ISSN: 2945-4190

World Journal on Education and Humanities Research
Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International
Vol. 3, Issue 1, pp. 1-12
Received, December 2022; Revised January 2023;
Accepted February 2023

Article

Inequality in Education in the Context of Basic Education

James Collins*
Corresponding Author: jamescollins@gmail.com

Abstract:
It is common knowledge that education for all should be provided without regard to race, ethnicity, gender, or social hierarchy. Although education equality is the fundamental objective of our government, there are cases in which inequality in education persists owing to a variety of causes. This investigation explores the causes of educational disparity. According to our findings, individual characteristics (attitudes and beliefs, psychological traits, parental socioeconomic status), individual educational success (attainment, field of study), population groups (men and women and ethnic groups), and educational inequality (gender pay gap, horizontal, occupational, and segregation) all contribute to the overall dilemma. In addition, our data demonstrate that both micro and social factors contribute to education inequality gaps; hence, social interactions and social structures influence micro conditions and outcomes. This implies that educational inequality is generated by a variety of elements and constructs that undermine the educational system's policy, resulting in educational inequality.

Keywords: Quality Education, Inequality, Basic Education

1. Introduction

Education is the essential foundation of all societies. Education is also a fundamental human right and is essential for all people to live their best lives. Other rights include freedom from slavery or torture and the right to a fair hearing. According to Antonnis et al. (2016), education is essential for economic development, poverty reduction, gender equality, public health, conflict resolution, and the transition to sustainable production and consumption. By promoting educational parity, the attainment of these and other Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) can be hastened. Nevertheless, not everyone received the same instruction. According to Mesa (2007), while educational inequality in the Philippines and its regions and provinces decreased from 1960 to 2000, there are significant variations in educational outcomes between regions and provinces. Using a decomposition analysis, it was determined that impoverished provinces have more education gaps than non-poor provinces, and that women experience

a more equitable distribution of education at the national level than men. Regional and provincial statistics reveal that the Gini education indices are adversely associated to the average school years and the GDP, but favorably related to the Gini income index, poverty rate, and poverty gap.

According to Zamora and Dorado (2015), education equality is not synonymous with an egalitarian society in which education is equitably dispersed among the population. Being related to education, which is a component of human capital, it also suggests equitable opportunity as a change agent in labor productivity. It is possible to argue for economic growth by establishing educational equality that enables disadvantaged households to escape poverty and attain greater living standards (Thomas Wang and Fan 2001; Ibourk and Amaghouss 2012). If the conversation scenario becomes a reality, however, an unequal distribution of education will lead to a situation in which only educated elites are able to maintain a significant portion of the national income, resulting in an increase in the incidence of poverty and a widening gap between the poor and the non-poor.

Additionally, research (Hussain, McNally, and TelJah 2009; Aburayya et al., 2020a; Salinas & Suson, 2019) indicates that students from disadvantaged families tend to attend colleges with lower status and fewer resources, where the social and economic worth of the degree is likely to be lower. Moreover, the unequal distribution of power in society is facilitated by the unequal distribution of knowledge through formal education. Many Bernsteinian analyses have been conducted in the subject of elementary and secondary education, and there is a growing corpus of research focusing on higher education. Studies that illustrate the intricacies and contestations influencing university curricula and pedagogy in general and across disciplines are particularly relevant (Geirsdóttir 2011; Luckett 2009; Brennan et al. 2010; Suson et al., 2019; Aburayya et al., 2019a).

Further research focuses on the structure of knowledge in intellectual domains (Maton, 2006; Moore, and Muller, 2002; Aburayya et al., 2019b), as well as the effects of neo-liberal values on identities in higher education (Abbas and McLean 2010; Abbas, Ashwin, and McLean 2012; Aburayya et al., 2020b). Together, these studies focus on the two political issues addressed by Bernstein that Muller (2004) identifies: the problem of the consequences of "economizing" educational systems on curriculum and pedagogy, and the question of whether educational systems reinforce or disrupt social hierarchies. We build on and contribute to this growing body of knowledge in the field of university education and social justice by employing Bernstein's concepts to investigate what type of sociology-related social science is being taught to university undergraduates, how it is being acquired, what effect it has on students, and whether the effects are unequal (Cited by Mclean et al., 2013).

