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## Educational Equality:

### Key Factor for Sustainable Development

*Today's most challenging question for those in charge of education policy is not the answer to "what if?" How to improve academic achievement, but to answer how we can deal with inequality in education. Over the past two decades, evidence from around the world has shown the detrimental effects of high levels of inequality on everything. The increased inequality is 'Social segregation and erosion.' From economic growth to poverty reduction, social solidarity, and public health, reducing inequality is not only functional; but it needs to be done. Even though the causes of educational gaps are multifaceted, studies are beginning to demonstrate that schools can make a significant difference even at the level of school limitations. Teaching and raising goals, engaging parents, improving motivation, and parenting skills, fostering confidence and self-esteem through student voices and empowering students are all things that can be done. Many schools currently serve underprivileged populations, demonstrating that poverty should not be used as an excuse for meeting common goals. This paper aims to present dimensions that affect educational inequality, so policymakers in most countries could consider and implement to reduce educational inequality.*

**Keywords:** *Educational Equality, Sustainable Development, Developing Country, Educational Development*

### Introduction

The root of quality of educational management lies in what happens within the classroom (The black box, given by Black and William (1998)), which takes the interaction between teachers and students. If the phenomenon in the classroom takes place in a desirable direction, it can be assured that there will be no other problems related to the quality of education. However, the current situation in society still has other issues involved. It is a factor that affects the quality of education, for example, the issue of inequality in education which is evident from the phenomenon that occurs these days in our society.

From economic growth to poverty reduction, social solidarity, and public health, reducing inequality is not only functional; it needs to be done. Over the past two decades, evidence from around the world has shown the detrimental

1 effects of high levels of inequality on everything. The high inequality is 'Social  
2 segregation and erosion (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2010, cited in ISSC, IDS, and  
3 UNESCO, 2016).

4 Eliminating educational disparities will expand the positive influence of  
5 education on the success of other development outcomes. Equal delivery of  
6 education is critical to solving problems in cities. Education in low- and  
7 middle-income countries has shown that increasing educational inequality is  
8 linked to being at the height of the conflict (UNESCO, 2014). According to  
9 related research studies, there is an apparent correlation between the Gini study  
10 (an index of educational disparities) and GDP (Gross Domestic Product) on  
11 population growth. Countries with equitable distribution of human capital in  
12 the labor force have increased per capita income. The Global Relationship  
13 Between Gini Studies and Per Capita Income (Based on a 1999 survey) was  
14 also very high ( $r = -.47$ ) (Jacob and Holsinger, 2009). This research aims to  
15 present dimensions that affect educational inequality, so policymakers in most  
16 countries could consider and implement to reduce educational inequality and  
17 propose policy-making guidelines for education management development to  
18 reduce inequality in the country.

## 19 20 21 **Literature Review**

### 22 **Educational Inequality**

23  
24  
25 Poverty, unfavorable parental attitudes toward education, lack of parental  
26 involvement in children's education, insufficient financing, curricular barriers,  
27 and people's level of knowledge in disadvantaged communities are all variables  
28 that influence educational inequality (Demie, 2019). Many parents believe they  
29 lack the educational capabilities or experience to assist their children in learning;  
30 according to numerous studies, school-level factors account for 20% of  
31 academic achievement variance, while student-level factors account for 80%.  
32 According to the survey results, low student aspirations and the challenges and  
33 barriers stated above are also interesting topics.

34 To solve the problem, all members of society must urge schools to  
35 recognize and comprehend the consequences of educational inequality (Demie,  
36 2019).

37 Even though the causes of educational inequalities are complex, studies are  
38 beginning to show that schools, even at the level of school restrictions, may  
39 make a significant difference (Demie and McLean, 2013; Demie and Lewis,  
40 2008, 2010a, 2010b; Demie and Lewis, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). Several schools  
41 serving underserved communities, according to the study, indicated that poverty

1 should not be used as an excuse for poor academic achievement (Demie and  
2 McLean, 2015; Demie and Lewis, 2010a, 2010b; Mongon and Chapman, 2008;  
3 Ofsted, 2009).

