 60%, compared to 40% who do not face problems within their work (Table 33).

Table 33: The existence or non-existence of problems in the work environment of multinational companies in Egypt from the point of view of employees (n=275).

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	165	110	275
Percentage	60%	40%	100%

It is worth noting that most of the problems may be related to relationships with superiors or colleagues or as a result of the individual feeling that he is performing worthless work. This is consistent with the value theory described by Edwin Locke, who believes that the ability of work to provide returns of value and benefit makes the individual satisfied with his work. This happens when the return on the individual's work is consistent with his job and his functional and social level. The returns that the person desires may be material or moral, such as a sense of security (Al-Janhani, 1999: 32; Maher, 1995: 236-242).

In this area, we cannot fail to point out the most important sociological theories that can be employed in this field, which is the theory of social exchange, which is credited to both Homans and Peter Blau for its emergence. It is considered one of the most important theoretical alternatives proposed in Western sociology. This theory is based on the fact that individuals interact with each other. Because they get some rewards through this interaction, individuals continue their relationships as long as they achieve some benefit that exceeds the cost. In fact, individuals do not exchange money and material things, but also security, influence and information. This means that if the individual in his field of work does not receive sufficient appreciation from those in power or obtains some advantages that hinder this effort, this makes him feel angry and frustrated and thus dissatisfied.

As for how individuals face their work problems, 49.7% answered that they try to solve them themselves, and at the same

time, about 46.1% answered that they try to solve them with their superiors (Table 34).

Table (34): Ways to solve work problems in multinational companies in Egypt according to the company sector ($n^{\wedge} = 165$).

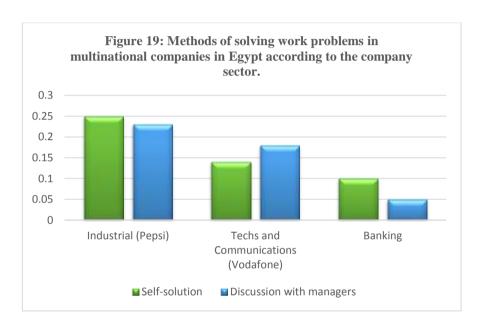
Variables	Self-solution	Discussion with managers	Other	Total
Frequency	82	76	7	165
Percentage	49.7%	46.1%	4.2%	100%

It was noted that the views of the respondents differed in their methods of facing the problems of their current work, as the vast majority of workers in the MCNs industrial sector preferred to discuss problems with their superiors, which came at a rate of 19.4%, unlike workers in the techs and communications sector, who preferred to solve their problems themselves at a rate of 25.5%. They agreed with the sample of workers in the banking sector, where their percentage reached 10.3% (Table 35 and Figure 19).

Table (35): Ways to solve work problems in multinational companies in Egypt according to the company sector ($n^8 = 165$).

Sector		Self- solution	Discussion with	Other	Total
			managers		
Industrial	Frequency	23	32	1	66
(Pepsi)	%	13.90	19.4	0.60	42.30
Techs and	Frequency	17	5	3	23.
Communications	Communications %		3	1.8	14.70
(Vodafone)					

Banking	Frequency	42	38	3	1
(QNB)	%	25.50	23	1.8	0.60
Total	Frequency	82	1	7	156
	%	49.7	0.60	14.2	100



Although the vast majority of the respondents answered that there are many problems in their field of work, about 70.5% do not want to change their workplace, while 29.5% indicated that they want to change their workplace (Table 36).

Table 36: Frequency and percentage distribution of the study sample's desire to leave work in multinational companies in Egypt. (n = 275).

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	81	194	275
Percentage	29.5%	70.5%	100%

Despite the small percentage of respondents who want to change their workplace, it is necessary to point out the reasons for not wanting to leave work. 27.1% indicated that they feel their position in the workplace, followed by 26.5% who indicated that the work is compatible with their abilities and qualifications, while 18.3% indicated that their relationships with their colleagues are excellent (Table 3.37).

Table 37: Reasons for the study sample's unwillingness to leave work in multinational companies ($n^9 = 318$).

Variables	I feel my job position and importance to the company	The incentives are rewarding	Health care is available	Advancement opportunities are specific and clear	Good relationship with colleagues	Work is compatible with my qualifications and personal abilities	Other	Total
Frequency	86	31	27	24	58	84	7	318
Percentage	27.1%	9.8%	8.5%	7.6%	18.3%	26.5%	2.2%	100

It is worth noting that the unwillingness of some sample members not to leave their workplace may be due to their success in developing themselves and acquiring skills and abilities that enabled them to deal with the knowledge society and technological developments, in addition to their success in solving the problems they face in the workplace. However, we find that on the other hand, there were large numbers of respondents who wanted to change their workplace, and this is due to several reasons, as about 19.7% said that they do not feel like themselves, compared to 16.1% who complained about

insufficient income, while 13.1% indicated that they have no chance for promotion and that the work does not match their qualifications (Table 38).