In addition, research has demonstrated that inequality still has significant effects on the education system in the West, particularly in the United States, which adds to racial and socioeconomic performance gaps. Priority is given by educators, administrators, and policymakers to reducing educational disparities. CEPA conducts an observational examination of several poverty and education gap issues (CEPA, 2020). According to Chua's (2008) research, governments around the world, including the Philippines, are denying children of basic literacy skills because they have failed to overcome the 'strong and persistent' gaps in schooling. The notice was issued by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization on November 25, 2009. "If world governments care about Education for All, they must tackle the task of addressing inequality more seriously," UNESCO states. It states that the causes of education disparity include, among others, income, sex, residence, race, language, and disability.
According to the most recent UNESCO assessment, the Philippines is one of the nations were education inequality "mirrors" income inequality. According to UNESCO, the poorest 20% of Filipino children obtain five years of lower education. In comparison to the wealthiest of the wealthiest twenty percent, the lowest 20% obtain an average of six and a half decades of schooling. "For several of them, the share of out-of-school pupils from the lowest income quintiles exceeds 40 percent," UNESCO noted, adding that the association between household poverty and survival is "much more pronounced" in secondary school. Its 2009 report links gender disparity in the Philippines to poverty. Historically, boys have outperformed girls in mathematics in all primary and secondary grades. In 1991, the Philippines established the Local Government Code, which delegated a number of functions to local governments, including the supply of goods and services. Theoretically, decentralization should make systems more responsive to local demands and give the underprivileged a stronger say. In the Philippines, however, financial decentralization "appears to have exacerbated inequalities, with wealthier regions better able to mobilize resources," according to Unesco. It estimated that the global financing gap for achieving basic education by 2015 is approximately $7 billion per year and accused the donor community of a "collective failure" to deliver on aid commitments. The Philippines, which devotes less than 3 percent of its gross domestic product to public spending on education, has relied heavily on aid to finance basic education.

Inequality in Education

Educational inequality is understood as the tendency for different sub-groups in society to make different educational choices and be differentially successful in their educational careers (Raabe, 2018). Moreover, research on educational inequality, particularly analyses of

the achievement gap, document average differences between groups in school-level resources and then attempted to predict outcome scores. While this is an often-accepted knowledge, it overlooks the intervening processes that lie between the observation of resource and the ability of students or families to engage and utilize that resource. While traditional investigations of education have assumed resources to be the lynchpin to equality between groups, my analysis argues that in the post-Civil Rights Era the general provision of resources is an insufficient policy tool (Lewis, 2008).

However, Unterhalter (2015) stated that defining inequalities and equalities is not a matter of theory and abstraction. Concretely it requires us to understand the institutional foundations that reproduce inequalities and that can support equalities. These institutional foundations comprise both political and economic processes, socio-cultural norms, and policy and management regimes. Some of these institutional foundations directly underpin education systems, and some have an indirect connection. An analysis and assessment of gender inequality and equality in schooling needs to take in these institutional processes which work at international, national and local level, often in un-coordinated ways. Central themes in a definition of gender equality and schooling include understanding opportunities, experiences, processes, practices, and outcomes. Each aspect can entail the discrimination and subordination of individuals, which constrains opportunities, agency, and the realization of valued outcomes. These restraints include forms of exclusion, silencing, stereotyping, marginalization and violence on the basis of gender. Each aspect also entails understanding the intersection of gender with other kinds of inequalities (e.g., class, race, ethnicity, location, poverty, sexuality.

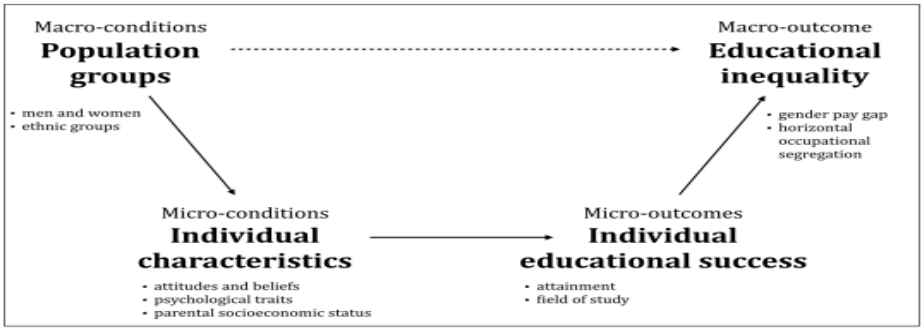

Figure 1.1: Educational inequality explained by Coleman's micro-macro link.

