

SECONDARY SCHOOL INCLUSIVE EDUCATION
IMPLEMENTATION PRACTICE IN THE AWI ZONE, AMHARA,
NATIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA

By

Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress

Submitted in Accordance with the Requirements for the Degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Education (Inclusive Education)

in the

College of Education

at the

University of South Africa

Supervisors: Dr Siva Moodley

January, 2025

UNISA, Ethiopia UNISA  college of
education

DECLARATION

Name: Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress

Student number: 17217288

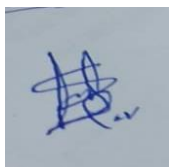
Degree: Doctor of Philosophy in Education (Inclusive Education)

Dissertation Title: Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation
Practice in the Awi zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia

I declare that this dissertation is my own work and that the sources used or quoted are indicated and acknowledged with complete references.

I also declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I declare that I have not previously submitted this work or part of it for examination at UNISA for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



Signature

14/10/2024

Date

DEDICATION

First, I would like to dedicate this research to my mother, **Ayenat Mossie**, for her help from primary school to my PhD journey. Long live my mom!

Second, this research is dedicated to my beautiful wife **Tigist Damtew** and my daughter **Nuhamin Mintesnot**.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- First, I would like to thank almighty **God** for this successful accomplishment and unwavering protection, allowing me to reach this incredible millstone in my academic journey.
- Second, my gratitude also goes to my supervisor, **Dr Siva Moodley**, for giving me his genuine and maximum pieces of advice and constructive comments from the very beginning of this PhD research until the end.
- Third, I would like to thank the great and historic university **UNISA**, which gave me the chance to earn a valuable and unforgettable PhD in inclusive education.
- Fourth, my thanks also go to **Injibara University**, which helped me sponsorship and with copying available hard materials and printing available soft copy materials.
- Fifth, I thank you **Hidase, Agew Midir, and Mengesha Jember**, teachers and students, for providing me with valuable information during the data collection phases by answering the questioners and conducting interviews.
- Last but not least, I thank you my friend PhD candidates at UNISA, Mr. **Agegnehu Alene** and Mr. **Aschale Moges**, for their friendly information sharing.

TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
ABSTRACT	xii
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.1 Introduction of the Study	1
1.2 Background of the Study	1
1.3 Problem Statement.....	10
1.3.1 Primary Research Questions	14
1.3.2 Secondary Research Questions	14
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	15
1.4.1 General Objective.....	15
1.4.2 Specific Objectives.....	15
1.5 Rationale for the Study	16
1.6 Research Methodology and Design.....	16
1.7.1 Research Approach	17
1.7.2 Population, Sampling and Sampling Techniques.....	18
1.7.3 Instrumentation and Data Collection Techniques	20
1.7.4 Data Analysis and Interpretation.....	22
1.8 Significance of the Study.....	22
1.9 Limitations of the Study	23
1.10 Delimitation of the Study.....	23
1.11 Definitions of Key Terms	23
1.12 Chapter Division	26
1.13 Conclusion	27
CHAPTER TWO	28
LITRATURE REVIEW	28
2.1 Introduction	28
2.12 Theoretical Framework of the Study	28
2.2.1 The Microsystem	30

2.2.2 Mesosystem Ecological Model	30
2.2.3 Exosystem Ecological Model	31
2.2.4 Macrosystem Ecological Model	32
2.2.5 Chronosystem Ecological Model	32
2.3 Definition of Inclusive Education.....	33
2.3.1 Diversity in the Classroom.....	38
2.3.2 Individualised Teaching	40
2.4 Introduction to Inclusive Education.....	41
2.5 Special Education (Inclusion's Roots)	51
2.7 Benefits of Inclusive Education.....	53
2.8 Inclusive Education in Developing Nations	56
2.9 Ethiopia’s Education System for Children with Disabilities	62
2.10 Ethiopian Constitution on the Right to Education	68
2.10.1 Ethiopia’s constitutional rights.....	70
2.11 Inclusive Education in Ethiopia	71
2.12 ‘Education for All’ (EFA).....	77
2.13 Constraints on Implementing Inclusive Education	78
2.13.1 Lack of Parental and Community Involvement.....	78
2.13.2 School Facilities	80
2.13.3 School Management	82
2.13.4 Educational Policies	84
2.13.5 Teacher Gender Factors.....	87
2.13.6 Teachers’ Teaching Experiences	90
2.13.7 Large Class Size and Inclusive Education Practice.....	94
2.13.8 Attitudinal Barriers in Ethiopia	95
2.13.9 Teachers, Students, and Parents’ Knowledge and Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education.....	96
2.14 Major Strategies to Improve Inclusive Education.....	99
2.15 Conceptual Framework of the Study.....	102
2.16 Chapter Summary.....	103
CHAPTER THREE	105
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN	105
3.1 Introduction	105
3.2 Research Paradigm	106

3.2.1	Positivism.....	106
3.2.2	Constructivism	107
3.2.3	Pragmatism.....	108
3.3	Research Approach (Mixed Methods).....	110
3.4	Research Design (Sequential Explanatory Mixed Method Design)	111
3.5	Population and Sampling Techniques	113
3.6	Piloting the Instrument	115
3.7	Data Collection Techniques.....	116
3.7.1	Quantitative Data Collection Techniques.....	116
3.7.2	Qualitative Data Collection.....	120
3.7.3	Qualitative Research Strategies.....	124
3.8	Description of the research area	126
3.9	Data Analysis Techniques	127
3.9.1	Data Triangulation	129
3.10	Research Quality and Integrity.....	129
3.10.1	Validity Check	129
3.10.2	Reliability Check.....	130
3.11	Ethical Considerations	131
3.11.1	Permissions.....	131
3.11.2	Informed Consent	132
3.11.3	Confidentiality	132
3.11.4	Anonymity.....	133
3.12	Chapter Summary.....	133
CHAPTER FOUR.....	134	
DATA PRESENTATION, RESULTS AND FINDINGS	134	
4.1	Introduction	134
4.2	Participant Demographic Information	135
4.3	Quantitative Data Presentation and Analysis.....	139
4.3.1	Presentation and Analysis of Descriptive Data	139
4.3.2	Inferential Data Analysis.....	150
4.2	Qualitative Results.....	156
4.2.1	Background Information of the Principal Interviewees	156
4.2.2	Background Information of the Teacher Interviewees.....	157
4.3	Interview Results	158

4.3.1	Categorising the Interview data Collected form Principals and Teachers	158
4.3.1.1	Inclusive Education Knowledge.....	159
4.3.1.3	Inclusive Education Policy Implementation.....	164
4.4	The Observation Results.....	168
4.4.1	School Physical Structures in Study Areas	168
4.4.2	Classroom Setups for Inclusive Education Practice s	168
4.4.3	Teaching Methods and Challenges in the Classroom	169
4.5	Document Analysis in Inclusive Education.....	170
4.5.1	National and International policy plans on Inclusive education	171
4.6	Mixed Results Triangulation	174
4.6.1	Practical Realities of Inclusive Education in Secondary Schools	174
4.6.2	Strategies to Increase Inclusive Education Implementation.....	177
CHAPTER FIVE	179
DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS.....	179
5.1	Teachers’ and Students’ Extent of Inclusive Education Implementation.....	179
5.2	Existing status of Teachers’ and Students’ Knowledge and Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education Implementation	180
5.3	Inclusive Education Implementation Constraints and Challenges.....	181
5.3.1	Challenges at the School Level	181
5.3.2	Challenges at the Teacher Level	182
5.3.3	Parental and Community-level Challenges	183
5.3.4	Government-level Challenges	184
5.4	Poor Policy Implementation Implications	186
5.5	Tactics to Reduce Challenges in Implementing Inclusive Education.....	187
5.5.1	Offer Trainings.....	187
5.5.2	Financial Support	188
5.5.3	Commitments	189
5.6	Sex Differences in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Students and Teachers	190
5.7	Differences in Class Size in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Teachers.....	192
5.8	Differences in Work Experience in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Teachers.....	192
5.9	Strengths of the current study	195
5.10	Limitations of the Current Study.....	196

5.11 Chapter Summary.....	197
CHAPTER SIX	198
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION.....	198
6.1 Summary.....	198
6.2 Conclusion	200
6.3 Recommendations.....	201
6.3.1 Recommendations for Further Study	201
6.3.2 Recommendations for Governments, Schools, and Parents.....	201
I. Recommendations for Governments (MoE –Ethiopia)	202
II. Recommendations for Schools (Teachers and Principals)	202
III. Recommendations for Parents.....	203
References.....	204
Appendixes	241
Appendix A: Cover Letter for the Students’ Questionnaire.....	241
APPENDIX B: Questionnaires to be filled out by Students	242
APPENDIX C: Cover Letter for Teachers’ Questionnaire	245
APPENDIX D: Questionnaires to be filled by Teachers.....	246
APPENDIX E: Interview Questions	250
APPENDIX F: Observation Check List	251
APPENDIX G: Permission Letter.....	253
APPENDIX H: Ethical Clearance Certificate.....	254
APPENDIX I: Turnitin Report	256
APPENDIX J: Proof of Language Editing	257

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Data Analysis Techniques for each Research Question	129
Table 2: Cronbach's Alpha of the Questionnaire for Subsections	131
Table 3: Description of Student and Teacher participants' sex	136
Table 4: Description of Teacher and Student Participants Study Area Information	137
Table 5: Description of the Study Participants' Age	137
Table 6: Description of the Student Participants' Grade Level	138
Table 7: Description of the Education Level of Teacher Participants'	138
Table 8: Description of the Work Experience of Teacher Participants	139
Table 9: Item Mean Scores and Students' Responses on Inclusive Education Knowledge	139
Table 10: Item Mean Score and Students Responses on Inclusive Education Attitude	141
Table 11: Item Mean Scores and Students' Responses on Inclusive Education Policy Practice	143
Table 12: Item Mean Scores and Teachers' Response Regarding Inclusive Education Knowledge	144
Table 13: Item Mean Scores and Responses on Inclusive Education Attitudes	146
Table 14: Item Mean Scores and Teachers' Responses on Inclusive Education Policy Practice	148
Table 15: Independent Sample t-test Mean Comparison of Knowledge, Attitude and Policy Implementation across Sex	150
Table 16: Independent Sample t-test Mean Comparison of Teachers' Knowledge level, Attitude level and Policy Implementation across sex:	152
Table 17: One -way ANOVA Mean Comparison of Teachers' Service Years with Knowledge Level, Attitude Level and Policy Implementation Level to wards Inclusive Education	153
Table 18: One- way ANOVA Mean Comparison of Class size with Teachers Knowledge, Attitude and Policy Implementation level to wards Inclusive Education	155
Table 19: Socio Demographic Characteristics of Interviewees	157
Table 20: Themes and Subthemes of the Interviewed Qualitative Data	158
Table 21: International and National Policies, plans and Programmes	171

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Inclusive Education Development..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Figure 2: Flow chart of Implementing a Mixed Sequential Explanatory Design.....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Figure 3: Map of the Study area (Awi zone) **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
EAHCA	Individuals with Disability Education Act
EASNIE	European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education
EFA	Educational for All
ESDP-IV	Education Sector Development Programme Four
GEMR	Global Education Monitoring
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency virus
IDEA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act'
IE	Inclusive Education
IEP	Individualized Education Plan
ILO	International Labor Organization
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
METP	Ministry of Education and Training policy
MLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MMD	Mixed Research Design
MoE	Ministry of Education
NCSE	National Council for Special Education
NGO	None Governmental Organization
SNE	Special Needs Education
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UN	United Nation
UNCRPD	United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

ABSTRACT

Each child is entitled to an education in an environment tailored to their specific needs. This study determines students' and teachers' levels of knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation on inclusive education in secondary schools. In addition, the investigation identifies and pinpoints the barriers to inclusive education implementation in secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. A sequential explanatory mixed methods approach was employed to perform the study. Three variables of knowledge, attitude, and policy implementation in inclusive education were measured via a questionnaire, which was used to gather quantitative data. Supplementary information was collected through interviews, observations, and document analysis for qualitative data. Three secondary schools that corresponded to these six teachers and six principals were selected for interviews using the purposive sample approach. A total of 12 have been involved, four (2 principals and teachers) in each school. Likewise, teachers (N= 186) and students (N= 1001) were chosen using a basic random sample approach for quantitative data collection. To analyse quantitative data, descriptive and inferential statistics were used. This was manipulated using SPSS version 25 software. Based on the findings of the quantitative data independent t-test, female student groups performed better than male student groups across both variables in terms of inclusive education knowledge and attitude. However, when implementing inclusive education policies, men are more competent than women. Regarding teachers' knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations related to inclusive education, the results of the independent t-test indicate that there was no significant difference in teacher sex in the other scenario. Similar to this, the one-way ANOVA result demonstrates that the class size of students (30–40, 41–50, and above 50) and the teaching experience of teachers (1–10, 11–20, and above 21 years) have no significant difference in the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools. The qualitative findings revealed barriers to and challenges to the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools. Among these challenges, lack of training, budget allocation problems, low commitment for the field, principals, teachers, and parents' attitudinal problems, government body political intention, and principals' flying reports were the major challenges. Generally, this study found the issues of political will deficiency, infrastructure weakness, and preparedness deficiency. This implies and recommends that in-service and pre-service training should be given a lot of emphasis and that teachers need to be conversant in inclusive approaches. The realization that education is more inclusive if governments pay more attention to how and where resources and policies are targeted and implemented. This is complemented by the concept that there is much work to be done in educating parents about the rights and responsibilities of children with disabilities. These data pillars can be used to design targeted projects to promote inclusive education adoption in secondary schools across the country.

Key words: *Secondary School, Inclusive Education, Implementation, Class size, Work experience*

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction of the Study

This chapter presents the background to the study, the statement of the research problem, the purpose of the study, research aims, research questions, research objectives, rationale for the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitation of the study, and definition of the basic terms.

1.2 Background of the Study

The focus of this study is on the secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi administrative zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. Compared to primary schools in Ethiopia, and particularly within the Awi Zone, secondary schools provide less inclusive education. This discrepancy exists partly because, in response to the global need to satisfy the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), both government and nongovernmental groups have directed their attention toward elementary schools. As a result, the education sector development program (ESDP) is aggressively executed at the primary school level. However, this focus has contributed to social, structural, and institutional obstacles that impact secondary schools. Consequently, secondary school teachers lack specialized inclusive education or special needs education training. In addition, changes in policy have made the physical environment and technical developments less accessible for disabled youngsters in secondary schools than for those in newer elementary schools.

Most prior research was conducted at the elementary school level, with a methodological preference for qualitative approaches. This creates a notable gap, as the limited scope of these longitudinal studies restricts their applicability to secondary school settings. A further limitation is the absence of indigenous or spiritual theories or models that could inform research in this area.

That is why it is more focused on teachers' and students' knowledge, attitude, and policy implementation practice of inclusive education in government secondary schools.

The cultivation of critically needed and highly skilled professionals in education, which ultimately encourages profitability and eradicates hunger, illness, and apathy, makes learning a basic human right and an essential tool for fostering financial improvement, as well as in its entirety (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Division for Social Policy and Development, 2013). In this context, education systems encourage socioeconomic advancement in inclusive and democratic settings (MoE, 2012).

As highlighted by Gammarano (2019) low income or poverty is a threat to peace in the fast-globalising world with its massive economic gaps, where 60% of the world's population makes do on only six percent of its income, half of the world's population survives on two dollars per day, and over one billion people live on less than one dollar per day.

In fact, a primary factor affecting everyone's access to education is poverty, often together with other related problems, such as societal attitudes and illiteracy leading to exclusion. There is now a stronger emphasised priority on learners who are still out of education or who are somewhat challenging to accomplish, despite progress being made towards the 'Education for All' and 'Millennium Development Goals' (MDGs), as evidenced by the decline in the number of out-of-school children and rising registration rates (Abebe et al., 2023). As highlighted by Genovesi et al., (2024), according to the 'UNICEF' study from 2022, there were 240 million children with disabilities worldwide. Additionally, a greater focus is being given to many students and teens who go to school, but are not engaged in the learning process, and may not complete their fundamental education.

The number of primary school-aged children who are not enrolled is nearly 75 million worldwide. In this case, over 50% of the people in these areas are women. In ‘Sub-Saharan Africa’ and ‘South and West Asia’, seven out of ten people reside (Cole, 2019). Poverty and marginalisation are the main causes of exclusion in most countries. Children who reside in urban slums, rural areas, or other marginalised locations have fewer educational opportunities than other children (WHO, 2013).

One-third of all out-of-school children and children with disabilities are deliberately excluded from education. Among these vulnerable groups are HIV/AIDS patients, rural areas, linguistic minorities, children living on the street, and indigenous youngsters are among the other vulnerable groups (UNICEF, 2015). Gender plays a major determining role in each of these situations. Recently, in Ethiopia, 17.6% of the population lives with a disability. Of that group, 691,765 students face significant daily challenges in accessing a fundamental education. In modern times, educational inclusion has become an increasingly common idea and has gained legitimacy through numerous international conferences (Schiemer, 2017). As a result, several nations have adopted a structure protected by legislation and laws with measures to deal with special needs education. Only 2,300 of these students attend school, and they face a substantial risk of dropping out of school as result of low teacher preparedness (Zegeye, 2022 ; MOE, 2012 ; Wals, 2014).

These statistics are alarming, especially in view of the international convention recognising the right of youngsters with disabilities to receive quality education, the constitutional value of protecting individuals with disabilities, and the nation’s dedication to national special education programmes (ILO, 2013). Beyond these declarations and practices, it is crucial to establish laws to provide education for everyone, including children with disabilities, while taking into account the reality of primary educational environments

and the neighbourhoods in which they are located. It becomes clear that simply allowing students to study is insufficient. Action based on the conviction that inclusive education is about more than mere equality must be taken in Ethiopia to achieve real inclusive education practices (Akbar et al., 2023; Zegeye, 2022).