4 According to the Mongon and Chapman (2008) study, there has been  
5 progressing in how schools deal with underperforming students. They  
6 discovered that these schools had strong leadership and processes, including a  
7 headmaster who refused to acknowledge poverty as a role in student failure.  
8 They have high expectations of students, and many principals claim to have  
9 come from working-class households. They explain the importance of  
10 developing a deep respect for the communities they serve and how they  
11 encourage and support parents and the community's active involvement in their  
12 children's education. Leading Strategies addresses some of the barriers to  
13 success, such as adequate staffing, focused work assistance, comprehensive  
14 ethical counseling and development, and curricula that match the needs of  
15 underprivileged children.

16 Sharples et al. (2011) reviewed international research on practical  
17 classroom practices for improving students' achievement from disadvantaged  
18 backgrounds, school leadership, teaching quality, efficient use of information,  
19 and other topics; increase motivation and parental involvement by using  
20 performance to identify underperforming groups; and increase motivation and  
21 parental involvement by using performance to identify underperforming groups.  
22 They feel that high-quality instruction is crucial to making a significant effect.  
23 Effective use of data to identify disadvantaged groups includes strong leadership,  
24 high-quality teaching, a comprehensive curriculum, parent involvement,  
25 beneficial use of data to identify disadvantaged groups, efficient use of  
26 outstanding teachers in intervention group teaching, deploying support teachers  
27 with a proven track record of increasing student success, effective use of student  
28 premium funding to tackle poverty, and effective use of student voices and  
29 suggestions.

30 Rea, Hill, and Sandals (2011) also looked at studies on effective  
31 school-specific intervention tactics used by school leaders to assist  
32 disadvantaged kids with low academic performance, such as interventions and  
33 targeting and one-on-one learning support. It is possible to teach and raise goals,  
34 engage parents, improve motivation and parenting skills, promote confidence  
35 and self-esteem through student voices, and empower pupils. Mentors  
36 encourage students to participate in sports, music, field trips, and other  
37 extracurricular activities. Senior school workers provide one-on-one tutoring, so  
38 no time is wasted getting to know one another. It reaffirms that the strategies and  
39 confidence used in teacher reflection meetings may also be used in regular  
40 classes. Many schools now serve low-income students, indicating that poverty  
41 should not be used as an excuse for failing to fulfill minimum standards (Demie

1 and McLean, 2015a; Demie and Lewis, 2010a, 2010b; Mongon. and Chapman,  
2 2008; Ofsted, 2009)

3 This study describes the scope of the factors that influence educational  
4 disparity, which will be helpful information for national development  
5 policymakers who will be able to recognize the connections between the factors  
6 and use them to design more comprehensive and responsive development  
7 policies. According to the study's findings, the dimensions involved in  
8 addressing educational disparity can be incorporated if governments consider  
9 systematic solutions as a whole and consciously combine the missions of each  
10 department to address educational inequality in their respective countries.  
11 Furthermore, operational employees can use the recommendations and  
12 instructions to improve instructional management guidelines in the future,  
13 making them more effective.

### 14 **Related Research**

15  
16  
17 Ram (1990) explored the Kuznets hypothesis to see whether it could  
18 account for the association between average school years and educational  
19 inequalities across 94 countries. According to the findings, the Kuznets  
20 hypothesis curve is also characterized by the average number of academic years  
21 and economic differences. The average number of academic years reversal point  
22 is 6.8 years, indicating. As the average number of academic years rises, the  
23 educational inequalities will widen. Furthermore, educational inequality will  
24 reduce when the average number of academic years climbs to 6.8 years.  
25 According to Ram's research, if more education is supported in developing  
26 countries, such as free primary education, the average number of school years  
27 for a population may be increased, and educational gaps can be eliminated.

28 Downey (1995) investigates children's education and parental educational  
29 resources for their children. According to studies, the distribution of educational  
30 resources in early childhood impacts their academic achievement, with parents  
31 becoming less supportive of their children's education, resulting in a drop in their  
32 children's education. Additionally, according to this study, having more children  
33 results in fewer educational resources.