Educational Inequality as Micro-Macro Level Phenomenon

According to the literature, educational disparity appears to be different in educational achievement or area of study for general population subgroups (vertical and horizontal educational segregation, respectively). Education inequality is thus a macro-level phenomenon or observation. This can be explained in terms of macro-level approaches such as the education system, regulations and policies that differently impact groups within communities (Crul and Vermeulen, 2003; Heath, 2007; Fleischmann and Dronkers, 2010;

Suson, 2019; Aburayya, et al. 2020c). But causal influence between macro-level phenomena can function only through the micro-level, as Coleman (1990) has pointed out. Most research on macro-level phenomena, including educational disparity, is therefore based on individual actions and performance. This behavior can have dramatic effects on the macro level has also been reported, for example in Schelling 's influential model of home separation (1971), showing how even poor individual micro-level preferences can be intensified to full separation on the macro-level (Cited by Raabe, 2018).

The "Coleman Scheme," a "Coleman boat" (Coleman 1987, 1990), is a well-known model that links micro-level processes to macro-level outcomes. This can also be used to describe the inequality in education (see Figure 1.1). In other words, the "macro-outcome" is education inequality. The "macro conditions" are the presence in society of various classes, such as men and women, or various ethnic groups. The micro-level variables are individual attributes, such as human capital, behaviors, beliefs or socio-economic status of parents. Since the Coleman model assumes that macro factors can only influence macro-outcomes through microeconomic processes, it is presumed that sex or ethnicity as such only have an effect on the educational performance of these individuals Factors. Furthermore, while it considers macro effects to consist of micro-level events and behaviors, it does not presume that macro-level effects are just a simple combination of individual results: they presume a complex interplay between individual outputs, which then affects the macro-level. Examples are the segregation model referred to above by Schelling (1971) or the group action threshold models by Granovetter (1978). In applying this to the explanation of education inequality, it means that educational inequality as the macro-level effect must not be interpreted as the simple sum of individual effects, but that the macro-level of educational inequality is determined by complex processes among the different outcomes. Thus, this model allows interdependencies of individual preference and choices, such as

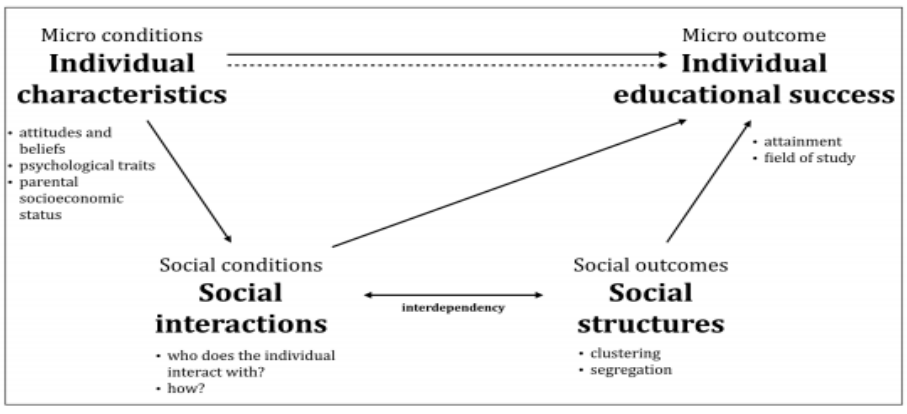

Figure 1.2: The "Micro and Social" Coleman boat of educational inequality.