Consisting of the 2012 UNESCO document on quality education for all, which would be defined as "emphasis on children and adolescents who really are largely susceptible to reiteration and powerhouse because of literacy challenges, disabilities, socio-emotional enterprises, or who are barred from education," Ethiopia uses the expressions special requirements education and inclusive education (Abebe et al., 2023). Crucially, in line with Ethiopia's report on the state of out-of-school students, this proclamation identifies students with disabilities as a subgroup at risk of being left out; nevertheless, more explanation is needed to comprehend the precise definition of the word inclusiveness (The Global Fund for Emergencies, 2021)

In the 2020 'Global Education Monitoring Report' (GEMR), by identifying and eliminating obstacles to enrolment, engagement, and achievement for all students in inclusive schools, inclusiveness is characterised as "bringing an equivalent trade-off to school equipment." Understanding the difference between "inclusive practice" and "inclusive schooling" is essential to comprehending how educational systems serve all students and deal with diversity. While inclusive schooling refers to the organisational and policy-level dedication to include all students, inclusive practice concentrates on the everyday teaching strategies and classroom procedures that make the inclusion practical (Carrington et al., 2024).

Throughout this setting, inclusive education is no longer seen as genuinely placing students in ordinary classes without making the required adjustments to the instructional tool;

rather, it simply merges the two. Therefore, inclusion now encompasses more than simply admittance; it includes a "platform" for the "quality and excellence" of education (Woodcock et al., 2022).

The term "disability" has several definitions that include the idea of external impediments. According to the World Health Organisation (2013) definition of the term, there are "impairments, interest restrictions, and activity limitations" that interact with each other. In other words, a person's impairment interacts with the constraints placed on them by their physical or psychological environment (WHO, 2013).

In accordance with the 'International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities' (CRPD), which came into effect on May 3, 2008, the United Nations (2006) stated that persons with disabilities include human beings with chronic physical, mental or sensory disabilities who, particularly in conjunction with other variables, may be prevented from fully and effectively engaging in the community in an equal manner (UNCRPD, 2006).

As stated by the "Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs," there are an estimated 15 million young students, adults, and elderly people with disabilities worldwide, making up about 17.6% of the population. This estimation is based on a world document on disability that the World Bank and the World Health Organisation are targeting. The overwhelming numbers of persons with disabilities live in remote areas where access to basic services is constrained; 95% of all disabled people in Ethiopia are projected to live in poverty (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 2012). As a result, impairment becomes an issue in relationships with the community. This could lead to the community as a whole being "disabled" (Kiuppis, 2014).

The symposium on the ‘Rights of People with Disabilities and Handicap International’ reported this notion of impairments as a means of engaging with external constraints (Edwards, 2014; Kelly et al., 2013). This term clarifies the idea that once individuals with disabilities are removed from the educational system, the process of restriction itself affects them. This perspective highlights how excluding those students with disabilities from the educational niche prolongs their environmental and attitudinal and mental exclusion across time, in addition to restricting their immediate learning opportunities to flourish (Genovesi et al., 2024 ; Yorke et al., 2022).

By boosting engagement in schools, societies and cultures and reducing discriminatory behaviours inside and outside education, inclusion aims to address and respond to the various requirements faced by all students. With a shared vision that includes every child with special educational needs, including the idea that the regular system must provide quality education for all children Tefera (2014), it therefore encompasses a range of adjustments and alterations in content, methods, structures, and techniques. In this situation, flexibility and diversity must be the foundation of an inclusive school. This ought to be apparent in the organisation of the educational facility, the curriculum’s substance, as well as the mind-sets of the faculty, families and students, and the aim should be to provide each person with pertinent education (Slamanca statment, 1994).

The implementation of fair schooling at the international, national, or regional level has sped up efforts to re-examine the manner in which students are grouped for educational purposes, how educational institutions may set up further instruction, and how teachers may adapt the fundamental curriculum to include students with impairments (Goshu & Woldeamanuel, 2019). It is important to keep in mind that there was no specific place, period, or start while examining the development of comprehensive education’s direction,

components, and notable figures. Although the concept of appropriately acquiring information has no set time or location, advancements in this concept differ by nation based on the circumstances and elements that influence the surroundings (Srivastava et al., 2015).

Primarily, the origin of inclusion began in both the United States of America and Europe in the latter parts of the 1980s as a special education programme for students with disabilities. Learning facilities in these countries are shifting in tandem with teachers, parents, governments, and society as a whole, attempting to prepare for the innovative opportunities and challenges of the 21st century (EASNIE, 2013). African countries are also implementing egalitarian learning in some way. In this regard, the Department of Educational Affairs (DEA) in some countries has started providing children with special educational needs with equal and superior education. Giving classroom educators the appropriate training in inclusive instructional methods and special needs education is necessary to address the need for special needs classroom instruction teachers (Haihambo, 2010 ; Halder, 2023).

According to the Salamanca declaration in 1994, most countries in Africa, like Ghana, started implementing inclusive education initiatives, and research findings indicated that this presented a significant challenge to all countries and educators in adopting successful inclusive methods in Ghanaian school systems. More recent research, nevertheless, shows that for teachers all throughout the continent, particularly when it comes to aligning policy with teaching realities, adopting inclusive teaching strategies remains a significant challenge (Bour et al., 2025). As mentioned by Mergia (2020b), each curriculum of the country's current teacher training programme demonstrates how to integrate students who have a variety of requirements and skills into traditional teaching environments. Recent research indicates that in many countries, especially those in sub-Saharan Africa, integrating pupils with a variety of needs into mainstream classrooms is becoming an increasingly crucial

component of national teacher training curricula. Though the policy's aims still clash with the real substance and implementation of the program, there are still variations (Gedfie & Negassa, 2019).

White missionaries came to Ethiopia to establish and develop special education in the country (Price, 2018 ; MoE, 2012). During this time, the Ethiopian government authority was devoted to guaranteeing that every individual in the nation had the opportunity to study, regardless of their differences in sexuality, physical or mental handicap, language variety, economic and social concerns, position, spirituality, or other distinctions (Salamanca statement, 1994). The government acknowledges that education is a vital human right and an important means of attaining fair growth in society and in the country (Ainscow, 2020). The government has put a high priority on helping people with disabilities study and has created important legal and policy frameworks. Therefore, the government has authorised several international decrees, treaties, and legislation on special needs and disabilities (MoE, 2012).

Although activities in typical institutions of learning, including scholarly configuration, syllabus service, and personnel training, are beginning to be reformatted, inclusiveness in classrooms remains a source of concern. In an ordinary educational context, an equitable educational approach enables institutions to accommodate all students' diverse educational requirements. Moh. Rif'attullah & Ciptaningrum (2024) find that basic and in-service courses, which focus too much on theory rather than practice, do not prepare students with disabilities well enough to be included in South African schools. Likewise, Genovesi et al. (2022) show that in several African nations, including Ghana and South Africa, inclusiveness in education is still limited by large numbers of students, poor enforcement of policies, and a lack of resources, even with the availability of proposed changes such as friendly learning and the use of Universal Design for Learning. Respecting diversity and putting an emphasis

on developing settings that are sensitive to the various needs, possibilities, and skills of each individual are essential components of inclusive education (UNESCO, 2020). No matter the student's ethnicity, age, socioeconomic standing, or handicap, the learning experience ought to be created and carried out with that goal in mind (Scholz et al., 2016).

The manifestation that the application of inclusive education requires a prerequisite procedure, such as the main one getting ready suitable educators for implementing the principles of inclusion because there is evidence of challenges with the policies of inclusive instruction and its practice in offering an excellent education for all students in welcoming environments even promotes the inclusion of those who are most rejected in the case of impairment (Temesgen, 2021). The most challenging and important issue in the practice of inclusive education is the requirement of different teacher education models for the preparation of teachers who can teach in inclusive settings to address the diversity needs of all learners (Halder, 2023).

As evidenced by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education, Ethiopia never meets the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) if these units are the economically exploited and those who struggle with disabilities. Ethiopia's development goals, which include the "Education for All" and "Sustainable Development Goals" (SDG) pledges, have not yet been reached in part because students with disabilities and those who are poor are systematically excluded (MoE, 2016). There is widespread agreement that there is a link between income insecurity and disability, with disability serving as both a cause and consequence of poverty (Kelly et al., 2013). Accordingly, not only individuals but also Ethiopia's progress has been affected by this issue. For people with disabilities to be given the chance to contribute to Ethiopia's progress, it is vital that adjustments be made to the educational system and social structure to allow for their association with peers as teachers (Walton, 2017).

Ethiopia has a long history of advancing inclusive education through the approval and ratification of various local and global frameworks. This commitment began with the 1995 constitution of Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE), where Article 41(5) established a foundational principle: the right to equality and the protection of marginalised groups.

Building on this, the 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) formally acknowledged the need for special education, setting a national precedent for meeting the academic needs of children with disabilities. This was followed by the 2006 Inclusive Education Strategy (IES), which specifically required schools to incorporate inclusive policies into their regular curriculum.

From 2015 to 2020, the Education Sector Development Program V (ESDP V) worked to operationalize inclusive education by identifying and correcting persistent gaps in practice. This national effort was bolstered in 2010 when Ethiopia ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), cementing inclusive education as a key component of national educational reform and aligning the country with global human rights standards (MoE, 2015).

1.3 Problem Statement

Ethiopia has made an ambitious effort to implement inclusive education nation-wide. “Ethiopian Ministry of Education” MoE (2012) developed an education strategy called the ‘Education Sector Development Programme Four’ (ESDP-IV), offering emphasis to practice inclusive education. The Ethiopian “Ministry of Education and Training policy (METP)” promotes essential, outstanding education for every learner, regardless of their sexuality, daily life circumstances, mental health status, impairments, disorders, ability to learn, stage of

achievement, financing circumstances, or any other extra-limiting circumstances (Mergia, 2020a).

As Howgego et al. (2014) illustrated, the primary objective of inclusive education relies on educational institutions' capacity to recognise and address the unique educational needs and rights of each learner. The goal of inclusive learning is to go beyond only emphasising connecting to and learning how to boost meaningful involvement and participation in the educational process (Sharma et al., 2023).

According to the concept of inclusive education, each student should be enabled to receive education on a foundation of merit, with a focus on skills instead of weaknesses. This implies that teachers can instruct a group of students while using their differences to the benefit of everyone in the group (Webb-Williams, 2021). Therefore, it is necessary to identify special requirements for each student in the class to help each student individually in accordance with their particular requirements (Schiemer, 2017). Societal persuasion of individuals with disabilities has a substantial impact on inclusion practice (Perkins, 2020). The word or notion of disability is frequently associated with immorality, poor spirit, or a curse from God in Ethiopia. Therefore, individuals who look after or interact with students with impairments are usually stereotyped and susceptible to unfair treatment (Sabates et al., 2024 ; Triviño-Amigo et al., 2022).

Although Ethiopia's 1994 manual on "Education and Training Policy" and the "MoE" special conditions education strategy opened seminaries to scholars with disabilities, deep-rooted societal attitudes remained unchanged, and numerous children remained at home (Tefera, 2018). According to Ethiopia's research study on the situation of school children MoE (2012) ; UNISCO (2020) with more than 250 native languages, 80 separate ethnic groups, and a diverse spectrum of ideologies, it is feasible that different cultural concepts of

disability in general and attitudes towards people with disabilities may arise (MoE, 2012; UNICEF, 2013).

As a result, the original landscape must be considered while addressing knowledge and attitudinal hurdles and providing assistance when necessary (Bezyak et al., 2017). Their refusal (or inability) to enrol them in a school may be due to a number of factors ILO (2014), such as the stigma associated with parents of disabled children, community support, the inability of mainstream seminaries to include them, and distance from seminaries that provide accommodations for disabled children (Hayes & Bulat, 2017).

Parents may be concerned that their children will burden teachers and have a detrimental influence on other children's education, fail to see the rationale for education for their students, or simply lack a strategy for their success. Plus, teachers' potential and parents' active involvement impact inclusive education success (Tsfaye & Hailu, 2024)

Civic special seminaries will undoubtedly be seen as the sole choice for impaired children until ordinary seminaries can provide well-resourced imbibing environments for children, and parents will become more wary of these possibilities (Đurišić & Bunijevac, 2017). However, if parents desire to send their children to an academy, their options may be limited due to the civic standing of the country's top special seminaries (MoE, 2016). Furthermore, if parents choose to send their child to a distant special academy with boarding facilities, the likelihood that they will play an important role as attorneys for their children's education is reduced (Burningham et al., 2024).

Although preceptors are immune to society's values, they might nonetheless influence how they conduct their teaching may try to behave apart from current social mores, which

can affect their expectations, educational decisions, and attitudes about kids with impairments, occasionally supporting discriminatory practices (Mesfin & Teferra, 2021).

For seminars to be effective, platforms for parents and teachers are essential (Dagnew, 2013). The core of this issue lies in the perceptions and attitudes towards children with impairments. A study showed that when Ugandan teachers participated in an inclusive education programme, they were more concerned with their own abilities to teach than with the needs of students with disabilities (USDC, March 2017; Mitchell, 2017). This is not intended to minimise preceptors' concerns about the abilities of disabled children but to emphasise how important it is to consider preceptors' perceptions of themselves and the ways in which low-tone confidence or even a lack of knowledge about disabilities may contribute to the rejection of inclusive education plans (MoE, 2012, and UNESCO, 2012).

To provide academy and classroom alternatives for students with disabilities, establishing successful inclusive practices requires a set of behavioural conditioning and relationships on the part of various experts, including headliners and preceptors. According to the preceptors' positions, the scope of their expertise and the circumstances surrounding inclusive education practices, conditioning and relationship-making perpetrated and teachers, roles, degree of professional competence, and general environment of operation all affect the success of inclusion initiatives. As recent Ethiopian research stresses, the growth of inclusive classrooms is much dependent on the interpersonal interactions, shared values, and ongoing relationships established between teachers, management, and support personnel (Tesfaye & Hailu, 2024).

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Primary Research Questions

The aforementioned topic identifies the particular problem or issue that the work was addressing.

The primary research question underpinning this study is as follows:

- What is the secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in Awi Administrative Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia?

1.3.2 Secondary Research Questions

The following secondary research questions were explored:

1. To what extent is inclusive education practiced in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
2. What are the constraints on inclusive education practices in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
3. What measures have been taken to improve the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
4. What are the knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation of teachers and students regarding inclusive education practices in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
5. Is there any significant difference in the implementation of inclusive education in the Awi zone?

By

- ✓ Teachers' and students' sexes
- ✓ Number of students/class sizes
- ✓ Teachers' service years/work experience/

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of this investigation is to assess the status of secondary school inclusive education implementation practices in Awi administrative zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

The following points were raised as specific objectives for the current investigation of the implementation of inclusive secondary school education in the Awi administrative zone, Ethiopia.

- To assess the level of secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi zone.
- To identify the major constraints of inclusive secondary education implementation practice in the Awi zone.
- To improve and tackle barriers to inclusive education implementation practice in a secondary school setting in the Awi zone.
- To identify students' and teachers' levels of knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation regarding secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi zone.
- To determine if there is a statistically significant difference in the secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi zone.

By

- ✓ Teachers' and students' sex
- ✓ Number of students/class sizes
- ✓ Teachers' service years /teaching experience

1.5 Rationale for the Study

The general purpose of this study was to provide an analysis and assessment of the recent knowledge, attitude, and policy implementations of inclusive education in the Awi zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. This and similar studies in the current study area, according to the researcher's extensive review search, were not conducted. However, related research has been conducted in elementary school settings throughout the country. Furthermore, it also signifies that students, teachers, as well as parents and policymakers in the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia, also have an abridged hint to build an inclusive culture and education in its place. In principle, all learners with disabilities should be placed in age-appropriate inclusive education classrooms with support provided to students and teachers to enable them to be successful. Generally, the investigator is eager to know the causes and reasons for the barriers to the 'implementation of inclusive education' and the policy adjustments of the Ethiopian education system in secondary schools as well.

1.6 Research Methodology and Design

According to Tosoni & Zuccalà (2020), to find answers to research questions or test hypotheses, research methodology is an organised, scientific process for gathering, analysing, and interpreting data that can be either quantitative or qualitative, as well as a combination of the two. A research technique helps researchers stay on track by restricting the scope of the study, much like a strategy for conducting research. As described by Dawadi et al. (2021), when choosing an acceptable research approach, several factors must be considered, including potential ethical issues and study limitations.

With regard to the choice of the Explanatory Sequential Design, in the view of Creswell (2022), the Explanatory Sequential Design (ESD) is characterised by its two distinct phases: a quantitative phase followed by a qualitative phase. The primary purpose of this design is to use the initial quantitative findings to inform and direct a more in-depth qualitative

exploration. The process begins with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, which can include surveys or experimental results. Once the researcher has a clear understanding of these numerical outcomes, the qualitative phase is initiated. This second phase typically involves gathering qualitative data through methods like interviews, focus groups, or observations. The key is that the qualitative data is collected specifically to help explain, interpret, or elaborate on the quantitative results. For example, if a survey shows an unexpected statistical correlation, the qualitative interviews would be designed to explore why that correlation exists from the participants' perspectives. Creswell emphasises that this two-step process allows researchers to first test a hypothesis or get a broad picture and then dive deep to understand the nuances and underlying reasons behind the initial findings, providing a comprehensive and well-rounded explanation.

Therefore, for this investigation, an explanatory sequential research design begins with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, moves on to the acquisition and investigation of qualitative data, and concludes with interpretations. Generally, this part consists of the research approach, population and sampling, instrumentation and data collection techniques, and data analysis and interpretation of the study.

1.7.1 Research Approach

The study employed a mixed methodology to achieve its purpose and goals. Thus, a mixed research design (MMD) combines quantitative and qualitative research methods for a deeper understanding, a wide range of evidence and support, and recognition of the use of various methodologies in addressing research topics (Guetterman & Fetters, 2018). In this research, integrating the findings from both quantitative and qualitative approaches is the primary goal. The use of a mixed technique is justified by the fact that it enables the researcher to obtain a thorough understanding of the issue and to corroborate quantitative findings with qualitative results (Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, 2018).

To better understand inclusive education practices in secondary schools, a combination of quantitative and qualitative study methods was used, and relationship-building and conditioning will occur. Effective inclusion depends on the ability to investigate not just quantifiable patterns but also the interpersonal dynamics and behavioural modifications, including cooperation and conditioning, made possible by this design. (Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, 2018 ; Tesfaye & Hailu, 2024). The approach selected for the inquiry was that the quantitative phase was carried out first and important findings and results emerged from the data analysis. After analysing the findings, gaps and results were found. These results provided a starting point—or benchmark—for the qualitative phase's design. By choosing individuals who were most directly related to the identified problems in the quantitative data, the qualitative phase aimed to fill these gaps. This method produced richer, context-specific insights and guaranteed a greater comprehension of the issue.