34 Gregorio and Lee (2002) investigated educational and economic inequality  
35 in 49 countries from the OECD, Latin America, Africa, and Asia. When income  
36 disparity and income factors affecting the study were considered, higher  
37 education expenditures were found to reduce educational inequality.

38 Hassan and Mirza (2005) conducted research in Pakistan on inequities and  
39 economic growth. Educational spending has minimal impact on educational  
40 disparity, according to the research.

1        Assess the impact of education equality policy on income distribution in  
2 Thailand during the 6th and 8th National Economic and Social Development  
3 Plans using data from the Economic and Social Development Survey  
4 (1987-2001). Jeamprachanrakon (2003) investigated the influence of Thailand's  
5 equal education policy on income distribution. Education equality was  
6 investigated in the 6th through 8th National Economic and Social Development  
7 Plans (1987-2001). The National Statistical Office conducted household surveys  
8 in 1992, 1996, and 2000. (Socio-Economic Surveys). The impact of education  
9 equality policies on income distribution for everyone in the home was  
10 investigated using stepwise regression analysis. In the household income  
11 distribution study, the Gini Coefficient was used. In the education equity study,  
12 heads of families and members used the average number of years of schooling.  
13 Between the 6th and 8th National Economic and Social Development Plans,  
14 there was a greater degree of educational equality, with the average number of  
15 years of schooling for heads of households being 5.18, 5.19, and 5.17,  
16 respectively, and for all household members being 5.35, 5.82, and 6.46. There  
17 was also a modest discrepancy between sectors, with the highest-income 20%  
18 group's head of household and all household members having a lengthier  
19 average school year than the rest. The poorest 20% of the population makes up  
20 20% of the population or 2-2.5 times the national average. The income  
21 distribution results in the 6th to 8th National Economic and Social Development  
22 Plans are more uneven, with Gini Coefficients of 0.5883, 0.5816, and 0.6910,  
23 respectively.

24        Suchitraphakorn (2004) studied the impact of educational attainment.  
25 Educational inequality and educational quality are seen to positively impact  
26 economic inequality, with higher levels and quality of education reducing  
27 income differences. Educational inequality was measured using the standard  
28 deviation and the Ordinary Least Square approach with provincial data and the  
29 Pool Least Square method in thirteen educational categories in 1996, 1998, 2000,  
30 and 2002. According to the findings, education plays a significant role in  
31 shaping income distribution. Inequities were aggravated by increased  
32 educational attainment. They also discovered that increased education  
33 investment, as measured by the quality of education, reduced wealth disparity.  
34 That is because workers with less education have higher productivity and  
35 income when they have more education. Inequities, on the other hand, did not  
36 affect income inequality.

37        Lim et al. (2007) tested the Kuznets Hypothesis by examining the  
38 association between the average number of years spent in school and educational  
39 disparities in 99 countries from 1960 to 2000. According to Kuznets' hypothesis,  
40 a rise in the average number of school years in the population will increase  
41 educational disparities; however, the findings showed that the average number

1 of school years and educational disparities are linked. Furthermore, the disparity  
2 in educational attainment narrows as the population's average number of school  
3 years grows to a certain degree or turning point. The average number of  
4 academic years was discovered to have a 4.4-year tipping point.

5 Tomul (2009) examined the definition and scope of educational inequality  
6 in Turkey; using census and educational data from 2000, this study sought to  
7 determine the relationship between the educational gap in Turkey and the  
8 average number of school years. In a socio-economic assessment of Turkey's  
9 population aged 25 and up, the Education Gini Coefficient was utilized to  
10 indicate educational disparity. Increases in the average number of academic  
11 years have minimized educational inequalities. Educational inequalities  
12 narrowed as the average number of academic years increased, according to an  
13 analysis of time-series data from 1975 to 2000. The data demonstrated an  
14 inverse link between educational inequalities and the average years spent in  
15 school.

16 Kumba (2010) investigated the relationship between educational disparity  
17 and the average number of school years in Indonesia. According to the study,  
18 increases in the average number of school years were found to lessen  
19 educational gaps. Education disparities between men and women were also  
20 revealed to be an influence. Gender literacy rates have an impact on educational  
21 inequality.