Table 38: Reasons for the study sample's unwillingness to leave work in multinational companies ($n^{10} = 137$).

Variables	I don't feel valued at work	I have no chance for promotion	The job doesn't match my qualifications	Advancement opportunities are not specific and clear	Insufficient income	The job is temporary	I feel insecure	My relationship with my colleagues is not good	Total
Frequency	27	18	18	22	16	28	1	7	137
Percentage	19.7%	13.1%	13.1%	16.1%	11.7%	20.4%	0.7%	5.1%	100

This result is consistent with what was confirmed by the scholar Anthony Giddens, who believes that the issue of job satisfaction or security has become one of the most important functional concerns in the sociology of work in both developed and developing countries. With the increasing impact of globalization on the global economy and the attempt to reduce job opportunities and the size of the workforce, in addition to the trend towards raising work efficiency in the desire to achieve more profit, individuals with unneeded skills have become threatened in their job security or forced to resort to marginal work. Thus, sociologists believe that there is a new phenomenon that has begun to cast its shadow on the social culture that has been dominant for a long time, represented by the profession of a lifetime or work for life (Giddens, 2005: 460-463).

V. Results and Conclusion

The study examines the negative impact of deglobalization on Multi-National Companies (MNCs) in Egypt, focusing on socio-economic factors. It reveals a significant gender disparity, with male respondents, which is consistent with previous studies highlighting cultural, educational, and experiential barriers faced by women in the workforce. This highlights the need for policy frameworks to address employment gaps created by de-globalization, which could worsen existing inequalities.

The research also highlights the preference of young adults aged 25-30 as the largest demographic seeking job opportunities, suggesting that younger generations are eager to adapt to changing labor market demands. However, the majority of respondents are university-educated, suggesting that those with lower educational qualifications may face marginalization in the labor market.

Wage dynamics reveal that a significant proportion of MNC workforce earns below 5000 L.E., causing dissatisfaction and insufficiency to meet family needs. This stagnation in wages amid rising living costs highlights the issue of de-globalization reducing job opportunities. The relationship between MNCs and local suppliers is also crucial, as MNCs have largely confined their operations to specific industries, potentially harming those

who depend on multinational contracts. Additionally, MNCs prioritize efficiency and cost-cutting measures, pressured to lower prices or improve quality without adequate compensation, potentially hampering local economic development.

The study reveals that 61.1% of respondents have a university degree, suggesting that higher education is linked to better employment opportunities. However, the gap in job availability reflects the education level, suggesting that those with extensive qualifications still face challenges in securing suitable employment due to de-globalization. This disconnect can be attributed to a labor market struggling to adapt to changing global economic conditions and increasing technological demands. Additionally, there is a widening disparity in wages based on sector and educational background, complicating the employment landscape for young professionals, particularly those from lower socio-economic backgrounds.

A significant divide exists in the strategies for adapting to workplace challenges. 60% of respondents reported encountering significant problems at work, yet a majority still prefer not to change their jobs. This behavior suggests both resilience and apprehension within a precarious job market, where many workers cling to their positions despite dissatisfaction due to job security concerns.

Education and training are critical components in obtaining and maintaining employment under these circumstances. A significant portion of respondents (53.1%) engaged in training before entering the workforce, demonstrating a fundamental acceptance of continuous learning as a necessary response to evolving workplace demands. The study highlights the negative implications of de-globalization for Egypt's capacity to achieve its developmental goals. To mitigate these adverse effects, stakeholders must collaborate and create inclusive frameworks that foster skill development, promote gender equity, and address income disparities.

study highlights the negative impact of deglobalization on multinational corporations (MNCs) in Egypt, employment opportunities and affecting socio-economic stability. It calls for stakeholders to collaborate on addressing these vulnerabilities, including equitable workforce participation, educational frameworks, and supportive labor responsive policies. By fostering an inclusive economic environment that promotes skill development, gender equity, and sustainable relationships between MNCs and local suppliers, Egypt can navigate the challenges posed by de-globalization while advancing towards Vision 2030 objectives.

The literature review and field study results provide valuable insights into the dynamics of de-globalization and

MNCs within the Egyptian context. Zhang et al. (2024) emphasize the importance of compositional strategies and firm heterogeneity in achieving organizational resilience amidst deglobalization. The field study showcases a social profile that might influence resilience, with the predominance of young employees (ages 20-30) with significant educational backgrounds suggesting a workforce that is potentially adaptable and capable of strategic reconfiguration. However, they face barriers marked by socio-economic and cultural legacies that limit women's participation.