According to Creswell et al., (2006), cited in Morgan (2017), the goal of employing qualitative data is to define, elaborate, or explain the big picture of the research issue. This design demonstrates the procedure for gathering and analysing quantitative data before qualitative data. To support the quantitative findings, supporting interpretations based on the qualitative data were collected. This indicates that the explanation and interpretation of the findings of the quantitative data are supported by the qualitative results (Creswell, 2014). These qualitative data were used in relation to the quantitative data analysis to further explain or elaborate on the findings (Keating, 2016). The significant, non-significant, ambiguous, and surprising outcome of the quantitative data is explained by the qualitative data. To satisfy the study objectives, qualitative data were presented after quantitative data.

1.7.2 Population, Sampling and Sampling Techniques

The total population of this study were secondary school students from Chagni town Hidase secondary school, 1338 (M = 605 and F = 733) and teachers 128 (M = 92 and F = 36);

from Dangila town Mengesha Jembere secondary school, 2,600 (M = 1397 and F = 1203) and teachers 145 (M = 99 and F = 46); from Injibara town Agew Midir secondary school, 2606 (M = 1383 and F = 1223); and teachers 153 (M = 96 and F = 57), respectively. From this figure, the total population of the study was 6,544 students, and 426 teachers were considered. In addition, two from each school, for a total of six principals and six teachers, were purposefully selected. To collect data about social behaviours, systems as a whole, incidents and individuals during the research, a representative sample was chosen from the broader community based on shared features. Individuals who fit specific criteria and offer pertinent information during concentrated conversations to further comprehend the subject matter with broader characteristics (Luciani et al., 2019).

To select samples from the population, the following sampling techniques were used: First, districts were chosen, and then schools and participants were selected using appropriate sampling techniques procedures. The researcher's aim and rationale for selecting the site and title are first, and no studies have been conducted in this area on the topic. Second, the researcher's familiarity with the study area and the best accessibility would facilitate the data collection processes. Third, to minimise the economic and time constraints in collecting data, the method should be specific. The rationales for students were included in the sample because they are the primary beneficiaries of inclusive education policies and practices. Their first-hand experiences, perceptions, and feedback offer crucial insights into how effectively inclusive education is being implemented at the classroom and school level. Understanding students' sense of belonging, academic participation, and social inclusion allows for a more comprehensive evaluation of implementation outcomes.

1.7.3 Instrumentation and Data Collection Techniques

Obtaining, compiling, and analysing data from selected sources is the pragmatic emphasis of this section of the research. To provide potential responses to the study inquiries, the research looks for detailed, pertinent knowledge that respondents provide via interaction and teamwork. The approaches used by the investigator are determined by the goals of the investigation and the issues to be addressed (Ponce et al., 2022 ; Atkins & Wallace, 2012). The investigator collected data using the analysis of questionnaires, documents, and comprehensive semi-structured interviews. Validating the data gathered from all sources was the goal of the triangulate approach (Almalki, 2016). Generally, to collect relevant data, the researcher has employed an adapted and self-developed questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, observation checklists, and document analysis.

1.7.3.1 Questionnaire

This study utilised a self-report questionnaire containing demographic data about participants' gender, age, educational level, living areas, class size, teaching experience, and Likert questionnaires related to inclusive education knowledge, attitude, and policy

1.7.3.2 Interview

This technique for gathering data is employed in qualitative investigations and permits in-person spoken conversations that probe the subject of the interview's engagement with the investigator (Skovdal & Cornish, 2015 ; Sniukas, 2020). A one-on-one interview with semi-structured questions allowed immediate interaction to obtain data. The investigator provided an explanation of the investigation's objectives, rationale for choosing, and selection criteria during each interview. This made it easier for the participants to comprehend the purpose of the research and gave them the confidence to engage constructively by sharing their thoughts, emotions, and experiences. The planned inquiries progressed from broad to flexible and were probed to obtain comprehensive or in-depth

information (Skovdal & Cornish, 2015). To allow participants to freely share their ideas, emotions, and observations, open-ended inquiries were employed. To increase thoroughness, viewpoints, and independent thinking, questions about vague and brief answers were followed up with more detailed responses (Sharan et al., 2019).

Asking incisive questions elicited more information and clarity about respondents' backgrounds, sentiments, and opinions, as well as their expertise and replies in many employment sectors (Sharan et al., 2019). Using the interviewing instructions, the investigator evaluated the respondents' views, thoughts, concepts, implications, definitions of the circumstances, and constructions of actuality (Braun & Clarke, 2023).

Each intervention lasted approximately one hour; follow-up sessions, as required by the researcher, were communicated and arranged with the school. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in this study to gather supportive and in-depth information about the inclusive education practice of secondary school sites. For the interview guide, homeroom teachers and principals were included in the session.

1.7.3.3 Document Analysis

In order to prevent any misunderstandings, the investigator carefully examined the school records in order to critically analyse, appraise, and draw judgments based on the documentation's information that was accessible (Fusch et al., 2018). The evidence provided by the interviewees and observations was verified by reviewing the documents. The examined papers included welcome diversity policies, policies for schools, regulatory structures, and policies related to education. International and national documents such as legal frameworks, special education guidebooks, teacher development documents, and policy frameworks were assessed.

1.7.4 Data Analysis and Interpretation

To analyse, interpret, and in the presence of the data collected from the respondents, the data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. To perform the analysis, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 25) was used.

The following methods were used to examine the study's qualitative data: The replies from the compiled respondents were first typed. The transcripts were then organised, summarised, and divided into themes. Second, to realise the findings of the qualitative analysis and present them under each research question, significant and thorough thoughts provided by particular respondents regarding fundamental themes were recognised, summarised, and coded. Third, both the original and condensed data were provided to an outsider for comparison, and comments on any fundamental concepts were missed.

The external person would be a secondary school teacher who is actively engaged in the teaching profession and who works in a school other than the sample schools. This would be a conflict of interest because the teacher could be a participant. In addition, it would be necessary to identify a researcher instead of a teacher because this process would require specialised knowledge and skills.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study has made a beneficial contribution to the field of inclusive education in Ethiopia, specifically in the Awi nationality zone, especially in relation to parent, student, and teacher involvement in inclusion, and it has added significant data in this area. This research can also serve as a reference for curriculum developers, decision-makers, and educational planners, providing them with points of reference to incorporate into their future development strategies to fill in the gaps in the delivery of inclusive educational services. It provides the ability for secondary school instructors, students, and other stakeholders to deliver significant instruction on the gaps identified by the results of the investigation.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

This study had some potential time and financial limitations in conducting interviews and filling out the questionnaire because of time constraints during the teaching–learning process; furthermore, the current situation in Ethiopia, especially the Amhara region, has been under a state of emergency (command post). For almost two years, schools in this region have been closed by the armed forces in conjunction with the government. Somehow, there was a challenge in collecting the questionnaires over a specified time frame. Due to these and other constraints, the researcher focused on the Awi zone and only selected secondary schools.

1.10 Delimitation of the Study

This study was conducted in the Awi administrative zone, which is the capital of Injibara, an Amhara regional state, Ethiopia. The Awi zone’s relative location is in the south-western part of the region and the north-western part of the county. It is approximately 447 km away from the capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, and 118 km from Bahir Dar, the capital city of the Amhara region. This study was conducted in selected public secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone. The administrative zone has 12 districts with 44 secondary schools. This study, however, focuses on three purposefully selected secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone. Regarding the selection of schools, the three schools were selected for thorough and in-depth data collections. They are model schools that do better than other schools in the area in many ways, such as infrastructure, township development, and the use of new technologies and policies implemented”.

1.11 Definitions of Key Terms

Significant core concepts are among the most common study’s pivotal points, which are vital. This affords the researcher the opportunity to give those reading it an intellectual

grasp of the key terms employed in the inquiry, which is logical and clear. The term inclusion, inclusive education, special needs education, inclusive policy, and implementation are described here, with a brief description of each content. Key definitions of terms are a pillar that guides the reader to conceptualise the paper accordingly.

- **Inclusiveness:** The idea of social inclusion is about actively identifying and removing the barriers and difficulties students encounter when seeking increased opportunities for excellent schooling. This technique helps remove barriers that prevent learners from showing up, getting involved, and achieving (Schuelka, 2012 ; Schuelka, 2012; Schuelka et al., 2020).
- **Inclusive education:** a procedure for enhancing the involvement of all students, especially those with impairments and acknowledging differences, in education. To promote every student's participation in schools, especially those with disabilities, inclusive education strives to alter educational traditions, policies, and processes to suit all groups of nearby learners. Many potentially disenfranchised youngsters who are still unable to enrol in school can now have access to learning opportunities (Abate, 2019 ; Schiemer, 2017).
- **Students with special needs:** Learners with disabilities and extra-ordinary learning needs in special needs education refers to the range of provisions for learners with disabilities, impairments, or socio-emotional difficulties as that of learners' needs and potential. These may include everything from special schools to special classes, to inclusive education (MoE, 2012).
- **Practice:** In this study, the notion of inclusive education practice comprises the totality of events in the teaching-learning situation in secondary school settings, in the way of exercising the concept and act of inclusive education. The concept of education practice involves the entire process of imparting knowledge to assist

students to be successful in schools. This implies that education practice involves the development of students' performance by generating their potential in the learning environment (Alemu, 2023 ; Ayanwale et al., 2022).

- **Implementation:** To change the public's understanding, behaviours and mind-sets, implementing a curriculum requires substantial activities from numerous stakeholders. This involves collaboration between those responsible for developing the plan and the individuals conducting the plan. It necessitates changing one's routines, behaviours, curriculum emphasis, learning setting and current timetables and curriculum. The delivery of equitable education opportunities in secondary schools is the focus of this investigation (Kefallinou et al., 2020 ; Tadesse & Kenea, 2022).
- **Inclusive Policy Issues:** With the goal of ensuring equitable treatment in schooling, a welcoming approach can be described as a necessary instrument that must be applied in the context of a larger campaign against violations of human rights and unfair bias. Policies implementation regarding special needs education/Inclusive Education/by giving "Education for all" (Tonegawa, 2019).
- **Public Secondary school:** The definition of "Secondary school" differs depending on the educational system; however, in Ethiopia, the term refers to the upper elementary period of education. Following elementary or basic education, secondary school begins with a subsequent stage of knowledge acquisition that is comparable to secondary schooling. The secondary school stage of education is intended to serve as a bridge between compulsory and comprehensive elementary education and higher levels of study (Rajendra Dhoj Joshi & Adriaan Verspoor, 2012 ; Goshu & Woldeamanuel, 2019). Thus, a state-owned school with students in grades 9 and 12 is the subject of this investigation.

1.12 Chapter Division

CHAPTER 1: Introduction and Background

This section elaborates on the background, problem statement, research questions, objectives, rationale of the study, frameworks, limitations, and delimitations of the study, and definition of terms (operational definitions).

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review

This section outlines research on the advancement of inclusive education in both global and national settings, as well as the methods employed to realise and evaluate the objectives established in the Ethiopian educational system. It also provides a scholarly review of the available literature on the topic. Additionally, it provides information and sources pertinent to each aim of the chosen research methodology.

CHAPTER 3: Research Methods

This section provides a thorough explanation of the research methodology. This section provides a detailed description of the study design, focusing on the investigation framework, approach, and research type. The data collection and analysis processes, tools, and techniques are all part of the study methodology. An in-depth discussion of the reliability and ethical concerns surrounding the research population and participants illuminated how secure the investigation was for all participants.

CHAPTER 4: Data Presentation and Analysis

This section presents and analyses data collected from the participants of the study. Thematically, quantitative and qualitative data were analysed to fit the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 5: Discussion

This section more specifically discusses similar and opposite findings related to the current study findings, which are captured in the literature review section.

CHAPTER 6: Summary and Conclusions

The last section offers an overview of the investigation, generates interpretations depending on the analysis and interpretation of data, offers recommendations, indicates domains for additional investigation, restrictions, and ultimate concluding remarks regarding the entire investigation, and suggests actions depending on the results of the investigation.\

1.13 Conclusion

This study aims to assess the implementation of inclusive secondary school education in the Awi administrative zone of Amhara National State, Ethiopia. This section encompassed a summary of the introduction, investigation background information, meaning, goals, investigation questions, purposes, justification, and research problem, as well as section summaries that helped evaluate the application of inclusive learning in secondary schools.

In the modern paradigm shift, differentiated instruction helps learners achieve objectives through different academic levels and learning styles. Among these, a new modern paradigm of inclusive education is the opinion philosophy that seeks to include all learners from different cultural, social, and political backgrounds. This study aims to assess inclusive education implementation practices in secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone with regard to the Ethiopian education policy.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The general objective of this study is to assess the status of secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi Zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia.

The literature review covers previous research in journals, books, policy documents, and observations. It must be ensured that the gaps and scarcity of information regarding the study issues are addressed in general and specific study locations. While the first chapter outlined the problem and its context, this chapter reviewed related local and international literature on the implementation and practice of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone.

The literature is presented under the following subheadings derived from the research questions and objectives: the extent of the implementation and practice of inclusive education, constraints or challenges to implementing inclusive education, teachers and students' knowledge, attitude and policy implementation on inclusive education, measures taken to implement inclusive education and identify gender differences, teachers' teaching experience and class size effects on the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools. In addition, it focused on the Ethiopian policy and legislation for the implementation of inclusive education in schools. Other related and supportive literature has been incorporated with the above pillar research variables.

2.12 Theoretical Framework of the Study

Comprehend the factors influencing the implementation of inclusive education in secondary education institutions; this study derives its theoretical framework from the widely recognised theorising of the Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). The model posits that various levels of interconnected systems can impact a student's or

child's life, and the individual's or student's improvement. It characterises educational growth as centred around intricate, causative processes connected with various types of transformations, such as transitioning from an exclusive educational environment to an inclusive one (Morris, 2015). This previously mentioned framework emphasises the interplay between how a person develops and the systems found in a smaller to larger social setting, or the surroundings. These systems include the household, schools, or community of peers as the microsystems; the connections that arise and persist between these microsystems as the mesosystem; the exosystem, which refers to a setting in which the student is not a personally engaged player but still has an impact on the student's life and connections with others; and the macrosystem, which is the set of mind-sets, views, and principles that compose the network of a specific culture and society and which could impact or be affected by any of the previously mentioned networks (Trang Thu et al., 2022) .

The components of these frameworks interplay with a chronosystem (the developmental periods), which includes the individual or the child, as described by (Bartolo et al., 2021) . To clarify the concerns and offer options for the application of inclusive learning in secondary education settings, the Bronfenbrenner ecological model's description of the different facets or stages of student growth as the primary focus of consideration is essential for the investigation and analysis of the results of the research.

The present study, which examines the enactment of secondary schools' inclusive education implementation practices in the Awi administrative zone of the Amhara region, Ethiopia, uses the framework as an instrument to serve as the foundation for the research reports and results.

The microsystem, ecosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem are some of the layers of interconnected structures that the framework proposes may have an impact on a child's life, either directly or indirectly. Because comprehensive learning involves the

creation of interconnected systems, the Bronfenbrenner paradigm enables researchers to investigate it comprehensively. Bronfenbrenner sees children as a dynamic instrument with a variety of traits, including personality traits, temperament, and motivation, rather than focusing on the external elements that influence development (Malahlela, 2017).

2.2.1 The Microsystem

Bronfenbrenner's (1994) generic ecological model refers to the immediate atmosphere in which proximal processes—specific interactions between an organism and its surroundings—take place, or the connection among a growing individual and the people around them, including their family, classmates, and school (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). It is a pattern of roles, interactions, and events that an emerging individual experiences in a specific face-to-face setting with specific physical and material features, along with other people who have different temperaments, personalities, and systems of thought (Härkönen, 2013).

This pertains to the community at large, family members, or educational institutions (Duerden & Witt, 2010). Finding out how much educators believe comprehensive learning is necessary was the goal of this study, especially given their direct experience in traditional educational settings where they often work with different students (Muliati, 2016).

2.2.2 Mesosystem Ecological Model

It also includes the connections and activities that occur among multiple environments, which include individuals who are developing, such as the connections and interactions among the work environment and education or between the home and the classroom, indicating that an ecosystem is a system of microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

The above implies the connections that form and exist among the microsystems (the family members, the educational institution, and the other members of the group) and how they communicate with one another. An educator who pays attention and cares and has an upbeat disposition regarding delivering equitable education can create an encouraging

atmosphere for students from an unsupportive family or home who may be more prone to experiencing obstacles to learning. Eventually, this beneficial atmosphere can help students feel more secure and confident in themselves (Temesgen, 2021). This stage of advancement helped the current study understand the different ways in which teachers in commonplace secondary educational institutions see the effective implementation of equitable education, particularly in building strong relationships among themselves and the diverse student body, working with parents of students who face learning obstacles, and providing the assistance these students need.

2.2.3 Exosystem Ecological Model

This entails a setting in which the learner influences other people's lives and relationships while not being a direct or active participant (Gadella Kamstra, 2024). Stated differently, it involves the relationships and interactions that occur between two or more contexts, at least one of which does not typically include the growing individual but in which things happen that affect the processes in the proximate contexts where that individual is present (Härkönen, 2013).

The strength of the relationship between parents and connections and other proximal relationships, such as peer groups, can be impacted by several factors, including the school system, medical care, media outlets, community-based organisations, and parents' place of employment. A child who is chronically unwell and regularly absent from school may experience negative effects on his relationships with his parents, classmates, teachers, and school when receiving inadequate health treatments, Lynch et al., (2011) ; Duerden & Witt, (2010) the study's establishment of educators' perspectives on numerous difficulties that have the potential to impact their instructional and educational processes was guided by the exosystem.

2.2.4 Macrosystem Ecological Model

The strength of the relationship between parents and connections and other proximal connections, such as peer groups, can be impacted by several factors, including the school system, medical care, media outlets, community-based organisations, and parents' place of employment. A child who is chronically unwell and regularly absent from school may experience negative effects on his relationships with his parents, classmates, teachers, and school when receiving inadequate health treatments (Anderson et al., 2014). The study's establishment of educators' perspectives on numerous difficulties that have the potential to impact their instructional and educational processes was guided by the exosystem.

The term "macrosystem" has recently been redefined, as stated by Härkönen (2013), to include the general arrangement of the micro, meso, and exo-system features that define a specific civilisation, subsistence, or other larger social environment, with special reference to the resources, dangers, possibilities for buildings, possibilities for life's journey, and routines of social exchange that are ingrained in each of these frameworks. The topmost layer of Bronfenbrenner's ecological model served as the basis for the current study, which sought to determine if gender variations in beliefs, values, and ideologies regarding the execution of equitable learning settings between male and female teachers affected how they perceived how it is carried out.