22 Lin (2010) used the Kuznets hypothesis to analyze the relationship between  
23 the average number of years spent in school and the educational gap in Taiwan.  
24 According to the data, the relationship between the average number of years of  
25 study and the educational inequalities is based on the Kuznets hypothesis with a  
26 6.5-year turning point, suggesting that an increase in the average number of  
27 academic years increases educational inequality. As the average number of  
28 academic years increases to 6.5 years, educational inequality gradually  
29 decreases.

30 Meschi and Scervini (2012) analyzed educational opportunity and disparity  
31 in European countries, employing the Kuznets hypothesis to examine the  
32 relationship between the average number of years spent in school and  
33 educational inequality. Educational inequalities were measured using standard  
34 deviations, the Educational Gini Coefficient, and the Theli Index. Kuznets's  
35 claim concerning the relationship between the average number of years of study  
36 and the educational inequalities was inaccurate. It was discovered that  
37 increasing the average number of academic years lowered educational inequality  
38 for a while before eventually increasing again. The cost of primary and  
39 secondary education is relatively inexpensive, enabling the general public access  
40 to this level of education and eliminating educational gaps by increasing the  
41 average number of years spent in school among the young. On the other hand,

1 further education at the postsecondary level or higher is substantially more  
2 expensive. It may also result in the different entry points to this level of  
3 education. Obtaining a higher level of education will raise the number of years  
4 of study for people with a significant number of years of schooling, resulting in a  
5 rise in the population's average number of years of schooling. As the  
6 population's level of education rises, so does the educational achievement gap.

7 Mattaya Butngam (2012) examined the relationship between educational  
8 and economic disparity in Thailand. This research aimed to look at the link  
9 between education and economic disparities. Under the assumption that  
10 education and income disparity are bidirectionally related, when education  
11 inequality rises, income inequality rises. Furthermore, if the educational Gini  
12 coefficient is used as the representative measure of education inequality and the  
13 income Gini coefficient is used as the representative measure of income  
14 inequality, then if income inequality rises, so does education inequality. Use a  
15 representative to calculate income inequality. The relationship between  
16 educational inequality and income inequality in Thailand from 1988 to 2009 was  
17 investigated using a two-level least-squares approach, utilizing data from 73  
18 provinces from 1988-to 1992 and 76 provinces from 1994-to 2009. According to  
19 the data, income inequality and education inequality are inversely related; when  
20 education inequality rises, income inequality rises. While rising financial  
21 disparity has exacerbated inequity, the study also revealed the population's  
22 average number of years spent in school. Furthermore, economic and  
23 educational differences are linked to the share of the rural population employed  
24 in the business. According to the income Kuznets hypothesis test, the  
25 relationship between economic growth and income disparity in Thailand is  
26 based on Kuznets' assumption. Educational fees were also proven to have an  
27 impact on educational inequalities. Furthermore, the educational Kuznets  
28 hypothesis test found that the relationship between the average number of years  
29 of study and Thailand's educational gap did not follow Kuznets' theory.

30 According to the literature, Villiers & Villiers (2022) studied that  
31 education policies in Brazil are the backbone of their achievement in reducing  
32 inequality as measured by the GINI index. Brazil has been the only BRICS  
33 (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) country to achieve this since  
34 1994. This article compares South Africa and Brazil's strategies for attaining  
35 the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of guaranteeing inclusive and  
36 equitable quality education and encouraging opportunities for lifelong learning  
37 for all. The policies of South Africa and Brazil in terms of education are  
38 examined using the SDG analytical framework to discover patterns and themes  
39 that may explain the disparities in inequality trends between the two countries.  
40 The overall conclusion is that minor discrepancies in education policy in South  
41 Africa prolong inequality, whereas similar policies in Brazil contribute to

1 equality. The study's essential contribution is identifying flaws in otherwise  
2 well-intentioned education programs in South Africa.