The way people relate to each other creates a structure that often influences the opportunities and patterns of each other. This structure itself can, in two main ways, be a resource for education success. First, if an individual is embedded in a densely connected network (a "closed network"), it can be helpful since it means a shared network link between everyone else. This means that knowledge can be obtained directly and that it is less dangerous for people to trust others so they can sanction closely a society in which all know each other (Coleman, 1988). Since, as described above, people tend to relate more to people similar to themselves (McPherson et al . , 2001), the more resourceful the immediate network around them is therefore more likely to be similar. This can also be a drawback, however, since it causes redundancy of information and lack of external pulses. As a consequence, bridging capital, consisting of the network connection to other groups which is different in some ways, will probably give access to resources that would otherwise be unavailable, in addition to the closely knit 'bonding' social capital (Putnam 2000; Burt 2007). Generally speaking, disparities in social capital at both person and institutional levels may result in cumulative advantage, also known as the Matthew effect (Merton, 1968): Those who already are in an advantageous role may further this, since they have access to the social capital that this network position carries. There has been finding, for instance, that jobseekers with a higher socio-economic status can find more and higher jobs than those with less socio-economic status (Ioannides and Datcher Loury, 2004), and that men can make better use of these types of opportunities as women (Aberg & Hedstr¨om, 2001; Aburayya et al., 2020b). Raabe (2018) pointed out that the social dimension of educational inequality explanation is therefore a difficult level that describes how individual circumstances contribute to individual outcomes, through social experiences and social structures.

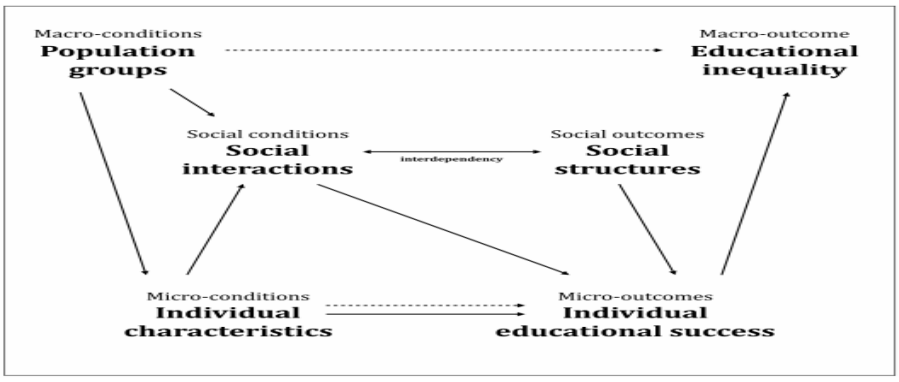

Figure 1.3: The "Multilevel" Coleman boat of educational inequality.

According to the general concept of the Colen system , human features influence social experiences, leading to various patterns in how people communicate. As already argued, social experiences and social systems are interdependent: thus, as compared to the conventional Coleman scheme in which only micro effects, not micro-conditions, affect macro-results, the social conditions, and social outcomes affect individual educative outcomes. There are a variety of ways to research the social domain, which comprises interdependent social experiences and social structures. First, there is an ego-centric approach which takes into account the specific types of interaction in which an person interacts, but not the way in which people interact with each other. As discussed above, however, these types of analyzes can not offer useful insights, because they can not take account of the endogenous complexities of friendship networks. However, they can display similarities and record patterns on a degree comparatively accurate. As stated, several research uses aggregates of individual characteristics at the level of the classroom: using friends is therefore a better calculation rather than everyone in the class. Secondly, the socio-centered approach takes account of relations between individuals and the system that arises and interacts with them, including segregation, hierarchy and density. When taking this approach over time, it should take account of network dynamics and individual results and thus specifically take into account peer effects. This is firstly because partnerships are typically homophisticated and secondly because of the endogenous nature of relationship networking. First of all people tend to become friends with people with whom they share several or significant characteristics (such as age , sex, behaviors, cultural consumption habits or free time), a phenomenon known as homophile (McPherson et al . 2001). Separating pleasant similarity from similarity as a result of peer effects through such selective friendship involves a longitudinal approach and is an integral part of this study. Second, who becomes friends and remains with whom characteristics are not only influenced: network mechanisms such as reciprocal friendships (reciprocity), friendships with friends (transitivity), or popularity of the people in the network are only some examples. The manner in which these processes form a Network is endogenous, that is, they rely on one another: For instance, someone who is also a friend of a friend is more likely to designate a friend. Since this interdependence violates the fundamental premise that regression analyzes are autonomous, a social network analysis is essential to take these networking processes into account (Carrington et al., 2009). As a longitudinal approach to choose from factors is

required, the longitudinal social network study is required when targeting effects from friends (Steglich et al. 2010), as shown by numerous studies (e.g., Schaefer, 2016; Lakon et al., 2017; Aburayya et al., 2020d).