2.2.5 Chronosystem Ecological Model

This developmental timeline spans the interactions and effects of various systems on a person, which in turn interact with the developmental phases that a child experiences as they mature (Kamenopoulou, 2016). The teacher must be aware that, despite their hectic schedule of engaging with diverse students in the classroom and school setting, these students are also actively involved in their own growth and have unique perspectives on their surroundings.

According to Gadella Kamstra (2024), "how people perceive their situations determines how they respond to their human and physical settings." The goal of the current study was to determine how educators perceived the current age, in which inclusive education is both highly favoured and necessary for the full development of different learners in ordinary secondary education institutions.

2.3 Definition of Inclusive Education

According to UNESCO (2005), in response to the diversity of students, inclusive instruction aims to increase student involvement and decrease exclusion from both within and outside the classroom. It has to do with each student's presence, involvement, and academic success, particularly those who have been discriminated against or excluded for various reasons or who have particular requirements.

In the statements of Reyes et al., (2023) additionally, they expressed their belief that inclusive education is a process of changing beliefs and educational institutions to guarantee that all children receive suitable and high-quality education in conventional classrooms. Because of this, inclusion involves more than just placing special needs students in mainstream classrooms. To fulfil the needs of all children and ensure that each student, including those with specific requirements, receives access to every aspect of education.

Similarly, as evidenced by George (2022) in the guideline on inclusion, the essence of inclusion lies not in differentiation but rather in the multiplicity of instructional offerings and the customization of shared educational activities to maximise student involvement while considering their unique requirements. This means moving towards a universal design for learning in which the course of study and the method of instruction and learning take into account the variety of demands that each student experiences from the outset. Therefore, it is crucial for educators to create a classroom atmosphere that is supportive of all students and

ensure that they can effectively participate in the process of learning and teaching (Rodriguez, 2019; Burgstahler, 2021).

According to Hayes & Bulat (2017a) suggest that the foundation of engaging, inclusive schooling is allowing all students to participate in all aspects of school life—learning, assisting, and having fun—by allowing them to participate in normal courses in schools that are suitable for their respective ages. Developing and designing educational facilities, activities and programmes in a way that all students can participate in group learning is another aspect of accessible education. All children, whether visible or concealed, severe or mildly disabled, are accepted at these types of schools. Various studies have demonstrated the influence of students' disability quality and severity on instructors' inclusion views (Epstein, 2018 ; Blake, 2023).

Most academics believe that learning is an important human right and that it lays the groundwork for a more productive society. Because of this, everyone engages in school without facing any form of prejudice (Elfert, 2021). We must define and implement inclusive learning if we are to implement such a system of learning. This further emphasis by Assefa et al.,(2021) has noted that educational inclusion is defined as a growth-oriented approach in education that aims to address the learning needs of all children, youth, and adults, with a particular focus on those who are susceptible to discrimination and rejection.

Prejudice is known as a start-up factor for inclusive learning. A plan of action examines ways to alter educational environments and processes to accommodate a diverse range of students (Mergia, 2020a). As defined by an alternative trainer, inclusion learning is a concept that unites students, parents, teachers, and community members to establish classrooms. The notion of universal schooling was strengthened by the explanation provided in "Salamanca statement (1994) Article 7." According to the text, "...irrespective of any challenges or disabilities, every child ought to learn jointly wherever feasible."

Recognising and meeting the distinctive requirements of the students they serve, inclusive educational institutions must provide outstanding education for all children by utilising suitable curricula, systems of governance, and methods of instruction. They must also accommodate students' different learning styles and speeds. An additional social structure founded on social trust and connection (Dalton et al., 2012).

In terms of the meaning of inclusive education, it usually entails modifications in educational approaches, frameworks, and techniques, along with a shared vision that encompasses all children within the right age group and the belief that this is the conventional system's duty to impart knowledge to every child. According to explanations of inclusive schooling, understanding its guiding principles is essential because they provide a structure and method for implementing inclusive methods. These characteristics serve as a structure and encapsulate the beliefs underpinning inclusive education (Rutberg & Bouikidis, 2018).

Initially, inclusive cohesive learning settings in school settings, irrespective of racial/linguistic origins, financial standing, race, type of learning, racial or cultural origin, spirituality, familial makeup, or sexual orientation, boost the learning process for every student (Mwajabu & Joseph, 2017). Every student is welcomed, acknowledged, validated, and celebrated in inclusionary educational institutions, which educate them in a manner appropriate for their age and provide regular schooling of superior quality at nearby schools. Every student has the opportunity to engage in interpersonal, leisure, and academic pursuits and study and engage together. These inclusive practices respect variety and are tailored to each person's requirements; they also foster approval, ownership, and teamwork (Sanger & Gleason, n.d.).

The subsequent paradigm is each requirement; to effectively include people, it is important to be aware of and accept each individual's distinctive requirements and characteristics. Teachers cannot effectively instruct students if they do not consider the

variables that define and distinguish them from other students. For example, racial and ethnic backgrounds, sex, and financial circumstances all impact how well students perform academically and socially. Consequently, teachers, students, and close relatives should be cognisant of every student's distinct requirements and disparities (Alemayehu, 2020). Each student is recognised as a person with the potential to acquire knowledge and contribute to the community through inclusive educational environments. Individuals are trained to respect variety, cherish one another's similarities and differences, and gain knowledge through them (Temesgen, 2021).

The third foundation is introspective action: To achieve successful diversity, teachers must adapt their curriculum, methods of instruction, and methods of handling classrooms to meet the requirements of every student. Educators who work in inclusive educational settings are thoughtful, adaptable, sensitive, and cognisant of the needs of their students. To guarantee that every student's requirements are satisfied while they are doing so, they regularly reflect critically on what they believe and evaluate their own actions (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019 ; Krtkova et al., 2023). Individualised instruction by teachers for all students regarding technological advances, instructional methods, curricular availability, testing processes, physical layout modifications, and a host of additional services tailored to their needs. In addition to rigorous academics and interactions with others that are appropriate for their particular requirements and abilities, students get courses that are multidimensional and heterogeneous (Price, 2018).

Paju et al.,(2022) stressed the final part of the structure and emphasised that successful inclusion requires teamwork from educators, other professionals, students, families, and community organisations. In a normal learning school setting, children receive the assistance and resources they require. Individuals collaborate and analyse while providing tools, duties, expertise, choices, and lobbying on behalf of students. Directors who give an

overview and condense the ideas upon which inclusive instructional methods are founded, as well as school systems that offer assistance, education, duration, and funding to reorganise the courses they offer to enable personnel to work cooperatively on addressing the requirements of students (Garcia-Melgar et al., 2022a).

Initially, multiculturalism and cohesive learning environments in general education settings, irrespective of racial/linguistic origins, financial standing, sex, preferred learning method, ethnic origin, socioeconomic status, spirituality, familial makeup, Muliati (2016), or gender identity or expression, enhance the educational process for all students. Educating students together in excellent, suitable-age regular education classes in their neighbourhood schools; inclusionary schools accept, understand, confirm and appreciate the value of all learners. Every student has the opportunity to engage in social, academic, and cultural events and play and learn together. These policies respect variety and are tailored to each individual's requirements. They also foster acknowledgement, stock, and interaction (Mwajabu & Joseph, 2017 ; Kirac et al., 2022).

According to Ainscow (2020), the next framework should be an individual requirement. Effective inclusion requires sensitivity to and acceptance of individual needs and differences. Educators cannot teach students without taking into account the factors that shape their students and make them unique, such as disability, race, linguistic background, gender, and economic status interact and affect academic performance and socialisation; therefore, educators, students, and family members must be sensitive to individual needs and differences. In inclusive classrooms, all students are valued as individuals capable of learning and contributing to society. Students are taught to appreciate diversity, value, and learn from each similarities and differences (Hayes & Bulat, 2017a).

The subsequent structure is an observational action to ensure successful diversity. Observant teachers must adapt their curriculum, methods of instruction, and methods of

handling classrooms to meet the requirements of every student. Administrators in inclusive schools are thoughtful professionals who are adaptable, sensitive, and cognisant of the needs of their students. They engage in critical thinking on their principles and beliefs, and they regularly assess their own practices to make sure they meet the needs of all students and to improve themselves (Shulman & Mesa-Bains, 2020). Individualised instruction by educators for each student takes into account their demands; in terms of technological advances, physical layout modifications, instructional methodologies, evaluation methods, and a host of other relevant services. In addition to demanding academic and social experiences that are appropriate for their needs and skills, students receive a multi-layered and multimodal (Subban et al., 2023).

The final element is cooperation. To be successful, inclusiveness requires cooperation from a variety of groups, including instructors, specialists, households, and local organisations (Hornby, 2015). Students receive the assistance and resources they require in a normal environment. Individuals collaborate and think critically while sharing resources, duties, abilities, campaigning, and decision-making for the good of the students. To encourage people to work with one another to meet the needs of students, school districts offer materials, instruction, duration, and assistance for plan restructuring. The previous educational inclusion notion is important because it provides a structure and direction for efficient instruction (Kavua, 2022).

2.3.1 Diversity in the Classroom

Diversity is about accepting and respecting differences. It entails appreciating our unique differences and realising that each person is unique. These factors are frequently related to age, physical capabilities, political views, religion, gender, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic background (Ruhela, 2023). Individuals and groups with diverse philosophical and demographic backgrounds produce diversity. It is crucial to value

and preserve diversity because by valuing non-judgmental people and groups and establishing an environment in which justice and respect for others are fundamental, we can build a compassionate, cooperative, and success-oriented community that draws in bright minds and generates creative solutions from the collective intelligence of your people (Vyas, 2021).

Gadour (2018) highlighted, individuals show respect for traits and life experiences that are distinct from our own. Recognise that variety encompasses both modes of knowing and modes of being; Realising that discrimination on a personal, societal, and institutional level gives certain people advantages while creating and maintaining disadvantages for others; form coalitions despite differences so that we may cooperate to end prejudice in all its manifestations (Cerna et al., 2021).

Consequently, one aspect of diversity understands how to react to the traits and circumstances that distinguish other people and groups from ourselves and are exclusive to the groups to which we belong. Age, colour, ethnicity, class, gender, physical attributes, sexual orientation, and experiences with parenting and work are just a few examples. Other factors include education level, income level, geography, educational background, gender, religion, and gender expression (Mwajabu & Joseph, 2017).

Finally, we accept each person's right to self-identification, acknowledge that no culture is fundamentally better than any other, and acknowledge that categories of difference are not necessarily rigid but may also be flexible (Suha Yassin and Sharon Hague, 2013). Diverse definitions "Everything that sets people apart is considered diversity, including primary traits like age, race, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and mental and physical abilities; and secondary traits like nationality, education, income, religion, work experience, language proficiency, geographic location, family status, communication style, military experience, learning style, and economic background" (Rogahang et al., 2024).

2.3.2 Individualised Teaching

According to UNESCO (2020), individualised instruction to address each student's unique requirements is a key component of inclusive schooling. It focuses on offering tools and individualised help to ensure that students flourish in the classroom. The goal of this strategy is to establish a welcoming and encouraging learning environment for students of all backgrounds and skill levels. Programmes for Tailored Education: A thorough examination for many years, the cornerstone of special education has revolved around individualised education plans (IEPs), which offer a customised method of meeting the particular requirements of individuals with disabilities (UNESCO, 2015a).

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) of 1975, a landmark law that required all children with disabilities to receive free and adequate public education is where the history of IEPs begins (UNICEF, 2015). To guarantee that every student's educational plan is tailored to their unique needs, this act—later renamed the 'Individuals with Disabilities Education Act' (IDEA)—established the basis for the creation of IEPs. Samuel Kirk, a trailblazing special education researcher who pushed for the identification of learning disabilities, and Madeleine Will, the former assistant secretary of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), who was instrumental in drafting the IDEA legislation, have made substantial contributions to the field of IEPs (U.S. Department of Education, 2000).

These people have dedicated their lives to ensuring that children with disabilities get the resources and assistance they require to succeed, as have many educators, activists, and legislators. It is impossible to overstate the influence that IEPs have on the lives of students with disabilities. IEPs have made it possible for these children to access and acquire the necessary skills and succeed academically and personally by offering a thorough and customised approach to education. In addition to encouraging a more inclusive and fair

educational environment, IEPs have promoted the integration of children with disabilities into regular classroom settings ; of course, IEP implementation has not been without its difficulties (Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2020).

IEPs may be unduly bureaucratic, time-consuming, and resource-intensive, putting a heavy strain on administrators and teachers, according to some concerns. The proper degree of parental participation, striking a balance between academic and functional goals, and facilitating students' smooth transition from school to postsecondary life have also been topics of discussion. IEPs have a bright future despite these obstacle (National Council for Special Education, 2006).

Technological developments like data-driven decision-making and the use of digital platforms might improve the efficiency and efficacy of the IEP process. In addition, more studies and cooperation between educators, legislators, and families will continue to influence the development of IEPs, guaranteeing that IEPs will continue to be adaptable to the evolving needs of children with disabilities (Nel et al., 2016). To sum up, customised education programmes have been essential to the education of individuals with disabilities since they offer tailored strategies to meet their particular requirements (World Bank, 2023). Key players, historical background, and the influence of IEPs have all played a significant role in forming the special education profession. As we move forward, it will be essential to continue improving and implementing IEPs to guarantee that every child, regardless of ability, has the chance to realise their full potential.

2.4 Introduction to Inclusive Education

The Salamanca, Spain, World Conference on Special Needs Learning record from more than 30 years ago stated that the most effective way to combat prejudice, achieve universal education, and create an inclusive society was to implement inclusive awareness-building in regular educational institutions (Salamanca statement, 1994). A major tactic to address the

issues of marginalisation and exclusion in support of inclusive education was the adoption of the International Covenant on Education for All (EFA) by UNESCO (2020) by the Framework for Action in Dakar, Senegal (World Education Forum, 2000). Because inclusive education meets a wide range of needs, including those of people with disabilities, it has the opportunity to positively impact all students, their guardians and the entire educational institution (Winter & O’Raw, 2010). Concerning the integration of students with unique needs, several concerns have been investigated and explored during the past 30 years (Odom et al., 2012).

Furthermore, Odom et al., (2012) noted that terms like particular education, blended learning, and mainstreaming—all of which were in use prior to the early 1990s—replaced the idea of educational inclusion. The practice of reacting to and meeting the requirements of every student in accordance with suitable structures put into effect and carried out in a systematic manner is known as inclusive learning. All children are entitled to free and mandatory preschool instruction, as guaranteed by the 1948 United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR). The parental right, established in 1989, provided equal access to school support for all children, regardless of background, and served as the basis for parental rights to education (UN, 2009).

Subsequently, in 1990, Thailand’s Jomtien province implemented attendance for everybody statements with the goal of realizing universal education that was free and obligatory. Not only does the 1993 standard for equalisation of opportunity to persons with disabilities embrace education for all, but it also emphasises that education for persons with disabilities must be provided in integrated and normal settings. In order to put these statements and guidelines into practice, the Salamanca Statement (1994) clarified a plan of action calling for schools to accept all students, regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, ethnic, linguistic, or other difficulties. Children from migratory

communities, impoverished students, talented youngsters, students with jobs, ethnic minority cultures, and students from economically exploited locations and groups are among the additional requirements.

The World Education Forum (2000) held in Dakar, Senegal, created an actionable structure for implementing the 'Education for All' (EFA) of 1990 and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which guaranteed that all children would have access to free and compulsory education and finish their education by 2015, with a special focus on the schooling of marginalised children and girls. Individuals with disabilities have the right to participate in learning and growth in inclusive environments, as highlighted by the UNCRPD (2006). All of these show how occasionally inclusive education practices are backed by international laws and regulations.

The notion of equitable educational opportunity is defined differently by each individual and depends on how they interpret it (Uchem et al., 2014). This makes it possible to assess how well an intervention has worked to fulfil the obligation to provide equal treatment (Lane et al., 2019). Established as a plan that fits the execution for every individual, welcoming schooling is a framework that emphasises different perspectives as an essential component of the teaching and learning process, promotes growth in human beings, and seeks to fight the disenfranchised status of those who are different and foster the acceptance of disparities (Imaniah & Fitria, 2018).

Notably, Uchem et al., (2014) defined inclusive learning as the process of changing schools to meet the needs of students with unique educational requirements and disabilities. This involves more than merely moving the educational setting for people with impairments while leaving the current structures alone; rather, it involves updating and tailoring the frameworks to meet their unique requirements. To bolster these claims, inclusive learning advocates maintain that students with disabilities should remain in normal education classes

and provide supportive assistance instead of placing them in settings where they lack such resources (Niland et al., 2020).

National Council for Special Education (2011), additionally, accessible learning refers to eliminating obstacles by offering different opportunities, making accommodations, and setting up suitable structures and provisions that enable every student to get the most from their schooling and reach their fullest potential. This allows people with varying educational requirements and skills to participate in schooling and in additional social and cultural events. This highlights the role that assistance providers' play in helping people overcome obstacles to knowledge acquisition. This is how the classroom environment of equitable schooling affects the advancement of human growth, particularly for students who are handled unilaterally (UNESCO, 2005).

The advantages of equitable schooling are numerous. It overcomes biased attitudes that raise personal knowledge about rights. This helps develop a person's self-assurance, feelings of safety, and coping skills with both school and the community in general. Additionally, helping to establish an inclusive society involves the implementation of inclusive learning (Denman, 2015).

The provision of additional amenities for students with disabilities in an ordinary school setting necessitates a significant change in the roles and duties of instructors (Forlin, 2011). In conventional institutions of learning, equitable learning practices improve the accessibility, involvement, and accomplishments of all students, irrespective of a student's interpersonal, financial, or ethnic origin. To assist instructors in meeting the diverse requirements of every student, it starts by understanding the current social customs, assets, and institutions and then modifying the course load accordingly (Zwicky, 2018 ; Dewsbury & Brame, 2019).

Therefore, fostering an environment in which all students are acknowledged, secure, welcomed, and comfortable is essential to the concept of inclusive schooling. This will allow individuals to receive appropriate assistance, nurture their gifts, and realise all of their abilities (Hehir et al., 2016). As a result, educators must adjust their subject matter and delivery strategies. In addition to utilising a range of instructional tools and resources, schools change and revise their teaching methods to accommodate students with different needs in the areas of managing the classroom (Hofman & Kilimo, 2014).