### 3 4 5 **Methodology**

6  
7 The research aims to develop recommendations for educational  
8 management strategies that will serve Thailand and other countries in  
9 eliminating educational inequality. It comprises documentary and qualitative  
10 research conducted by the researcher using comparative analysis under  
11 Bereday's interdisciplinary comparative method (Bereday. 1964: 28). The  
12 procedure is as follows:

#### 13 14 **Step 1: Identifying Overarching Goals**

15  
16 Concepts, theories, documents, and relevant studies from Thailand,  
17 Vietnam, Indonesia, and New Zealand were investigated.

#### 18 19 **Step 2: Identifying specific goals**

20  
21 Identifying specific goals by assessing issues that continue to be  
22 problematic and a barrier to education reform in Thailand, such as educational  
23 inequality, educational management standards, and the role of development in  
24 fostering successful learning. As a result, three specific objectives must be set:  
25 1) Examine progress in the development of educational management in  
26 Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, and New Zealand in order to reduce educational  
27 inequality; 2) examine problems and needs in the development of educational  
28 management in Thailand in order to reduce inequality; 3) examine the strengths  
29 of educational management development in Vietnam, Indonesia, and New  
30 Zealand in order to reduce inequality; and 4) propose policy-making guidelines  
31 for the development of educational management in Thailand, Vietnam,  
32 Indonesia, and New Zealand.

#### 33 34 **STEP 3: Collecting data**

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36 The research used information on educational management models in  
37 Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, and New Zealand to reduce educational  
38 inequities. Research papers, articles, books, textbooks, recordings from printed  
39 and electronic media, and interviews with relevant professionals make up the  
40 research document.



1 **Step 4. The narrative and interpretation of the phenomenon.**

2  
3 This stage is described and interpreted after the data has been stored in step  
4 3. By examining the data received through document analysis, expert interviews,  
5 and observation, the researcher compared what was described and evaluated the  
6 phenomena originating from the information gathered above. Content analysis,  
7 Typological Analysis, Constant Comparison, Component Analysis, and  
8 Analytic Induction were among the qualitative data analysis approaches  
9 employed by the researchers.

10  
11 **Step 5: Identifying the Dissimilarities and Similarities**

12  
13 What is different and what is similar are interpreted by distinguishing what  
14 is different and what is similar.

15  
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17 **Results**

18  
19 **Policy recommendations for eliminating educational inequality in the**  
20 **country**

21  
22 The researcher classified the policy strategies for resolving educational  
23 inequalities into four categories: social, economic, political and governance, and  
24 educational.

25  
26 **Social Dimension**

27  
28 1. Increasing the number of youths and adults with essential skills, such as  
29 technical and professional abilities, to increase work opportunities. Education  
30 for sustainable development and welfare, human rights, and gender equality are  
31 all part of this; promoting a peaceful and nonviolent culture among the world's  
32 population and the popularity of cultural diversity, and how culture contributes  
33 to long-term progress.

34 2. Systematic statistical and divergent data on the number of persons with  
35 disabilities related to schooling are investigated to establish the level of educational  
36 inequality among persons with disabilities, both in terms of obtaining educational  
37 facilities, materials, services, and other support and also in terms of gaining  
38 educational facilities, materials, services, and other support.

39 3. Access to units that demand urgent development or assistance may lead to  
40 the development of such a particular project on the national agenda.

41 4. Create or expand social programs to combat inequities.

- 1           5. Emphasize leadership development and the change agent's role.
- 2           6. Prioritizing the development of underprivileged children before they enter
- 3 school.
- 4           7. Promote parental involvement in educational management as a
- 5 differentiator. If parents have high expectations for their children's education and
- 6 actively participate in their lives as educators, both parents and children will have
- 7 high standards, closely monitor academic performance, collaborate with teachers,
- 8 and contribute to schoolwork.
- 9           8. Establishing a participatory education management system to eliminate
- 10 educational inequality.

11

## 12 **Economic dimension**

13

- 14           1. Improving the National Education Expenditure Accounting System as a
- 15 management decision-making tool to decrease educational inequality. The issue
- 16 is not a lack of funds but relatively ineffective budgeting.
- 17           2. Investigating reforms to encourage conditional subsidies. It was
- 18 discovered that achieving conditional subsidies resulted in more students
- 19 arriving at school with greater weight and a better quality of life, reaching the
- 20 target children and improving student quality.
- 21           3. Fair distribution of resources, Educational fairness does not mean the
- 22 equal provision of resources.