Thakur-Weigold and Miroudot's (2024) critique of myths surrounding supply chains and resilience in the face of recent global supply shocks resonates with the field study's findings, highlighting the stress on employees due to their varying perceptions of job satisfaction and income adequacy. Cash-Dunn et al. (2023) highlight the historical context of de-globalization, emphasizing the need for MNCs to address not only operational strategies but also personal implications faced by employees.

The literature and research findings highlight the changing nature of employment and job security in Egypt, particularly in the context of de-globalization and the evolving labor market. De-globalization has led to increased competition and challenges for firms to maintain stable work environments. Field study findings reveal a significant level of job dissatisfaction among

employees, with many indicating that their income is insufficient to meet basic needs. This dissatisfaction is tied to larger trends identified in the literature, such as the influence of local economic conditions and the shifting landscape of global trade. For multinational corporations (MNCs), understanding these employee sentiments is crucial. Firms with certain capital structures may yield better profitability, but this needs to be carefully balanced against employee welfare. Maintaining a motivated and satisfied workforce is key to sustainable growth. Companies should invest in continuous skill development, capitalize on human capital, and reconfigure their human resources and organizational structure to meet market demands. Sherief et al. (2015) emphasize the importance of MNCs in Egypt's obligations to local communities and regulatory frameworks. By addressing employee needs holistically, MNCs can navigate current challenges and position themselves for sustainable growth in a rapidly evolving global environment.

The study reveals that 45.1% of respondents believe educational qualifications are essential for employment, but they also believe education alone is insufficient for job readiness. This suggests a need for a more integrated approach that combines educational achievements with practical skills. 53.1% of respondents have pursued ongoing training before employment, demonstrating a proactive approach to professional development. Globalization and de-globalization have led to changes in job

opportunities and wages, with 28.4% stating that education does not adequately prepare them for market demands. Performance evaluation criteria are shifting, emphasizing effort and efficiency over traditional metrics. Employees have varied coping mechanisms for work problems, with 49.7% attempting to solve issues independently and 46.1% preferring to discuss challenges with supervisors. The majority remain reluctant to change jobs, indicating a complex interplay between job satisfaction, perceived security, and psychological investment. Policy enhancement, gender disparities, and strategic interventions are crucial for fostering a robust and skilled workforce.

The study concluded that deglobalization is a multidimensional phenomenon aimed at creating a dispersed society, requiring efficient market mechanisms for economic growth and increasing individual effectiveness in development goals. However, it has negative effects on developing countries, particularly those that fail to integrate with the global economy, leading to high poverty rates and low living standards.

Deglobalization changes have faced challenges for both poor and rich societies, making it difficult to develop general policies that apply to all countries. The social dimension is crucial in the continuity of deglobalization, as it is proven that economic dimensions alone are ineffective in creating job opportunities, reducing poverty, and eliminating disparities in living standards within a single society. Deglobalization has produced social costs for most economic projects through capital intensification, leading to reduced workforce size and increased unemployment rates. The impact of deglobalization on Egyptian society and its class structure varies according to the social status of social groups. Local workers in multinational companies face varied job opportunities, with the middle class becoming less flexible and receptive to social mobility.

Job opportunities are affected by factors such as class, gender, educational level, personal variables, physical characteristics, and social networks. Workers' conditions in multinational companies vary between different work sectors, even for the same qualification and professional role. Individuals' success in obtaining job opportunities depends on their ability to present themselves appropriately, adapt to the work environment, and prepare for education and training in new economic sectors that require skills beyond traditional education.

Deglobalization has highlighted the importance of science and knowledge in enhancing the status of work globally. To progress, societies must adopt a new educational and training strategy that keeps up with global technology. The lack of suitable job opportunities among middle-class members is due to inadequate education quality, particularly technical specializations and qualifications. Continuous education and self-

education are crucial for keeping pace with global developments and honing individual capabilities and skills. Training programs should not only provide certificates but also develop practical abilities in facing work-related problems.

Deglobalization in Egypt has led to a decline in the labor force and the adoption of part-time employment. Governments' desire for foreign investments has resulted in labor agreements that do not consider workers' rights, leading to job losses and denied fair participation in project gains. Some employees and workers in multinational corporations (MNCs) in Egypt have faced obstacles in adapting to deglobalization, such as unable to find suitable job opportunities or a lack of job security. Job satisfaction is a critical issue, especially for individuals with low skills.

Deglobalization has changed the evaluation of middleclass performance, with efficiency and achievement becoming necessary for obtaining and continuing work. However, traditional principles like mediation, favoritism, and flattering superiors still play a role in evaluation. The failure of deglobalization to provide stable job opportunities for local citizens has led to the emergence of the concept of decent work as a basic step towards eliminating poverty. This concept emphasizes the need for individuals to obtain work that meets their expectations while achieving security, equality, and dignity. This opens new horizons for future social research and understanding of the challenges faced by middle-class individuals in the era of deglobalization.

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