In simple terms, inclusive environments modify the environment to suit every student's requirements instead of trying to fit them into the pre-existing framework of the education system. This transformation in perspective occurs when one moves from an inclusive learning environment to an integrated educational environment, from exceptional learning to an integrated standard environment (Porter & Canada, 2016).

The distinct particular education system, which was deemed ineffective and incompatible with the freedom of individual views, provided justification for the paradigm change towards inclusive education. Additional justifications for the necessity of shifting the educational system from integration to inclusion included rigid instruction, the method of instruction and instruction, and the material layout of typical classrooms (Florian, 2019).

The national and worldwide educational industries are currently facing substantial and difficult difficulties related to general education implemented in conventional classrooms. All nations have a problem of maintaining high standards for learning, which calls for qualified and dedicated educators (Porter & Canada, 2016).

Guarantee that in-service instructors have the skills to teach successfully in traditional schools with students who have a variety of educational desires; educational institutes must widely implement this solution. In other words, this indicates that teachers are available for

real life, that workers have faith in them, and that these individuals possess the necessary expertise to be trained in methods of inclusive learning (Sharma & Michael, 2017).

Instructors who have an optimistic perspective on impairment and inclusiveness are better at modifying their settings and instructional strategies to better serve students with a range of demands (Sharma, 2018). Regarding Sharma's perspective, this is the reason why professionals who participate in inclusion and handicap education initiatives greatly influence the viewpoints of future educators at the start of a programme to teach. Since classrooms are becoming broader, educational processes must align with a comprehensive ecosystem (Fatia & Kurniawati, 2019 ; Collins et al., 2021).

One of the key concepts that clarifies the primary distinction between equitable schooling and separated learning is the ecosystem of inclusiveness. This idea is that instead of concentrating only on the deficiencies of specific students, educational institutions should also consider ambient elements like normal interactions in the classroom (Kurz & Paul, 2005).

To give all children, irrespective of their origins or developmental phases, equitable schooling opportunities to attain maximum achievement both academically and socially, educational institutions have an obligation to guarantee ecological, curricular, and teaching adaptations (Debasu & Yitayew, 2024 ; Lenzer et al., 2024).. This means that the key topic to consider is not just how to design inclusive education facilities but also how to do so after establishing a foundation with information for designing successful educational programmes (Genovesi et al., 2024) .

Transforming physical surroundings, building traditions, and enforcing regulations are all part of an inclusive learning strategy. The goal of each of these operations' methods within the school system is to address the diverse community members (Uchem et al., 2014). Thus, additional instruction for teachers can increase the need for prospective teachers, which

is crucial for the effective delivery of inclusive learning (Dalton et al., 2012). Based on the pledge and ratification of the human rights ideas given, this served as the basis for the establishment of equitable education and the present global approach to implementing the principles of comprehensive learning worldwide (Mc Conkey, 2021).

Consequently, the goal of inclusive teaching and learning has improved morale and teamwork in institutions and significantly enhanced teachers' on-going career development and happiness at work (G. L. Porter & Canada, 2016). Diversification lessons are crucial components of accessible education for educators in schools and colleges. This affords trainees the opportunity to concentrate on key skills in each subject area, accommodate their preferences, and have multiple learning opportunities in a setting where individualised attention is customary for all students (Genovesi et al., 2024).

Decreasing discrimination among and within higher education, as well as increasing involvement in education, societies, and cultures, are all part of the process of recognising and meeting the diverse needs of all learners (Santiago, 2020). This is known as inclusion. Changes and adaptations in content, techniques, structures and tactics are included, along with a shared vision that encompasses all children within the appropriate age range and the belief that the regular system should be responsible for educating all children. Providing suitable answers to a wide range of learning requirements in official and community school environments is the focus of inclusiveness (Kavua, 2022).

All-inclusive schooling is a method that focuses on ways to adapt schools as well as additional instructional environments to be able to respond to the variety of students, as opposed to being a peripheral concern about how certain students may be included in traditional schooling. It seeks to empower educators and students to embrace variety and view it as an opportunity to enhance the classroom rather than seeing it as a source of difficulty (Woodcock et al., 2022) . While inclusiveness focuses on giving individuals with

disabilities—physical, psychological, social, or otherwise—equal chances to participate in ordinary schooling, it also allows for personal decision-making and the provision of specific resources and help for those who require it (MoE, 2015).

“Education should allow children to attain their highest potential in terms of cognitive, emotional, and creative capacities,” the 2005 Global Monitoring Report stated. The goal of an integrated educational strategy is to promote excellence in learning environments. At numerous stages, adjustments are necessary to ensure schooling progresses to greater excellence. Human variances and diversity merit recognition within classrooms because they are a vital and inherent aspect of the community (Herz, 2023).

To ensure that no student is forced to decline involvement in or cooperation with an institution, educational institutions should be capable of providing opportunities for a variety of employment styles and tailored instruction. For a welcoming institution to be effective, it must prioritise both structural and subject-matter adaptability and variety to provide each student with an effective curriculum and the best possible chances for personal growth (Ralejoe, 2021). One way to define "a school for everyone" is to prioritise each student's desires and needs while also being adaptable to their specific talents. Thus, a classroom for all is a logical but distinct setting for education (Yorke et al., 2022)

According to UNESCO, 2005, as far as the growth of students is concerned, all available studies and personal observations indicate that the optimum conditions for this are those that foster high self-esteem and a positive self-concept—that is, those that actively and visibly encourage genuine engagement and camaraderie. Learners do not necessarily need to be instructed; they may acquire topical knowledge and material independently when they are placed at the centre of the learning process (Thuranira et al., 2022 ; Gouédard et al., 2020). Individualised adjustments can be made given the parameters of the learning environment. Students also assist one another based on their own traits and skills. Essentially, it observes

disparities as opportunities to grow. However, the educational outcomes that students achieve by passing their final examinations and other numerical indicators are frequently used to assess and quantify the standard of learning (Esteve-gonzález, 2016 ; Dockett, S., 2019).

In some cases, privatised systems of education focus on providing good infrastructure, technology, and facilities, aiming to assuring “comfort” to students. Therefore, these become parameters of quality rather than “content and value” of education (Alterator et al., 2022).

However, excellence goes beyond this, encompassing an educational environment that welcomes all students and views variety and adaptability as critical components of each student’s growth and personal progress. To eliminate differences in the "quality" of learning between the public and commercial infrastructures, school administrators should consider these concerns while facilitating conversations between recipients and practitioners (Ralejoe, 2021).

Excellent schooling from a universal viewpoint emphasises the rationale of ensuring that educational opportunities help individuals and organisations integrate successfully into the community at large. Excellent schooling seeks to maximise each student’s engagement; thus, it must be comprehensive (Alam, 2025).

An equitable and participative community is built through teachers’ mind-sets and understanding. The emphasis on excellent schools for more diversity necessitates developing plans for removing or removing obstacles that prevent economically exploited or discriminated against individuals and communities from fully participating in society (Donders, 2021).

Including and being economical, discussing inclusiveness is challenging without considering financial concerns. Lack of government development aid, tight national budgets, and parents’ inability to pay for direct and indirect costs of education are commonplace. Parents frequently have to choose between paying their children’s educational fees and

having them earn money to support their families. Therefore, there is a chance that equitable schooling could be viewed as excessively expensive by entities, governments, and even parents, even if the anticipated cost to achieve equitable access to education (MoE, 2012).

On the other hand, a lot can be recovered by creating an educational system that is more economical. A greater amount of thought must be given to the institutional structure that governs public expenditure than has been done thus far. In order to obtain a better cost-benefit ratio between inputs and outcomes, this requires maximising the use of facilities (Salamanca statement, 1994).

In nations with limited resources, many affordable initiatives have been created to provide inclusive, high-quality education. These include educational institutions with multiple grade levels, ages, and abilities; first reading and writing in mother tongues; training-of-trainer predicts for continuing education; connecting pre-service teachers with educational institutions; peer-providing instruction; and turning special schools into resource centres that offer knowledge and assistance to groups of regular educational institutions (Awal, 2015a).

It is frequently necessary for creating successful policies and the evolution of individual opinions and views. Such a shift is gradual and requires a thorough re-evaluation of beliefs and role behaviours (Gedfie & Negassa, 2019). A variety of stakeholders can be beneficial assets to enhance inclusion, including professionals, additional teachers, non-teaching support staff, community members, school officials, programme creators, instructional administrators, business organisations, as well as educational facilities. Some (communities, parents, and administrators) are essential to support every step of recruitment; they are not only useful resources (Negash, 2020).

2.5 Special Education (Inclusion's Roots)

Special needs education served as the foundation for modern diversity and inclusion, which evolved from integration (UNESCO, 2020). Educational institutions have investigated many approaches to managing students with learning challenges and children with disabilities during the field's growth, leading to the formation of special education institutions. Specialised instruction may be offered separately in certain situations or as a complement to mainstream instruction in other contexts. It is individual needs rather than uniform policy systems (Dalgaard et al., 2022).

Separate educational institutions have been under criticism over the past few years for being inappropriate from the perspectives of human rights and efficacy. The "integration" strategy helped bring special education techniques to the public. The primary obstacle to integration is the lack of modifications to the curriculum, teaching and learning methods, and organisational structure of regular schools, which have occurred since "mainstreaming" (Ralejoe, 2021).

As stated by Tiruneh (2019), one of the biggest obstacles to implementing an "inclusive education policy" has been shown to be the absence of organisational transformation. Therefore, "special needs" have been reconceived because of a modified understanding. According to this perspective, learning outcomes are more likely to be achieved if we acknowledge that students' challenges are caused by the way schools are now set up and by inflexible teaching strategies (Kaur, 2020). There is a claim that educational institutions must adapt and enhance their instructional methods to better accommodate the diverse range of students that they serve. This involves viewing individual variations in students as opportunities to enhance their education rather than issues that need to be resolved (Avram et al., 2021).

2.6 Principles of Inclusive Education

Importantly, Schiemer (2017) guarantees that inclusive learning fulfils its primary objective of providing comparable educational opportunities to all disabled or not; it adheres to several criteria. The principle that students with special needs or additional learning requirements, or those with impairments, should belong to regular schools is fundamental to an equitable educational system. To guarantee that inclusive learning fulfils its primary objective of providing comparable educational opportunities to all disabled or not, it adheres to several criteria (Kiyuba & Tukur, 2014). The principle that students with special needs or extra educational requirements, or those with impairments, should be accommodated in regular schools is fundamental to an equitable educational system (Wanjiru, 2020 ; Winter & O’Raw, 2010).

Depending on whether the aforementioned elements were present or absent in the inclusive education that each stakeholder—including parents and teachers—experienced, there tends to be variation in their experiences. As UNISCO (2010) suggested, it has enumerated four inclusive educational aspects, one of which is the understanding of comprehensive learning as a process, to summarise the guiding principles of inclusive education. To provide solutions to diversity-stimulated difficulties, inclusive education requires constant learning from differences and developing coping mechanisms (Florian, 2019). The third component is that inclusive education aims to remove obstacles; therefore, gathering, compiling, and assessing data from many sources is necessary to inform and enhance inclusive policy and implementation.

There is, nevertheless, more inclusiveness; we should care about every individual’s engagement and success as much as the presence of all youngsters. The final component of the four is that schools that are inclusive must emphasise how important it is to give equitable opportunity by attending to the educational needs of students who run the danger of being

marginalised, excluded, or performing below expectations (Ainscow, 2020). The methods and degrees to which the components are combined impact how diverse and inclusive educational approaches are adopted by those who matter, such as instructors and parents, in varied settings (Adams et al., 2013).

2.7 Benefits of Inclusive Education

Regular schooling of the learning environment affords learners with impairments several benefits, including social interaction with students with no impairments, exposure to educational materials Yorke et al., (2022) similar to those most other students receive, topics of experience from experts in the area, instructions from general education teachers with backgrounds that differentiate greatly from those of special education teachers, and exposure to all the pressures and anxieties that come with getting ready for, consuming, and winning or losing state-wide inspections (Jensen, 2022).

On the other hand, Biking (2021) stated that all students benefit from inclusive schooling by learning and developing in a setting in which they ultimately reside and work. As the inclusion of individuals who are "different" becomes more widespread, all students and educators acquire the qualities of cooperation, tolerance, acceptance, and patience. As they assist their classmates with particular requirements, other students learn important lessons about consideration, patience, and humility (Hausburg, 2022 ; Polit, 2018). Some students with exceptional needs possess unique talents that their peers may take advantage of. Effective inclusion benefits all parties, resulting in the greatest quality. This covers students with and without special needs or abilities, educators in terms of improving their methods, and wider educational settings in terms of creating a more welcoming learning environment (Alemayehu, 2020).

Incorporating individuals with disabilities into regular education schools can yield several benefits for learners. In comparison to a standard extracurricular school environment,

it may usually offer a more engaging atmosphere ("rationale for and benefit of inclusiveness," 2004). Inclusiveness initiatives for students with disabilities enhance learning environments and enhance engagement in educational pursuits (Salend, 2004).

It is worth noting that Rational for Inclusive Education (2004), given that typical school students can serve as role models by facilitating interaction, social interactions, and adaptive behaviours. For special education children, normal students in education might serve as an example of proper social and behavioural skills in the classroom (Hofmann & Müller, 2021). Given the high standards in normal education classrooms, this modelling occurs frequently organically. When disabled students are separated in an environment of special education, they frequently do not receive any kind of acceptable student modelling (Hemann, 2007).

The chance to meet new people and exchange fresh perspectives is another advantage of inclusive schooling for students with special needs (Rational for and Advantages of Inclusiveness) (N'jie, 2014). Youngsters who grow up in inclusive environments have more resilient social networks than students who grow up in segmented environments, according to the study. This is particularly relevant for students enrolled in their neighbourhood school, where they have easier access to peers after school hours. Educators are essential for helping these peer groups (MoE, 2012).

The creation of "a school for all" via inclusion education leads to an equitable community where everyone wins. Improve the dignity and self-worth of students with impairments (MoE, 2012). They have a sense of self-worth when they start forming relationships with instructors and students in normal schooling. They have positive feelings about themselves and their time at school, in general. As a result of learning environments that cater to everyone, for example, students might begin to perceive themselves as unique

individuals who can participate in some of the same opportunities and activities as their classmates without disabilities.

The final advantage of an accessible school for a student with a disability is that it is affordable and provides all students equal opportunity, thus advancing everyone's right to instruction. According to MoE (2012) and Dagnev (2013), the expense of educating students in combined schools is half that of teaching them in separate courses. This demonstrates that including students who have impairments in ordinary schooling can be an affordable means to alleviate some of the present budgetary constraints at a time when many educational institutions are experiencing financial difficulties (Abebe et al., 2023). Furthermore, advocates for inclusion have identified several advantages for students with disabilities and their classmates without disabilities (MoE, 2012 ; Tefera & Van Engen, 2016).

These advantages for students with challenges include: encouraging more suitable behaviour; creating greater possibilities for friendships with classmates without disabilities; enrolling in a course for general education; raising the bar for education; creating a more exciting atmosphere that promotes linguistic and adaptable growth in abilities; and strengthening students' capacity to adjust to various teaching and learning modalities (Teklemariam, 2020). However, the advantages of inclusive education extend beyond children with disabilities because it also extends to children without disabilities.

In addition to Peck (2017) and Zambwa et al., (2022) it is important to remember that there are advantages for children who are not disadvantaged, such as having a connection to extra educators who can assist every student with developing their skills, improvements in the development of humanitarian behaviours, tolerance of students with impairments, and understanding unique characteristics. Gaining experience as an administrator and having a deeper awareness of the commonalities throughout various learning styles (Zambwa et al. 2022; Hunt, 2018).

These advantages involve heightening comprehension and appreciation of student diversity, and extra support in learning environments through teachers with special needs and their resources. While having an extra set of hands in an educational setting is always beneficial, extracurricular faculty members' expertise may offer valuable perspectives on developing and implementing curricula (Andrews et al., 2021). Typically, a broad education benefits not just the individual with a disability but also the nation within it and the wider community. Additionally, inclusive learning must be introduced in areas where students with disabilities are more accessible, as well as when institutions find children who are participating in the same ways as their classmates (Hayes & Bulat, 2017a).

2.8 Inclusive Education in Developing Nations

It began as early as the 1980s; specialised schooling initiatives for children who were handicapped led to the beginning of equal opportunity in the "United States and Europe" (Ferguson, 2008). African nations are likewise striving to establish equitable schools as parents, educators, political leaders, and residents attempt to prepare for the novel challenges and possibilities of the 21st century (Winthrop, 2022).

The implementation of accessible education on an international, global, and national level has demonstrated advancements in re-evaluating how students are organised for educational purposes, how schools prepare for supplemental instruction, and how instructors can adapt core instruction to accommodate students' challenges (Hankebo, 2018).

It is important to keep in mind that the development of equitable learning did not have a specific beginning, location, or pace while examining its various facets and important figures. Although equitable learning has no set beginning or end, its motions differ per nation depending on circumstances and initial requirements (Version & Boer, 2015).

A change in focus from merely attempting to fit the child into typical environments to providing additional assistance for their unique needs or impairments and fostering their

general growth in the best possible environment is known as welcoming instruction (Al-Shammari et al., 2019).

As illustrated by Mesfin & Teferra (2021), the historical context of special schools, originally founded by evangelists abroad, has provided instruction to students with evident sensory impairments, such as eyesight and hearing, for the past forty years. Nevertheless, those few unique schools have only been able to accept a small number of students, and their enrolment potential has remained restricted. In the late 1980s, Kokebe Tsibeha Elementary school in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, opened special courses for students with mental illness. Since then, distinct ordinary learning environments have seen the emergence of special courses for students with developmental disorders (Schiemer, 2017). Numerous students with literacy, visual appeal, and sensory problems, mild intellectual disabilities, behavioural problems, motor disorders (including outbreaks of polio and other neurological in nature issues), special needs education, and various other disabilities attend regular schools alongside students without first handicaps (Schiemer, 2017; Abiodun & Prof, 2021).

On the other hand, Burningham et al., (2024) noted that the educational system has never provided an admissions service that assesses students at the moment of admission to assist in identifying those who require more support, and schools were not equipped to offer the services required to meet the requirements of students. As a result, it appears that most of these students lack any assistance with their schooling. Students are doomed to drop out of education shortly with no achievement because they frequently struggle academically and psychologically (Mitiku et al., 2014).