23

## 24 **Political and governance dimensions**

25

- 26           1. Encouraging local governments to participate is an essential mechanism
- 27 for reducing inequities. The most important mechanism of educational disparity
- 28 is local assistance to help solve the problem; generating possibilities for access
- 29 to education should have an opportunity improvement strategy. Local education
- 30 can help reduce local and social imbalances, find comprehensive education
- 31 management, identify at-risk groups as long-term investments, and increase
- 32 accessibility for disadvantaged people.
- 33           2. Changing policy to minimize unfairness, particularly in education, young
- 34 people must be encouraged to be cared for and nourished before being accepted
- 35 to school to achieve appropriate physical, mental, discipline, emotional, social,
- 36 and intellectual development.
- 37           3. When politicians do not act as representatives of the people but rather as
- 38 stewards of the group's interests, the country's political and government
- 39 development suffers, resulting in an unequal distribution of wealth. The solution
- 40 is for politicians to acknowledge the predicament and recognize that to take

1 corrective action, they must first identify the political groupings' quality  
2 problem, or else the solution will be a rowing boat with no solution.

3 4. Public, commercial, and public sector partners must collaborate to  
4 support the authorities responsible for ratifying the Convention on the Rights of  
5 Persons with Disabilities to Recognize and Protect Their Educational Rights and  
6 the development of international human rights law.

7 5. Government sectors, such as provincial education, supervisory education,  
8 and area directors, as well as Ministry of Education agencies, must alter the  
9 function of the principal education manager and work supervisor to that of a  
10 facilitator in bringing diverse sectors to participate in determining the direction  
11 in the area to allow working freedom.

12 6. Increase work flexibility by accelerating the law's unlocking, setting  
13 defined goals and timelines, and communicating to improve knowledge and  
14 comprehension of independent laws.

15 7. While school readiness is not a barrier for children in urban areas, it is a  
16 barrier for children in rural regions, particularly in geographically challenging  
17 areas. Evidence shows that establishing schools in rural communities and remote  
18 areas could be a solution. A "small school model" for elementary schools and  
19 boarding schools and online learning systems for junior high schools may be a  
20 possibility to get past significant attendance constraints.

## 21 22 **Education dimension**

23  
24 1. There should not be a single model for allocating educational money  
25 because schools operate in varied environments, necessitating unique solutions.

26 2. A system and a process for identifying and developing professional  
27 teachers and educators are in place. To possess the spirit, competence, and  
28 talents of a teacher to be a truly knowledgeable teacher and to be fairly  
29 compensated for their ability and effectiveness in the classroom.

30 3. There is a mechanism to create a moral system in the personnel  
31 management of professional teacher practitioners.

32 4. Fostering desired characteristics in Thai people, such as discipline,  
33 citizenship, critical thinking, and global awareness, so that they can learn about  
34 their country and the world, as well as the development of intellectual capital, to  
35 enable Thailand to escape the middle-income trap in the future.

36 5. Changing the curriculum, teaching materials, and teacher training to  
37 enable students to learn in the context of today's and tomorrow's global society.

38 6. Equal access to high-quality pre-primary education ensures that all boys  
39 and girls receive high-quality early childhood care and education in order to  
40 prepare them for primary school.

1           7. All men and women have equal access to affordable technical, vocational,  
2 and higher education, including affordable and high-quality university education.

3           8. Solving literacy and numeracy difficulties (universal literacy and numeracy)  
4 assures that all children and adults, both males and females, can read, write, and  
5 perform computations.

6           9. Progress in the proportion of children and teenagers who obtained at least  
7 the lowest elementary level proficiency in reading and mathematics by the end  
8 of junior high school was verified using data from the PISA survey. PISA  
9 indicators can also be used to determine how close a country is to meeting other  
10 goals. The goal of educational equality as well as education for long-term  
11 growth.