Discussion and Conclusion

An equitable education system helps all students develop the knowledge and skills they need to be engaged and become productive members of society. More importantly, giving all children an equitable start would lead to better economic and social outcomes for individuals, for regions, and for our nation (SPREE, 2018). Based on the results of our study, inequality in education emerged when sub-groups of a population have gaps in terms of educational background and achievements. Although poverty is also the leading cause of inequality of education, some constructs have also emerged, such as Individual characteristics (attitudes and beliefs, psychological traits, parental socio-economic status), Individual educational success (attainment, field of study), For the macro-conditions this include the population groups (men and women and ethnic groups), while for the macro-outcome it includes the educational inequality (gender pay gap, horizontal, occupational and segregation). Moreover, our findings also show that micro and social contributes to the gaps of inequality of education, thus, social interactions and social structures affects the micro conditions and outcome. This implied that educational inequality is caused by different factors and constructs that undermined the policy of an educational system and this led to inequality of education.

References

Antoninis, M., Delprato, M., & Benavot, A. (2016). 10. Inequality in education: the challenge of measurement. *World social science report, 2016:* Challenging inequalities; pathways to a just world, 63.

Aberg, Y. and Hedstr¨om, P. (2001). Youth unemployment: A self-reinforcing process? Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Abbas, A., and M. McLean. 2007. Qualitative research as a method for making just comparisons of pedagogic quality in higher education: A pilot study. British Journal of Sociology of Education 28, no. 6: 723–73.

Abbas, A., and M. McLean. 2010. 'Tackling inequality through quality': A comparative case study using Bernsteinian concepts. In Global inequalities and higher education, ed. E. Unterhalter and V. Carpentier, 241–67. London: Palgrave MacMillan.

Aburayya, A., Alawadhi, D., & Taryam, M. (2019a).A conceptual framework for implementing TQM in the primary healthcare centers and examining its impact on patient satisfaction. International Journal of Advanced Research, 7(3), 1047-1065.

Aburayya, A., Alshurideh, M., Albqaeen, A., Alawadhi,D., & Ayadeh, I. (2019b). An investigation of factors affecting patients waiting time in primary healthcare centers: An assessment study in Dubai. Management Science Letters, 10(6), 1265-1276.

Aburayya, A., Marzouqi, A. Al, Ayadeh, I. Al, Albqaeen, A. & Mubarak, S. (2020b). Evolving A Hybrid Appointment System for Patient Scheduling in Primary Healthcare Centres in Dubai: Perceptions of Patients and Healthcare Provider. International Journal on Emerging Technologies, 11(2), 251–260.

Aburayya, A., Marzouqi, A., Alawadhi, D., Abdouli, F., & Taryam, M. (2020a). An empirical investigation of the effect of employees' customer orientation on customer loyalty through the mediating role of customer satisfaction and service quality. Management Science Letters, 10(10), 2147-2158.

Aburayya, A., Alshurideh, M., Alawadhi, D., Alfarsi, A., Taryam, M., Mubarak, S. (2020c). An investigation of the effect of Lean Six Sigma Practices on Healthcare Service Quality and Patient Satisfaction: Testing the Mediating Role of Service Quality in Dubai Primary Healthcare Sector. Journal of Advance Research in Dynamical and Control System, 12(8), 56-72.

Aburayya, A., Alshurideh,. M., Marzouqi, . A. A., Diabat, . O. A., Alfarsi, . A., Suson, . R. & (2020) An Empirical Examination of the Effect of TQM Practices on Hospital Service Quality: An Assessment Study in UAE Hospitals. Systematic Reviews in Pharmacy, 11 (9), 347-362. doi:10.31838/srp.2020.9.5

Brennan, J., R. Edmunds, M. Houston, D. Jary, Y. Lebeau, M. Osborne, and J.T.E. Richardson. 2010. Improving what is learned at university. London: Routledge

Berkeley. Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. American Journal of Sociology, 94.

Center for Education Policy Analysis. (2020). Poverty and Inequality. Retrieved from: https://cepa.stanford.edu/research-areas/poverty-and-inequality

Crul, M. and Vermeulen, H. (2003). The Second Generation in Europe. The International Migration Review, 37(4):965–986.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Weinfeld, F. D., and York, R. L. (1966). Equality of Educational Opportunity.