Likewise, UNESCO (2008) emphasised that a broad movement for equitable educational opportunities has emerged in the last few decades, with the aim of encompassing students with disabilities in ordinary classroom environments. In addition to the aforementioned statement, UNESCO (2015) stated that children with intellectual disabilities

and those with sight and hearing impairments now have many more special classes available in conventional school settings because of this effort. Public discussion and dialogue among participants, specialists, exclusive instructors at schools, rehabilitation programmes for community workers, and non-governmental organisations have been sparked by the current movement that supports the concept of inclusion as opposed to distinguished educational opportunities (Yitayih, 2018).

In the same way MoE (2016) starts up, generally speaking, Ethiopian students with impairments appear to have five distinct schooling experiences: special day schools, which are daytime institutions for students with similar difficulties; specialised boarding institutions, which are accommodations where students with similar impairments spend the day alongside and spend their nights separately; Special courses are classrooms in which students with disabilities are placed in regular educational settings; inclusive schools are regular schools in which students with impairments are placed either entirely or partially in regular classes with students without difficulties; and consistently, education institutions are conventional schools in which students with disabilities who have not yet been diagnosed join normal learning with others (MoE, 2012; Tonegawa, 2019 ; Beadle-brown et al., 2019).

According to Mupa & Chinooneka (2015) sought to offer the required learning resources, including pedagogical backup assistance, in the first four categories of delivery of education, have attempted to address the children's particular requirements. However, most of these institutions struggle with overcrowding, a lack of resources for specialised training, insufficient infrastructure, and a lack of specialised education-trained staff (Hayes & Bulat, 2017a).

There is a significant issue with budgetary limits that inclusive colleges and special education programmes report, both of which depend on government funding. The condition for students with concealed or undiscovered impairments who attend ordinary school courses

alongside their classmates without impairments who do not receive special educational assistance is much worse. As previously mentioned, there is a very low enrolment rate of disabled children in Ethiopian government educational institutions and programmes (Burningham et al., 2024).

According to Srivastava et al., (2015) the primary goals of inclusive learning programmes are to close achievement disparities and uphold the rights of students with disabilities and special needs. According to the "Salamanca statement" (1994), the "Dakar framework for action" World Education Forum (2000), and the rights of individuals with disabilities Degener (2024) asserted that students with disabilities and special needs must receive a comprehensive education that includes complementary primary and secondary schooling in a neighbouring home environment school.

Additionally, EFA (2003) ; Tesemma (2011), justify the implementation of inclusive learning as crucial because, of the approximately 150 million students who make up the total number of individuals with impairments, 80% live in developing regions, such as Africa, and only 2% receive assistance and are engaged in learning. Recent investigations conducted in Africa revealed that in 2015, 61 million people did not benefit from the free elementary school programme, which was part of the "Millennium Development Goal." Of those individuals, one-third were children with disabilities (Mitchell, 2017).

Along those lines, McDonald et al., (2012) stressed that because of societal constraints stemming from culture and attitudes, the majority of students in underdeveloped countries who have special needs and disabilities still face a life of marginalisation and separateness. This is pending the start of initiatives by teachers, parents, and politicians to pool resources and work cooperatively to establish welcoming educational settings and equitable opportunities for socially excluded groups (Pluralism et al., 2018).

Another study carried out in Africa by "World Vision International" Abawi, (2013) UNESCO (2018) claimed that special needs/inclusive methods of instruction had been developed for teacher training, school facilities, curriculum creation, and materials for instruction support services to facilitate the educational system's suitability for those who were excluded and differentiated in nations like Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Niger, and the Republic of Rwanda.

The difficulties in implementing equitable educational opportunities in underdeveloped nations include poor programmes for educating teachers, a dearth of pertinent research data, poor resources and supplies, improper assistance services, and inefficient tactics and guidelines (Pluralism et al., 2018).

As Mokaleng & Möwes (2020) emphasised, the persistent obstacles that cause conflicts among educational institutions regarding equitable educational practices include the unwavering refusal to embrace inclusive education trends in developing nations, rigid educational policies and methods, and the belief that someone's impairment is the result of past actions and that it is the hand of God (Sharma & Michael, 2017). The consequences of unstable politics and economic challenges are obstacles to the successful adoption of inclusive education practices in developing nations, particularly those in the southern Sahara (Charema, 2010). While there are certain benefits to the adoption of equitable schooling in Ethiopia, there are also drawbacks, including a lack of knowledge, dedication, and teamwork, which makes it difficult to ensure the successful execution of inclusive education. Additionally, according to Mitiku et al., (2014) to maintain and effectively implement inclusive education, organisations must collaborate more to increase monetary and physical support and opportunities to overcome obstacles.

The fundamental issue facing the majority of emerging economies is the predominance of large class sizes, which, when combined with teacher shortages, causes

uncertainty about inclusive education practices and makes learners with disabilities fearful of taking on too much work (UNICEF, 2003). Reviewing research from poor nations shows that instructors receive relatively little time and effort (Srivastava et al., 2015). Investigations on the implementation of inclusive schooling in underdeveloped nations are scarce (Mendoza & Heymann, 2024).

According to Ginja & Chen (2023) instructors lack the necessary knowledge and competency to meet the needs of students with disabilities in inclusive educational settings. They also have improper attitudes. Once more, the emphasis of these investigations was solely on understanding mind-sets, and abilities; they did not address the practice behaviours of teachers receiving instruction regarding inclusive instruction, and further research in poor nations is thus required (Mendoza & Heymann, 2024).

As stated by Cerna et al., (2021), there are variances in the setting elements based on their progression in the delivery and achievement rate of inclusive learning. There exists a significant disparity in the enactment rates of inclusive education in the Global South with respect to contextual considerations. Some review their educational approaches in light of worldwide declarations; more work on developing new plans; still others work on putting plans into practice ; and yet others rely on the expectations of international organisations(Kalyanpur, 2018).

The formulation of policies pertaining to the execution of equitable learning has a significant influence; nevertheless, the execution of inclusive learning is mostly contingent upon the transformation of education inside schools and classrooms (Ferriday & Cantali, 2020).

The biggest obstacle to the implementation of inclusive learning in underdeveloped nations is the dearth of practitioners capable of comprehending the requirements of all students as a result of inadequate teacher preparation and inclusive strategy executioners’

lack of expertise (Forlin & Loreman, 2011). Another investigation's result showed that the greatest obstacles to the advancement of equity in education are educators' understanding, skills, and behaviours, and that teacher preparation should concentrate on addressing these issues (Sharma & Michael, 2017).

Concerning Cate & Krolak-Schwerdt (2018), therefore, they highlight the importance of educators in implementing inclusive education practices in an efficient manner. Not only did it highlight the many benefits of inclusive schooling for poor countries, but it also highlighted how it allows students with disabilities and other special requirements to participate in classroom settings and learn alongside others in an inclusive environment that fosters mutual acceptance and compassion (Version & Boer, 2015).

To ensure high-quality instruction in inclusive educational settings, teachers' individual behaviours and collective knowledge must be improved with deliberate attention. To train learners to respect diversity, teacher educators must enhance their abilities in providing a curriculum that is acceptable and using appropriate methodologies (Mwajabu & Joseph, 2017). It can be particularly difficult in nations where there are few instructors with broad education, and the majority lack the abilities, know-how, and viewpoints needed to fill such a job (Sharma et al., 2013).

2.9 Ethiopia's Education System for Children with Disabilities

As evidenced by EFA & United Nations Education (2015), there are an estimated 691,765 students with disabilities in Ethiopia; of these, only over 2,300 have been enrolled in school and have a significant likelihood of dropping out (MoE, 2012; UNESCO, 2012). These figures are alarming considering that the nation has established national plans for special needs education, incorporated principles of supporting individuals with disabilities into its constitution, and committed to international declarations supporting the rights that students with impairments have to access to schooling.

Achieving "Education for All," especially for children with impairments, requires much more than just putting students in classrooms and enforcing policies (Tessema, 2011). This is evident when one looks past these declarations and guidelines and considers the realities of classrooms in elementary schools and the communities surrounding them. Actions based on the belief that comprehensive education is about more than just access, but also about systemic and societal changes, are necessary to achieve real inclusiveness in Ethiopia (ILO, 2013).

The participation of individuals with disabilities in education has a long history in Ethiopia. In the traditional education system in Ethiopia before modern education, individuals with visual impairments participated greatly in learning and teaching spiritual education in churches and mosques (Temesgen, 2014). The strong belief of Emperor Menelik II to build a modern state in Ethiopia and strengthen to strengthen the existing political power was the main cause for the introduction of modern education (Alemayehu, 2020).

As noted by Temesgen (2021), there is an inability and scarcity of the intellectual establishments that were already in place to deal with the climate of political demands on a global scale and the conviction to promote national requirements. Then, in 1908, Emperor Menelik founded Addis Ababa's first modern school. Ethiopia created its first special education school during this era of modern education, although the "teacher education programme".

For the first time in 1917, American Mennonite missionaries established the first special school in Ethiopia's western region of Dambi Dolo for students with visual impairments. In 1942, Kazanchis in Addis Ababa reopened the second special school intended for children with visual impairments. In 1957, this school was moved to "Sebeta Special School" (Temesgen, 2014). Subsequently, more special schools and programmes were developed for students with disabilities. Furthermore, special schools for students with

hearing problems were founded between 1956 and 1959 by American and foreign missionaries (Tefera, 2014 ; Temesgen, 2021).

The earliest special education programmes were established as free public courses for students with mild intellectual disabilities, visually impaired individuals, and hearing impairment individuals in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Several unique classrooms have been opened in various parts of the country. Up to 2000, the nation had 203 special courses connected to various ordinary primary schools, based on (MoE, 2011).

Above all UNICEF (2023), alongside students with no impairments, a number of children with various conditions have been attending regular schools, including those with motor disorders (including those caused by polio and other neurological issues), reading and writing challenges, low vision, hearing issues, mild developmental delays, behavioural issues, and other issues. Issues of special needs: most of these disabled students are frequently ignored and do not receive any extra help in their schoolwork (Tiruneh, 2019).

From the outset, foreigners founded and managed special schools and classes; nevertheless, the Ministry of Education became fully involved in the execution after 1980. Later, the fundamentals of special needs education were consciously implemented in accordance with the training and education policies mandated by the "International Convention on the Rights of the Child." Ethiopia has already adapted to provide education for all children, especially those with particular educational requirements, in compliance with their abilities and requirements (MoE, 2011; MoE, 2012).

The implementation of inclusive education is contingent on several requirements. Ethiopia recognises all international agreements ratified by it as fundamental to its domestic laws. Human rights considerations should direct that activity, according to the "United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child," which the Ethiopian government has

endorsed. Considering all this, the Department of Education and Training Policy (1994) asserted the significance of providing education to meet the diverse needs of all children.

Teacher training institutions and colleges must require prospective educators to take a course on special needs/inclusive education for the Ministry of Education's new "Teacher Education System over All" (TESO) initiative to successfully implement its revamp of teacher education. The goal of this project is to make it easier for Ethiopian schools to accept students with impairments (Kene et al., 2021).

According to the MoE (2015), it is unknown how many students in Ethiopia have disabilities. However, the World Health Organisation estimated in 2011 that 15% of the total number of people in any given nation has disabilities. Approximately 5 million children between the ages of 4 and 18 require special education, according to the over 33.5 million school-age population. According to the WHO data from 2013 to 14, 77,850 learners had disabilities. Of these, 42% were girls and 58% were boys who were recognised and registered as enrolled in grades 1–12 (Schiemer, 2017).

Again, Uromi & Iboku Mazagwa (2014) identified several challenges as the causes for the low progress made in helping students with disabilities throughout the "Education Sectors Development Programme-Four" (ESDP-IV). These include a lack of understanding, expertise, and dedication to putting special needs education into practice, which applies from the government to educational institutions (MoE, 2015). The educator is the a priceless and important educational source regarding inclusive education practices. Everyone's ability to learn effectively depends on how well educators organise the classroom (Tesemma, 2011).

Any college that offers teacher education must come up with long-term solutions to ensure that trainees may be assisted in gaining and demonstrating the skills required to become certified instructors (Juvonen et al., 2019). Additionally, trainees must comprehend that they are part of a process of inclusion that involves learning about other people; they

must receive support in maximising educational outcomes and maintaining inclusivity; they must comprehend the characteristics of specific impairments; they must handle this knowledge delicately to prevent dehumanising specific students; and they must recognise the accommodations that are available. Teachers should assist students in coping with the exclusionary pressures they encounter and prevent them from becoming resentful or closed off to future opportunities for inclusivity claims (Adu-Yeboah & Kwaah, 2018 ; Tesemma, 2011)

The master plan of MoE (2016) in Ethiopia, preparing teachers for special needs education, has been a major undertaking since the 1990s. Most foreign assistance for inclusive education and special needs education in the nation has focused specifically on such education. The “Ethiopian Special Needs Education (SNE) Programme Strategy” emphasises that, up until the early 1990s, the majority of special needs education teacher preparation was provided through brief, non-governmental organisation-funded workshops that did not result in long-lasting modifications to teaching and learning procedures. The Nazeret Teacher Training Institute created a six-month programme in 1992–1993, with assistance from Finland. The goal of the course was to build educators’ capacity to support currently operating special education schools, create new specialised classes, and include more students in regular classrooms (Osamwonyi, 2016 ; Darling-Hammond, 2010).

As explained by Kassa (2012), subsequently, the construction of the Sebeta Special Needs Education Teacher Training Centre and financing for Addis Ababa University courses came from Finland. Sebeta continues to provide a ten-month programme for trained instructors. Subsequently, other ordinary colleges and schools have extended inclusion training to all students. Admittedly, Albarracin et al., (2021) in the World Vision 2007 report document, stressed that the number of special courses and units has increased, and therefore, the number of students with disabilities completing school, as a consequence of Sebeta's

training programme. However, it is unclear whether there have been comparable advancements in the integration of students with disabilities into inclusive classrooms.

In an effort to fulfil its obligations under the special needs education programme strategy, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland has more recently provided funding for a project that will assist pre-service and in-service teacher education as well as the establishment of a multi-level support system (federal, regional, district, and school levels). Collaboration between an Ethiopian university and a Finnish institution is involved (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Moses & Kiprop, 2020).

In terms of the report given by the MoE (2012) report, the country's teacher training institutes began offering introductory special needs education as a common subject in 2001, and the practice subsequently spread to all of Ethiopia's universities and teachers' education institutions. Teacher training institutes must be the starting point and a stronghold for the implementation of genuine reforms that promote inclusiveness (McLaren, 2013). In a general learning environment, meeting the needs of all students—disabled or not—presents a challenge for inclusive education. Overcoming social and attitudinal hurdles is a difficult process that requires significant work and dedication (Negash, 2020).

Based on Zegeye, 2022is (2021) stated that the training of educators should lessen the effect of legacy in the training of educators, ensure that educational materials on inclusiveness are less unclear and more necessary, and establish collective cultures to embrace novel concepts to guarantee that instructors have the necessary abilities. Educators must comprehend the fundamentals of human rights and requirements, as well as the laws and regulations of the problems facing the nations where they work, to evolve. They must also pay greater consideration to investigating how and exactly what to teach in educational courses as well as in classrooms (Shimelis, 2011).

According to Yorke et al., (2022) ; Kuppusamy et al., (2016), the main obstacles to the implementation of inclusive learning include a lack of knowledge about impairments, an adverse mind-set towards students with impairments, and a hardened aversion to modification. Furthermore, there are a number of other potential sources of reluctance to change strict school policies regarding learning environments, as well as the absence of defined academic methodologies, a shortage of teaching resources, and insufficient funding (Mitiku et al., 2014).

Similarly, Shimelis (2011) asserted that diverse differences in competence, which go to cultural backgrounds and behaviour, ought to be welcomed and tolerated by educators. In addition, Watkinson (2013) evaluated educators who must also acknowledge that all trainees have an obligation to be recognised and treated as individuals in the classroom, ensure that every trainee feels valued, and set high standards for each trainee while emphasising their achievement. The main problem is that teacher educators themselves lack the skills to educate in-service teachers about inclusion, especially in nations that are introducing inclusiveness for the first time (Sharma et al., 2013). To effectively implement equitable educational opportunities, the nation must work to enhance and create several prerequisites and operations.

2.10 Ethiopian Constitution on the Right to Education

Ethiopia has supported and adopted many globally recognised declarations and policy instruments in the field of general and special education to introduce a legal framework for inclusive education. The comprehensive right to education derives directly from the 1948 “Universal Declaration of Human Rights”, which specifically developed it for the first time. Article 26(1) states: “Everyone has the right to education. Education must be free, at least at the primary and secondary levels. Elementary school classes are compulsory education.

Technical and vocational education should be universally accessible, and higher education should be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.”

The 1975 Declaration on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities demands both national and international action to guarantee the disabled’s entitlement to all offerings, allow them to maximise their capacity, acquire skills, and speed up their integration into social integration procedures (McGregor et al., 2023).

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989, established widespread support, free basic instruction, effective access to basic services, pre-employment education, and recreational opportunities for children and adolescents with special needs to enable children and adolescents to realise their full potential ability to integrate into society and develop personally (Quennerstedt, 2013).

In the 1990 Jomtien World Conference on Education for All, the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) emphasised the inherent right of a child to a full cycle of primary education and equal access to education for all, including those with special needs, in the same setting as the 1993 Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (Sobsey, 2007).

In 1994, in Salamanca, Spain, it was declared that each child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities, and learning needs and that "children with special educational needs should have access to mainstream schools with child-centred pedagogy that are capable of meeting these needs. The Salamanca Declaration also affirms that education systems take into account the diversity of characteristics and needs of children, which “is the most effective way to combat discriminatory attitudes, create welcoming communities, build an inclusive society, and achieve education for all; moreover, they ensure effective education for the majority of children and improve the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the entire education system” (Kuo, 2012).

Several conventions, such as Applestein et al. (2021), the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, and Gebru & Demeke (2014), have indicated that the Millennium Declaration in 2003 and the United Nations Assembly on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2006 have the potential to empower people with disabilities.

The most recent convention (UN, 2007) concerns the rights of persons with disabilities. These conventions, as stated in the objective of the convention itself, "seek to promote, protect, and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and freedoms by all persons with disabilities and to promote (United Nations, 2014). The fundamental principles of the convention include respect for the dignity of autonomy and independence of individuals, non-discrimination, participation, and integration into society, equality of opportunity, access, and acceptance of the diversity of persons with disabilities. The Convention pays special attention to the most vulnerable groups of persons with disabilities, such as women and children, and calls on states to ensure the protection of the rights of these groups by establishing appropriate policies and enforcement mechanisms as well as necessary provisions (Beadle-brown et al., 2019).