12          10. Adjusting educational ideals needs a more emphasis on the mind, by  
13 emphasizing morals and ethics, rather than solely on managing education to  
14 develop talent or successful vocations or obtain a degree. Otherwise, there will  
15 be greedy educated people and their comrades until conflicts erupt at all levels of  
16 society. Without resolving this issue, the solution will be quite constrained.

17          11. Evaluation of Academic Quality Methods and processes should be  
18 changed to make the audit more in line with real-world scenarios. In addition to a  
19 rigorous qualitative examination, a mechanism for selecting assessors held to the  
20 same high standards should be in place.

21          12. Increased teacher-to-student ratios constitute a significant issue that  
22 requires careful attention and retirement planning, and the recruitment of new  
23 instructors to smaller schools.

24          13. Expand the number of options available to local small schools. Larger  
25 ones should support smaller schools. Should Construct a physical network of  
26 schools or a university campus for neighboring schools to collaborate and share  
27 resources.

28          14. Is it possible to change the Education for Persons with Disabilities Act to  
29 allow the Committee for the Promotion of Education for Persons with  
30 Disabilities the ability to build specific learning centers for individuals with  
31 disabilities? Furthermore, ministerial regulations outline the rules and  
32 procedures that allow individuals with disabilities to access facilities, media,  
33 services, and other educational resources.

34          15. Expanding the sandbox for educational innovation.

35          16. Create awareness among educational workers; there may be common  
36 concepts of educational management.

37          17. Access to educational institutions with a development need.

38          18. Students may be more motivated if they understand what they are  
39 studying and how relevant each subject is to their everyday lives and careers if  
40 they focus on the Assessment for the Learning process. Summative and  
41 formative evaluations are both important.



1        However, given Thailand's educational framework, where educational  
2 resources are provided based on the number of students enrolled, large schools  
3 with massive enrollments will receive larger per capita subsidies. Small schools  
4 with a small student population are more efficient and flexible than larger  
5 institutions. Because big schools are frequently located in metropolitan regions,  
6 and smaller schools are located in rural areas, there are discrepancies in the  
7 quality of education between urban and rural schools in Thai society, where  
8 there is already an issue of socio-economic inequality between urban and rural  
9 areas.

10        All of the factors listed above directly impact the quality of school education  
11 and contribute to differences in the quality of education between schools. As a  
12 result of the issue mentioned above, children and parents in specific rural  
13 communities are concerned about the quality of schools near their homes. As a  
14 result, families with higher socioeconomic status are more inclined to send their  
15 children to larger city schools. In contrast, families with lower socioeconomic  
16 status are less likely to do so, resulting in a decrease in the number of students in  
17 rural schools. However, several of the city's significant schools have excessive  
18 students. Some extra-large schools contain as many as 5,000 pupils, even though  
19 the proper number of students should be no more than 2,000, making them  
20 difficult to administer and oversee children and possibly contributing to  
21 educational inequity (Secretary Office, Education Council, 2018)

22        In the social dimension, parental involvement in school management is  
23 another distinguishing feature. If both parents have high expectations for their  
24 children's education and participate in their education, they will have high  
25 standards, actively monitor academic performance, collaborate with teachers,  
26 and provide schoolwork (Parandekar, S., & Sedmik, E., 2016).

27        In terms of the home environment and early childhood education  
28 experiences, there should be a stronger focus on home support, parents, and  
29 families. These encounters have the potential to benefit impoverished  
30 youngsters. Rather than focusing on one side, improving the home learning  
31 environment and quality participation rates by disadvantaged children was more  
32 likely to enhance their outcomes. Outside of school, however, can make a  
33 significant difference. When families are interested in their children's learning,  
34 and their communities expect them to succeed, their educational achievement  
35 significantly increases. (Raffo et al., 2007; Snook, I., & O'Neill, J., 2014).

36        Governments should be seeking to address educational inequality by  
37 establishing policies that reduce social and economic inequality and directly  
38 address disadvantages before they begin enrollment.