Coleman, J. S. (1987). Microfoundations and macrosocial behavior. In The Micromacro link, pages 153–173. University of California Press,

Coleman, J. S. (1990). Foundations of social theory. Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, London.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Weinfeld, F. D., and York, R. L. (1966). Equality of Educational Opportunity.

Eirene P. Mesa, 2007. "Measuring Education Inequality In the Philippines," UP School of Economics Discussion Papers 200704, University of the Philippines School of Economics

Fleischmann, F. and Dronkers, J. (2010). Unemployment among immigrants in European labour markets: an analysis of origin and destination effects. Work, Employment and Society, 24(2):337–354.

Geirsdóttir, G. 2011. Teachers' conceptions of knowledge structures and pedagogic practices in higher education. In Knowledge and identity: Concepts and applications in Bernstein's sociology, ed. G. Ivinson, B. Davies, and J. Fitz, 90–106. London: Routledge.

Hussian, I., S. McNally, and S. TelJah. 2009. University quality and graduate wages in the UK. Discussion Paper, Institute for the Study of Labor, Bonn.

Heath, A. F. (2007). Crossnational patterns and processes of ethnic disadvantage. In Unequal chances : ethnic minorities in Western labour markets. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Ibourk, A., and J. Amaghouss. 2012. Measuring Education Inequalities: Concentration and Dispersion-Based Approach.‖ World Journal of Education 2(6): 51–65

Ioannides, Y. M. and Datcher Loury, L. (2004). Job Information Networks, Neighborhood Effects.

Lakon, C. M., Wang, C., Butts, C. T., Jose, R., and Hipp, J. R. (2017). Cascades of emotional support in friendship networks and adolescent smoking. PLOS ONE, 12(6):1–20.

Luckett, K. 2009. The relationship between knowledge structure and curriculum: A case study in sociology. Studies in Higher Education 34, no. 4: 441–53.

Maton, K. 2006. On knowledge structures and knower structures. In Knowledge, power and educational reform: Applying the sociology of Basil Bernstein, ed. R. Moore, M. Arnot, J. Beck, and H. Daniel, 44–59. London: Routledge

Moore, R., and J. Muller. 2002. The growth of the knowledge and the discursive gap. British Journal of Sociology of Education 23, no. 4: 627–37.

Muller, J. 2004. Introduction: The possibilities of Basil Bernstein. In Reading Bernstein, researching Bernstein, ed. J. Muller, B. Davies, and A. Morais, 1–12. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

McLean, M., Abbas, A., & Ashwin, P. (2013). The use and value of Bernstein's work in studying (in)equalities in undergraduate social science education. British Journal of Sociology of Education, 34(2), 262–280.

Merton, R. K. (1968). The Matthew Effect in Science. Science, 159(3810):56–63. McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., and Cook, J. M. (2001). Birds of a Feather: Homophily in Social Networks. Annual Review of Sociology, 27:415–444.

Putnam, R. D. (2000). Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community. Simon & Schuster, London.

Raabe, I. J. (2018). *Social aspects of educational inequality* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oxford).

Salinas, J. M., & Suson, R. L. (2019). Expounding Motivational Consequence to Teachers Achievement.

Schaefer, D. R. (2016). A Network Analysis of Factors Leading Adolescents to Befriend Substance-Using Peers. Journal of Quantitative Criminology, pages 1–38.

Suson, R. L. (2019). Digital Citizenship in Education: Visioning Safety and Responsibilities in Digital World. International Journal of Trend in Scientific Research and Development, 3(4), 1637.

Suson, R., Mejica, S. P., Catibig, J. A., Jr, M. P., & Miranda, M. (2019). Linking School Improvement to Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction: The Challenge of Change.

Steglich, C., Snijders, T. A. B., and Pearson, M. (2010). Dynamic networks and behaviour: separating selection from influence. Sociological Methodology, 40:329–393.

Thomas, V., Y. Wang, and X. Fan. 2001. Measuring Education Inequality: Gini Coefficients of Education. ‖ Policy Research Inventory Paper WPS2525, World Bank.
Unterhalter, E. S. (2015, September). Measuring gender inequality and equality in education. In Proceedings of workshop hosted by UNGEI. United Nation Girls' Initiative (UNGEI).

Zamora, C. M. B., & Dorado, R. A. (2015). Rural-urban education inequality in the Philippines using decomposition analysis. Journal of Economics, Management and Agricultural Development, 1(1