2.10.1 Ethiopia's constitutional rights

The 1995 Constitution explicitly addresses disability in Article 41 concerning economic, social, and cultural rights: "The state shall, within its available capacity, allocate resources to ensure the rehabilitation and support of people who are physically and mentally disabled, the elderly, and children who are orphans."

- According to Article 41, "Every Ethiopian national has the right to equitable access to publicly funded social services,"
- According to Article 25, the "right to equality excludes disability in its list of reasons not to discriminate, which does cover gender, colour, etc."

- According to Article 9.4, "All international agreements approved by Ethiopia constitute an inherent element of the law of the land".

2.11 Inclusive Education in Ethiopia

In 1994, the Ethiopian government created the Education and Training Policy (1994). This policy states that "ensuring universal access to high-quality elementary education is not only a right but also a guarantee of progress. " The policy guarantees that economically exploited groups will receive particular education support and strives to provide education to all children without prejudice (UNESCO, 2015a). To this end, it confirms "special education and training will be provided for people with disabilities" (Educational Structure No.3.2.9). The policy has also underlined in one of its specific objectives that efforts will be made "to enable both the handicapped and the gifted to learn in accordance with their potential and need" (MoE 1994:7; Tadesse & Kenea, 2022). The policy also gave due emphasis on the training of special educators. To this end, it stated, "teacher training for special education will be provided in regular teacher training programmes" (Educational Structure No.3.4.11).

As Yorke et al., (2022) stated, Ethiopia adopted its Special Needs Education approach in 2005 based on the country's educational policy; the plan's main components focused on encouraging inclusive schools and inclusive education systems to achieve the objectives of EFA-15 and UPEC. It listed many steps to increase educational access and emphasised the need to provide an equitable opportunity to individuals who are considered disadvantaged, including women, people who live in rural or semi-pastoral areas, and people with special needs (MoE and UNICEF, 2012). The values of 1994 served as the foundation for the proposed approach. Teacher Education Programmes and the objectives were as follows:

- Put into practice the government-endorsed worldwide standards and the Teacher Education Programme to uphold people's rights to instruction;

- Create and implement policies for curriculum adaptation and the creation of support systems in schools for students with special needs;
- Supports the rights of special needs students in vocational and technical education and other higher learning establishments;
- strengthen teacher preparation establishments' special needs education campaigns;
- Ensure the availability of qualified labour and relevant materials to educational institutions, such as schools. Along with action items and timelines for implementing the strategy with regional education agencies, the approach.
- This would enable the creation of regional plans of action; strengthen the capacity of regional and woreda-level stakeholders in education, develop guidelines and curricula, train Special Needs Education educators, establish provincial support groups, and facilitate the wider exchange of innovative ideas.

In accordance with the federal government's Proclamation No. 568/2008 on the rights to employment of disabled people, individuals who experience social, economic, or cultural discrimination due to intellectual, physical, or sensory disabilities are considered persons with disabilities. The legislation prohibits hiring, promoting, and assigning civil servants to positions in government departments (ILO, 2013; Assefa, 2018) .

As stated by Henok (2014), the design and construction of public buildings in Ethiopia must be accessible to people with physical disabilities, as stated in Article 36 of Building Proclamation No. 624/2009. Disabled people's privileges, rights, and advantages are often included in all of the aforementioned international conventions that Ethiopia has ratified and national policy papers. However, other difficulties occurred during installation. The

nation's failure to properly tackle the issue of providing universal elementary education for all citizens. Even though several statements on disabilities have been made, they are not being carried out well, and comprehensive education does not assist all students with disabilities (Assefa, 2018).

Multimodal learning has long been used to help people with modest impairments, including behavioural, emotional, and physical impairments. This type of approach has the potential to exclude people with disabilities and special needs in additional ways if it continues without systematically changing the environment, teaching and learning strategies, or activities used (Yorke et al., 2022). However, inclusive education is the process of providing education for all people through the dedication and assistance of service providers, which equalises educational access while lowering obstacles to learning (Sharma and Michael, 2017).

As further emphasised by EADSNE (2003), the way that equitable learning is assumed to be practiced is mostly determined by the activities educators conduct in an educational setting. Teachers' actions in the classroom are determined by their training; this training meets the demands of educators' staff development, and the information, observations, opinions, and outlooks that instructors have gained to adopt inclusiveness into everyday practice are the deciding factors (Walker, 2021).

Teachers indicated areas that required training: educators' understanding of impairments; their attitudes towards teaching; their expectations; and their previous experience in inclusion (Kocha & Senapathy, 2022). There are no statistically significant differences between the number of inclusive programmes taken and classroom teachers' self-efficacy scale scores, but particular education teachers' profound trust in their ability to teach has a high impact on learning when compared with those in general education (Lindner & Schwab, 2020).

According to the findings of other studies, the successful implementation of inclusive education development depends not only on teachers' increased knowledge but also on their dedication to considering their attitudes and views. To put it succinctly, this means that commitment is necessary for inclusive practice in addition to knowledge because knowledge may not always translate into classroom practice (Okongo et al., 2015).

Teacher education for inclusive practice, Roy et al., (2020), confirmed UNESCO's (2008) introduction as an on-going effort to deliver high-quality education for everyone while accepting the variety in needs and abilities, gender, ethnicity, and language features. Inclusive education eradicates all types of prejudice in the practice of learning expectations. In order to help normal education teachers better fulfil the needs of including trainees with disabilities, sufficient training on the features of disabilities, instructional adjustments, and fostering teamwork and cooperative skills among school workers would be greatly beneficial (Njui, 2017).

Therefore, educators who specialise in inclusive education must be ready to intervene when behavioural issues arise while maintaining the stimulating atmosphere that results from teamwork. This would make teaching a more favourable experience for new instructors and support the preservation of a more positive perception of the teaching profession (Kocoğlu et al., 2016). Maintaining and expanding equitable educational practices The teacher education college in charge of pre-service teachers entering the teaching profession should be knowledgeable about fostering accessible learning environments and addressing social justice concerns, such as those involving respect, legal services, and equality (EADSEN, 2006).

The "European Agency for Inclusive Teacher Education" stated that in order to enable high-quality inclusive education, training in inclusive education for all educators and assistance with systems set up to encourage inclusion are necessary (EATEI, 2006). According to Park et al., (2016) stated that to put the concept of inclusive education into

reality, teacher preparation should focus on a diverse educational topic covered in a teacher preparation course. It should also incorporate specialised professional experience and create a well-organised curriculum of lessons and activities. This helps future educators gain the expertise and expertise they need to work with students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms by providing them with opportunities to work together with college major customers like teachers, support teachers, and teacher aides (Woodcock et al., 2012). Although the reality today is further distant than prior training programmes, they have a considerably greater impact on learners' perceptions and the effectiveness of inclusion procedures (Kurz & Paul, 2005).

The impact of single subject implementation outcomes on trainee behaviour is a topic of conflicting research findings. A basic inclusive education course is offered in most teacher preparation programmes at colleges (Cabanová & Integracyjnej, 2019). Pre-teachers' perspectives and competence have improved as a result of receiving this comprehensive introductory training (Krtkova et al., 2023).

Mandatory topics that deal with inclusive education bring about behavioural changes that have a positive influence on a person's comfort level, empathy, decision-making, uncertainty, fear avoidance, coping mechanisms, and confidence. Additional research corroborating similar notions showed a statistically significant correlation between the offering of an introduction course and teacher educators' attitudes towards inclusion and their understanding of trainees with impairments. The explanation explains why educators with greater experience have more optimistic outlooks (Ferriday & Cantali, 2020).

Contrary to popular belief, additional research revealed that offering one-year teacher preparation programmes had very little effect on instructors' views towards inclusion, even when they adhered to a brief introductory inclusive curriculum (Nuttall, 2016). Furthermore, Cheon et al., (2024) claimed that offering a single inclusion introduction course is insufficient

to adequately train instructors for the range of responsibilities associated with inclusive practice and for addressing the diversity of needs addressed in an inclusive learning environment.

The awareness of inclusive education is expanding globally, leading to a shift in educational policy and practice towards inclusivity (EASNIE, 2014). All trainees benefit from the social component of education and training, which establishes the conditions necessary for the successful inclusion of trainees with disabilities in inclusive environments (Borg et al., 2011).

Due to their inclusiveness and high-quality education, all students benefit from this. Providing quality education and facilitating access to education are related and mutually supportive. Equal opportunity approaches are essential to guarantee inclusive education. To increase accomplishment through enrolment, attendance, and academic performance of all students, inclusive education addresses heterogeneity (Vrasmas, 2018).

To promote equitable educational opportunities, all individuals must have an inclusive teacher status. It is important to view its practice as a group effort. When implementing inclusive schools, various stakeholders are involved, each with specific roles and duties. To complete access requirements for structures that support teamwork and communication among a variety of individuals as well, as possibilities for on-going professional development (John, 2013).

Generally speaking, trainees should grow and acquire the abilities, information, and comprehension that provide them with self-assurance and a positive outlook so they can deal with a variety of wants in an efficient manner. Then, to help students prepare for their future careers, teacher education institutes must assess and enhance the design of their courses (Khan & Intakhab, 2023).

As stated by Gitterman (2008), collaborative classroom instruction and cooperative problem resolution are important components of effective inclusive practice . According to the Canadian Association for Community Living, which is a body of teacher education, colleges should create a plan that will assist instructors in implementing equitable educational practice s and help participants gain experience in creative teaching methods, collaborative behaviour, and working together (Bota, 2023).

2.12 ‘Education for All’ (EFA)

The issue of inclusion has to be framed within the context of wider international discussions around the United Nations’ agenda on “Education for All” (EFA), as stimulated by the Jomtien Declaration of 1990. “The Salamanca Statement on Principles, Policy, and Practice in Special Needs Education” UNISCO (2010) provides a framework for developing policy and practice forward. Indeed, this statement and its accompanying framework for action are arguably the most significant international documents that have ever appeared in special education. It argued that regular schools with an inclusive orientation are “the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, building an inclusive society, and achieving education for all.” Despite positive advances, an estimated 115–130 million children still fail to go to school, notwithstanding positive advances. Over 80 million of these children reside in Africa, and 90% reside in low- or lower-middle-income nations.

Similarly, the Ministry of Education and UNICEF (2012) found that many people who do enrol in primary school leave before they finish elementary school. It has not been possible to adequately address the needs of children and teenagers who are at risk of discrimination or exclusion through current policies and initiatives. Initiatives in the past include associations, expert instructors, and specialised classes. Although well-intentioned, the unfavourable outcome of this distinction has often been more difficult to exclude. Reaching the EFA and MDGs 2 within the deadlines set forth would necessitate

unprecedented levels of intersectional and interagency cooperation across partners (MoE, 2016).

It is important to view education as a tool for promoting human growth and abilities in all individuals, irrespective of physical obstacles. Disabilities, whether mental, physical, or emotional, cannot serve as barriers to admission. Thus, inclusiveness entails embracing a wide definition of education for all and attending to the range of needs of all students, especially those who are at risk of discrimination and being excluded (Zegey, 2022in, 2008).

Everybody's right to inclusion in education, as per UNESCO, inclusion is defined as "a dynamic strategy that recognises individual differences as possibilities for enhancing learning rather than obstacles and responds constructively to student variety." As a result, the shift towards inclusion is a movement with a distinct mind-set in addition to being a technological or organisational shift. To ensure the successful implementation of inclusion, nations must establish a set of inclusive principles and useful suggestions to direct the shift towards inclusion-related policies in education. The inclusive ideals outlined in several international declarations are a good starting point. Therefore, it is possible to interpret and modify these to suit the specific circumstances of other nations. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which asserts that "everybody has the right to education," is the cornerstone of inclusive education. At the basic and primary levels, education must be free (MoE, 2012).

2.13 Constraints on Implementing Inclusive Education

2.13.1 Lack of Parental and Community Involvement

Likewise, Beaton, M and Burke, A and Dharan, V and Galkiene, A and Kyrö-Ämmälä, O and Lakkala, S and Löfström, J and Maxwell (2022) defined inclusion as an educational approach and philosophy that affords all students community belonging and greater opportunities for academic and social success. Inclusion means ensuring that every

student feels welcome regardless of intimidation and that their unique needs and learning styles are considered and valued (Musa, 2019). It is clear that one of the main causes of the lack of awareness between the home and school contexts in which inclusive education was held was parents' inaccurate and out-of-date contact information (Williams & Sánchez, 2013 ; Muhammed, 2022).

Educational governments and schools are not the only entities responsible for achieving the objective of providing children with particular educational needs with a good education. To achieve this, families must work together, community and volunteer groups must be mobilised, and the public must support the effort. According to Parveen (2018), numerous important lessons can be learned from the experiences of nations and regions that have made strides in providing equitable educational opportunities for children and teenagers with particular learning requirements (Owino et al., 2018).

Seeking community engagement can help address a lack of family support, augment in-school operations, and assist with activities. In this regard, it is important to note the involvement of youth clubs and movements, family organisations, neighbourhood associations, and the potential contribution of older adults and other volunteers—including those with disabilities—to after-school and in-school applications (Salamanca, 1994).

In addition to the above statements, Salamanca (1994), the community must determine whether a community-based effort that is started outside of it will be integrated into on-going efforts to develop the community. It is important to provide different community partners, such as groups that support people with disabilities and other non-governmental organisations, with the authority to oversee the programme. Government organisations at the municipal and federal levels should also provide financial and other assistance as necessary.

2.13.2 School Facilities

As Okongo et al., (2015) emphasised one of the greatest concerns in realising inclusive education is the deficiency of resources to affect inclusion. Access to funding is a key component of inclusive education. In terms of funding, support for inclusive education should be allocated on a needs basis rather than based on the labelling and categorisation of certain individuals (Musyoka, 2018). In addition, studies indicate that when given access to the breadth of the general education curriculum and the appropriate support systems and accommodations, most students learn and perform better (Maulidina, 2019). Inclusion does not mean lowering the bar for academic performance or content in the classroom. On the other hand, inclusion may benefit students learning and special needs or not. The objective is to give every child the teaching they require to excel as learners and meet high standards alongside their classmates and neighbours. Students learn and utilise the information they receive in diverse ways (Tewoderos, 2014).

Most necessary adjustments have nothing to do with including students with special needs. They are a component of a larger educational reform that is necessary to rise all students' learning attainment levels and enhance the quality and relevance of instruction. The World Declaration on Education for All emphasised the necessity of a child-centred strategy to guarantee every child's effective education. As highlighted by Moh. Rif'attullah & Ciptaningrum (2024) adopted more adaptable, flexible systems that can fully address children's diverse needs and support inclusiveness in education as well as academic achievement (Salamanca Statement, 1994).

The creation of a welcoming, caring, and respectful atmosphere for students is a prerequisite for their learning. The ability to encourage learning is a crucial component of effectiveness and inclusivity. When students are willing to move outside of their comfort

zone to discover and express new ideas, as well as to collaborate with peers in other groups, supportive and effective learning settings are visible (Mariga et al., 2014).

According to MoE (2012), educational institutions with strong moral missions are both inclusive and effective. Regardless of a student's aptitude or impairment, the goal is to help them learn how to stay involved in the learning process. According to the Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap (2018), although it is now widely acknowledged in the teaching profession that all students can learn regardless of ability or disability, there are still circumstances in which this belief cannot always be realised. These conditions can affect students' learning because the programme sets clear expectations for students' learning, requires effort from them, and arranges its resources to maximise the possibilities for student learning (Hasan et al., 2023).

The traditional staff mix in schools is shifting because of innovative approaches taken by schools to meet students' learning requirements. They have engaged youth workers, counsellors, special education instructors, and therapists in addition to classroom teachers. Special education personnel can enhance and expand the abilities of educators and other individuals who work in a school context to help students with special needs (MoE, 2012).

Students with disabilities in public schools, particularly those in impoverished or urban areas, sometimes struggle to navigate conventional learning environments because of the high expense of making necessary modifications, even though the 'Individuals with Disabilities Education Act' (IDEA) requires that they be taught in the least restrictive setting possible. Attitude barriers and a lack of ability to execute inclusive practices and techniques are the main obstacles that prevent instructors from teaching compassionately (Sharma & Michael, 2017). Furthermore, most secondary school teachers reported having little understanding of pedagogy and psychological topics. They believed that "chalk and talk" methods of instruction were the foundation of secondary school curricula and exam-driven

instructors. Secondary educators often lack pedagogical competence or are unwilling to admit it. If teachers had not realised this, they would not have looked for or welcomed opportunities to gain new knowledge (Sharma & Kumar, 2019).

2.13.3 School Management

Accordingly, Salamanca's 1994 statement argued that if granted the requisite power and sufficient training, local administrators and school heads can significantly contribute to improving schools' responsiveness to students with special educational needs. They should be asked to create more adaptable management practices, reorganise educational materials, expand learning opportunities, organise peer-to-peer support, assist students who are having problems and cultivate strong links with the community and parents. The creation of productive collaborative environments to satisfy the requirements of students, as well as the continual and creative engagement of teachers and staff, are essential components of excellent school administration (Logofătu, M. et al., 2020).

Similarly, the Salamanca conference (1994) gave emphasis that school heads have a special responsibility in promoting positive attitudes throughout the school community and in arranging for effective cooperation between class teachers and support staff. Appropriate arrangements for support and the exact role played by various partners in the educational process should be decided through consultation and negotiation (Salamanca statement, 1994). Although Nigeria passed an inclusive education policy in 2008, the country still faces socioeconomic challenges, insufficient money, infrastructure shortage, teacher preparation for inclusive teaching methods, and organisational issues in schools (Melaku, 2018). Many educational institutions have dilapidated buildings lacking labs, library resources and other support services (Biswas, 2021 ; Meremikwu & Ibok, 2020 ; Akanmu & Isiaka, 2016).

In contrast, there are significant obstacles to inclusive schooling in Uganda. These include a lack of accessibility devices, insufficient instruction for educators in inclusive

methods, inadequate funding, and negative cultural views towards disability. These factors dissuade learning institutions from allocating resources to equitable education (Abimanyi-Ochom, J., & Mannan, 2014)

To successfully address students' educational requirements and eliminate obstacles to implementing the concept of inclusive education, schools must establish mechanisms for inclusive methods. The term "adapting the school procedures" refers to changing the overall school climate to promote an environment free of obstacles for education (Fullan, 2015). Also Effective inclusion is impacted by inadequate facilities (Parveen, 2018).