39        In economic terms, educational inequality does not imply an equal  
40 distribution of resources. According to an international study, learning materials  
41 impact student learning, and the impact of socioeconomic status backgrounds on

1 learning will result in proper education. After all, social justice does not result  
2 from equality because persons with higher costs are still higher. Furthermore,  
3 those with low initial prices have less, while those with more receive things they  
4 do not need or want, but those with low costs do not even have enough to  
5 achieve adequately. Successful systems do not ignore underprivileged pupils but  
6 rather distribute resources fairly so that all students have equal opportunity. As a  
7 result, to support underprivileged students and schools, this practice must be  
8 considered part of efforts to improve the quality of student learning and those  
9 who live in demographic areas with lower socioeconomic status.

10 In terms of politics and governance, persuading local governments to join is  
11 critical for reducing educational inequality. The most important mechanism of  
12 inequality in education is local assistance to help solve the problem; generating  
13 possibilities for access to education should have an opportunity improvement  
14 strategy. Is it possible, for example, for all Grade 6 students to attend high  
15 school? Because there is a secondary school in the district, the legal and practical  
16 answer is yes; nevertheless, the problem is that not everyone takes advantage of  
17 the opportunity equally. No, and because everyone's ability to seize chances is  
18 unequal, local governments must deal with education by making it adaptable and  
19 tying educational activities to other social challenges. Local education can help  
20 reduce local and social imbalances, find comprehensive education management,  
21 identify at-risk groups as long-term investments, and increase accessibility for  
22 disadvantaged people. Local education is essential for everyone's well-being and  
23 sets educational goals. Targeting, defining appropriate service delivery  
24 practices, and building a support framework that allows schools to handle  
25 concerns and freely report back to parents are essential first steps in local  
26 education.

27 In terms of education, A problem-solving strategy based on equality that is  
28 ineffective. The allocation of educational budgets should not be done in the same  
29 way. Under the Education Equality Fund, equitable education expenditure  
30 accounts have been investigated across the country. People in society are  
31 concerned about the lack of long-term education as a result of earlier  
32 management efforts to minimize educational disparities. Why, for example, are  
33 there still gaps in education? Why do private companies give to students who are  
34 unable to attend school?

35 Why hasn't the recipient's size been lowered, though? Why are there still  
36 schools where kids are not treated equally in terms of education and other  
37 aspects of their lives? The more students in a school, the less each student  
38 receives, making it more difficult for small schools to improve educational  
39 quality and bridge the gap between city and suburban schools. If we regard  
40 education administration to be a shared responsibility, every organization and  
41 unit must be assessed and used to properly make decisions and budget.

1 Lastly, constructing consensus among educational personnel There may be  
2 guiding concepts in educational administration. The Te Kotahitanga Project, for  
3 example, is a professional research and development program aimed at  
4 improving Maori students' scholastic attainment in mainstream secondary  
5 schools. from the students' point of view, the following are the project's guiding  
6 principles: 1) Incorporating student input into educational reform 2) Thinking in  
7 terms of deficits (Bishop et al. 2009) 3 Relationships are essential (Hattie, 2003)  
8 4) Interactions between teachers and students.

## 11 Conclusion

13 Education is sometimes regarded as a critical factor in a country's overall  
14 growth. The human capital theory is founded on this concept, and some  
15 researchers over the last half-century have critiqued it (ISSC, IDS, and  
16 UNESCO, 2016; Baker & Holsinger 1996; Diener & Dweck 1978; Harber 2002;  
17 Lane 2001). National governments and international donor organizations are  
18 devoting billions of dollars to help the world's poor improve themselves,  
19 intending to achieve equity in quality, opportunity, and educational  
20 achievements. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development  
21 (OECD) invests significant public and corporate funds in local and national  
22 education initiatives. However, development education attempts are frequently  
23 ineffective and have unintended consequences, such as underdevelopment of  
24 development disputes. These consequences invariably result in many disparities  
25 (ISSC, IDS, and UNESCO, 2016).

26 We should work together to address the elements affecting national progress  
27 in education inequality in the four previously outlined dimensions: social,  
28 economic, political, and education, with a national overview first. And then  
29 formulate a comprehensive development policy to solve the problem of  
30 inequality in education.

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