The creation of a welcoming, caring, and respectful atmosphere for students is a prerequisite for their learning (Kern & Wehmeyer, 2021). The ability to encourage learning is a crucial component of effectiveness and inclusivity. When students are prepared to step outside of their comfort zone to explore and communicate new ideas, as well as to collaborate with peers in other groups, encouraging and effective educational circumstances are visible, to take on assistant or managerial duties, as well as more individual accountability for controlling their learning (Hankebo, 2018).

Furthermore, well-established learning environments should support teaching collaboration, the employment of teaching assistants, specialists, or trained employees, and provide greater freedom in terms of changing the size and makeup of instructional groups throughout the school setting (Alzahrani, 2020). The largest obstacle to inclusiveness appears to be educators who either try to avoid planning and teaching for variety because it takes a longer period to prepare lessons or who do not know how to do so (Tefera & Van Engen, 2016). More varied access to learning materials is required for teachers. Even in the case of an outcome-based curriculum, external tests may still play a significant role in the programme of study. Looking at superficial activities, school management (Sharma & Kumar, 2019).

2.13.4 Educational Policies

All people should have access to education, as it is one of their fundamental rights. For all people, including those with disabilities, McLeod (2018), it is a means of achieving success in both life and the workplace. Individuals with disabilities are entitled to educational services because they are members of a particular society and humans. Thus, the concern of providing equal access and opportunities for students with disabilities across all educational levels has garnered the interest of many parties (Tefera, 2014). Providing for the preparation of instructors to instruct all students is a crucial component of equitable education (Leider et al., 2021).

The achievement of inclusion is contingent on educators who are capable change agents who possess the values, expertise, and mind-set necessary for each child to thrive. School systems are rapidly shifting from recognising problems with children to recognising impediments to learning, despite variances in expectations for educators and qualifications (Hayes & Bulat, 2017b). In order to fully implement this change, the educational system must provide opportunities for professional development and instruction for teachers that challenge the long-held belief that some students are flawed, unable to succeed in gaining knowledge, or incompetent (UNESCO, 2020).

“The right to inclusive education encompasses a transformation in culture, policy, and practice in all formal and informal educational environments to accommodate the differing requirements and identities of individual students, together with a commitment to remove the barriers that impede that possibility. (UN 2016, 3)”

Assuredly, Charema (2010), although in favour of diversity, contends that emerging economies have not yet reached the stage where equitable learning is required in all educational institutions across the board. Any educator working in conventional schools must be prepared to teach students of diverse backgrounds, regardless of their unique

characteristics. Every child should have access to all educational materials and other activities related to school (Stentiford & Koutsouris, 2022). Numerous obstacles have been identified in the way of authorities' attempts to implement equitable schooling globally (Parveen, 2018).

According to Shields (2018) the effectiveness of inclusive education critically depends on government assistance and administration. The development and execution of equitable educational programmes are complicated in the absence of policies and guidelines (Greene, 2017). Established broad educational policies serve as a blueprint for nations to successfully implement universal education. Countries in Africa like Ethiopia, Uganda, Burkina Faso, South Africa, and Kenya, have enacted legislation and policies to implement inclusive education (MoE, 2016).

Special attention should be given to the specific requirements of students and teens who have many or severe disabilities (N'jie, 2014). Along with everyone else in the community, they should have access to the best education available to them in order to fulfil their dream of growing up to be as self-sufficient as possible (Kirac et al., 2022). In relation to this right to education for students with hearing difficulties, various regulations and declarations have been prepared and are expected to be implemented. Uniform rules providing equal opportunity to individuals with disabilities have been established by the United Nations (UNICEF, 2013).

Dugarova (2015) stated that the promotion of equitable participation for people with impairments has received particular focus in the standard guidelines. To meet these needs, measures for the provision of healthcare, rehabilitation, accessibility, employment, and education were considered. The new 'Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities' makes the right to education very evident.

Secondary school principals must pledge their support for taking steps to make their institution more comprehensive and to help the teaching staff carry out the inclusion policy in the classroom (Costello & Boyle, 2013). Policies regarding education for students with disabilities are becoming more stringent in Ethiopia's government. The 'Ethiopian Ministry of Education' states that the Ethiopian Constitution upholds the universal right to education and highlights the necessity of allocating funds and aiding marginalised communities (ACPF, 2010). Specifically, the constitution (articles 41 and 91) outlines the state's obligation to provide the required rehabilitation and support services for individuals with disabilities. Additionally, Ethiopia has accepted many international agreements and conventions pertinent to inclusive education (Maclachlan et al., 2014 ; Butz & Cook, 2017).

The 'Education and Training Policy' (1994) in Ethiopia seems to favour special education in the current context. Apart from the provisions mentioned in the education policy, the 'Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia' (FDRE) 1995 constitution states in Article 90 that "policy should strive to ensure that all Ethiopians have access to public health and education, to the degree that national resources allow" (FDRE, 2014).

In reality, very few students with special needs receive the benefits of special education, despite efforts to create new policies for education that grant equal access to all individuals. One of the main causes of the low enrolment of special needs students in schools seems to be the unfavourable attitudes that society has about people with disabilities (Tilahun, 2023).

As the "expansion of quality primary education to all citizens is not only a right but also a guarantee for development," educators and students must adopt a favourable mind-set towards the incorporation of students with special needs into regular classrooms for integration to become a reality as an effective educational practice in the Ethiopian context (Abebe, 2014). Additionally, it guarantees that economically exploited groups will receive

extra assistance in training, development, and policy. It also seeks to provide education to all children without prejudice (Debela et al., 2020).

As Howgego et al., (2014) highlighted, evidence supporting inclusive education in African nations is insufficient and dispersed. Learners with disabilities face challenges in Africa because of inaccessible locations, unaccommodating policies, unfavourable attitudes, biased application and admission processes, and a lack of accessibility regulations and options(Burningham et al., 2024).

Research on the execution of policies has revealed that the capacity to perform a policy determines its comprehension (Viennet & Pont, 2017). It is well recognised that many development initiatives in many nations fail because of a lack of institutional capacity to perform and maintain policy practices. The ability to carry out policy functions, resolve issues, and establish and achieve policy goals is the standard definition of capability (Hehir et al., 2016; Bell & Stevenson, 2015).

2.13.5 Teacher Gender Factors

To create a more comprehensive school, educator involvement is essential (Parveen, 2018). Research has indicated that the demographic characteristics of educators, including age and gender, may impact the provision of inclusive education. Alghazo et al., (2004) found that research in Dubai supported Loria (2010) results from Georgia on the impact of educators' gender on the adoption of inclusive education. Research indicates that female instructors have a more favourable attitude towards inclusiveness compared to their male counterparts (Boyle et al., 2013). Another research investigation conducted in Spanish secondary schools revealed no appreciable gender differences in the practice s of inclusive learning among teachers (Singh et al., 2020 ; Triviño-Amigo et al., 2022).

These results, however, were at odds with studies from the United Arab Emirates and India that claimed that instructors' sex had no appreciable impact on the adoption of inclusive

education Bibiana et al., (2020) ; Wangio (2014) ; Awal (2015b) ; Costello & Boyle (2013) investigated "secondary school teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education." The study found no difference in the attitudes of male and female teachers.

As evidenced by Majoko et al., (2018) in studies conducted in South Africa, the gender of the head teacher had no bearing on how inclusive education was run because both genders were adept at managing inclusive institutions. However, another South African study found that female instructors were favoured over male teachers when dealing with students at lower levels who frequently weep and relieve each other during class (Mashiya, 2014 ; Wangio, 2014).

Studies conducted in Kenya demonstrated that gender imbalances in head teacher and educator arrangements negatively impacted inclusion because male teachers were less accepting of inclusive education than female teachers, which hindered the enrolment of students with special needs in regular schools (Emily & McLaughlin, 2014). Similarly, Kaur's (2020) study of a secondary school in India found that male and female teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education were better; hence, females were better.

In contrast, in terms of teacher attitudes and knowledge (feelings), men have a better significance difference than women in the implementation of inclusive education (Parveen, 2018). In contrast, studies in Pakistan by Imran et al., (2024) and in Kosovo by Uka (2024) showed that there was no significant difference between male and female primary school teachers' attitudes towards inclusive school students. Nazim et al. (2023) similarly found that gender had no effect on teachers' attitudes.

Research findings by McKay (2016) in North Florida and Loria (2010) in Georgia revealed that older instructors had a more unfavourable attitude towards inclusion than younger teachers, which had an impact on the implementation of inclusive education.

However, research from the UAE has revealed that the age of instructors had no bearing whatsoever on inclusive education strategies used (Dukmak, 2013;Wangio, 2014a).

Research conducted in Zululand, South Africa, revealed that the age of instructors impacted inclusive education adoption. Older teachers were shown to be less able to adapt to new teaching techniques; hence, it was deemed prudent to exclude them from the inclusive system (Chitiyo et al., 2020). This was in contrast to research in Tanzania and Kenya, which showed that more experienced educators were more adept at implementing inclusive education than less experienced educators (Patrick, 2013 ; Hofman & Kilimo, 2014;Wangio, 2014a).

On the same path, Okech et al.,(2021) confirmed that the successful implementation of inclusive education also involves the use of effective teaching practice s (such as creating instructional adaptations) to meet the needs of students with disabilities (Kocha & Senapathy, 2022). Other factors contributing to this success include a favourable mind set towards inclusive education, successful educational procedures, and adequate teacher knowledge of inclusion. The majority of mainstream administrators' and teachers' attitudes regarding inclusion were frequently unfavourable, despite the fact that role practice , teacher understanding, and mind-sets are considered essential for efficacious inclusiveness (Alhassan, 2014).

Research conducted in Hadiya, Ethiopia, revealed issues with the attitudes, skills, and abilities of educators, as well as how inclusive programmes are run in schools. According to Ludago (2020), more recent research has revealed that many children with disabilities do not always benefit from inclusive education; this is due to a lack of specialised instructional abilities, unfavourable teacher attitudes, and a lack of awareness of inclusion on the part of school administrators. Mintesinot (2018), strongly acknowledged the inflexibility of school curricula and the absence of frequent in-service training opportunities for educators, which

impeded innovative efforts for inclusive programming and included principals' lack of support. In addition to the teacher's gender, it was found that male teachers tended to be more negative than female teachers.

2.13.6 Teachers' Teaching Experiences

The adoption of inclusive education by instructors is influenced by their experience working with students with special needs. Research conducted in the United States by the 'Centre for Personnel Studies in Special Education' revealed that more experienced teachers were better at identifying and forecasting learning obstacles that helped students with disabilities overcome such obstacles (Brownell et al., 2011). Additional research revealed that teachers with less than six years of experience were more accepting of students with physical limitations, whereas those with six to ten years of experience revealed a decline in this respect (Avramidis & Norwich, 2010; Wangio, 2014b; Awal, 2015b).

In terms of teachers teaching experience, there are no statistically significant differences in their attitudes (Karacabey et al., 2019; Uka, 2024). Studies conducted in Talisay District, Division of Batangas, in Philippines; by Masongsong et al., (2023) found that teaching experience does not significantly affect inclusive education implementation. Instructors in larger classrooms did not significantly change their attitudes despite years of experience working with students who required extra help (Boyle et al., 2013).

Unlike wise Wangio (2014a); Ní Bhroin & King (2020) teachers, older teachers had a negative attitude towards inclusive teaching. In addition, teachers who were teaching in secondary schools had less favour than those who were teaching in primary schools. This is all in all factors: a lack of pre-service and in-service training and policies were the main barriers to implementing inclusive education. Inconsistently, Costello and Boyle (2013) investigated statistically significant differences in the attitudes of teachers who have more or less experience. More experienced teachers preferred inclusive settings.

Research conducted in Northern Ireland revealed that less experienced educators—for example, pre-service teachers who had little interaction with students with a variety of special needs—were more positive about inclusion than more experienced educators. Previous research in Dubai showed that although instructors with 12 years of experience embraced inclusive education, those with less experience were less supportive of it (Siolou & Angelov, 2023).

According to Mokaleng & Möwes (2020) educators in Kenya with extensive experience teaching students with special needs exhibit greater tolerance and confidence when managing inclusive classroom environments. To create an inclusive educational system, it is imperative to focus on teacher preparation and effectiveness (Cynthia & Osanloo, 2014). However, secondary school teachers' length of service was not a significant factor influencing their attitude (Boyle et al., 2013).

Above all, Adewumi & Mosito (2019) identified that one of the major obstacles to preventing students with disabilities from participating fully in education is the shortage of qualified teachers. Training teachers will help them become more knowledgeable and have better attitudes towards educating students with impairments (Ahmmed et al., 2012b). Additional research on the fundamentals and features of inclusive assessment and Cabanová & Integracyjnej (2019) accountability systems revealed that perceptions of particular problem areas include inadequate teacher preparation and a lack of positive attitudes among teachers; major challenges in teacher preparation centre on producing sufficient teachers and developing suitable professionals (Kebede & Phasha, 2024).

The further emphasis given on the investigation's context and the competence of professionals in inclusive education practice revealed those teacher educators' expertise, skills, mind-sets and convictions are essential to enhancing inclusion and equipping them to satisfy every student's requirements in inclusion teaching Malle & Yehualawork (2015).

Investigations by Able et al., (2015) revealed that the expertise, abilities, mind-sets, and convictions of educator educators are generally regarded as critical to establishing an inclusive classroom and its implementation, particularly for trainees with disabilities. In order to effectively prepare lessons, assign assignments, and use communication techniques that help them meet the needs and capacities of every student, teachers working in an inclusive environment must acquire the necessary training (Munna & Kalam, 2021).

Therefore, professional educators' expertise and skills, as well as normal classroom teachers' feelings and beliefs to meet diverse needs, are necessary for the effective implementation of an inclusive education programme (Shatila, 2020). Furthermore, studies on inclusive education practice s showed that teachers' contributions to the implementation's success accounted for the majority of the success of the programme (Save the Children, 2016).

Educators in efficient and diverse schools are familiar with their students and cognisant of their educational requirements. They can modify and implement contemporary pedagogical information and ideas in novel ways, ensuring that every student participates in significant learning opportunities(Florian, 2012) They evaluate their adaptations and work to enhance their capacity to create and implement curricula and learning activities pertinent to the needs and experiences of each child in real life (Murphy et al., 2021).

It is their responsibility to guarantee that every student has access to opportunities and choices that allow them to engage in the entire array of programmes and services offered by both the school and community. Furthermore, educators bear the dual burden of educating a student body that is becoming more diverse in terms of race and language and meeting the needs of students with special needs in ordinary classroom settings (OECD, 2013).

In a study conducted by Mosia (2014) conclusions from Lesotho indicate that teachers' negative views towards inclusive instruction are caused by ineffective in-service

training, ineffective head teacher administration, time constraints between instruction, and a lack of knowledge about effective teaching strategies for including every student with various impairments.

In contrast, a study conducted by Zelina (2020) found that educators in Slovakia have good perspectives on inclusive education and value working together with experts in the classroom. The study identified a few obstacles to the implementation of equitable schooling, such as underprivileged students' low attendance rates and overall lack of school readiness.

Unlike some studies Galaterou & Antoniou (2017); Lindner et al. (2023), and Saloviita (2020), which suggested that teachers' views of inclusion vary with age, our study showed no sex differences in teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. These findings are consistent with those of several other studies (Chhabra, Srivastava, and Srivastava 2010). Regardless of age or level of teaching experience, educators appear to have similar attitudes and are eager to engage with students who have various needs (Cabanová & Integracyjnej, 2019).

There are several reasons why age-related disparities may not exist in this setting. While older instructors draw from their depth of experience, younger teachers frequently benefit from more extensive formal education, which enhances their readiness for inclusive practice s (Groll et al., 2018). Conclusively, the information gained casts doubt on the notion that educators' direct experience with children with special needs shapes their attitudes towards inclusion. These results add to the on-going literature review (Boitumelo et al., 2020).

Some research, like Almalky and Alwahbi (2023); Parey (2019), indicates that experience has a major effect, while other studies by De Boer et al., (2012) ; Boyle et al., (2013) reveal that teachers without experience have more favourable attitudes. The findings, however, are consistent with those of Alnahdi et al. (2021) and Mukhopadhyay (2014), who

reported no appreciable variations between teachers who had previously taught special education students and those who had not.

2.13.7 Large Class Size and Inclusive Education Practice

As investigated by Tamar (2008) and Tshifura (2012) when few students are available, teachers accept an inclusive curriculum. The most frequently mentioned obstacle to establishing a productive, inclusive learning environment in the educational setting is the size of the class (Froese-germain et al., 2012). This is one of the main obstacles to inclusive education, according to many instructors. "It can be challenging to care for all abilities if the class size is too high and there are many youngsters who require particular attention." Regarding the number of students, the subtheme that surfaced challenged every student and satisfied their requirements. "Providing challenges for more intelligent students while serving everyone." Large learning environments were considered the most challenging barrier to the successful administration of inclusion, according to a study conducted in South Africa by (Swart et al., 2002).

Avramidis & Norwich (2010) discovered that 35% of English instructors concur that when students with impairments are integrated into regular classrooms, fewer than 20 students is the appropriate number of students. Other research has revealed that teachers' exposure to students with special needs, regardless of the severity of the need, improves their ability to manage inclusiveness (Mambo, 2011).

Many classroom procedures, such as categorisation strategies, routine environments, disciplinary measures, teacher-student interaction, atmosphere, and particular educational requirements, are impacted by the total number of students or class size (Evans et al., 2009). Furthermore, as class numbers increase, teachers' alternatives to using their toolkit of pedagogical skills become increasingly constrained. Larger numbers of students are more challenging to oversee, grade, and provide insightful feedback than smaller students. Larger

class sizes require more time for extracurricular activities and accountability (Pedder, 2006 ; Sowell, 2013).

Siegle et al., (2014) confirmed that as class sizes increase, teachers find it more challenging to maintain the required pace, depth, and breadth of curriculum content. Greater class sizes led to an increase in unsupervised seatwork and a decrease in students' focus. Teachers and students converse more socially in smaller courses. Finally, there is a decrease in off-task behaviour among learners enrolled in smaller courses (Pedder, 2006 ; Sowell, 2013).

2.13.8 Attitudinal Barriers in Ethiopia

The United Nations (2017) stressed that throughout an entire nation or even a geographical area; views regarding being disabled are not always the same. Beliefs in disabilities can differ across various categories or people and the broader community, as well as within local households and communities (Sharma, 2018). Ideas, mind-sets, and information about disabilities are becoming less prevalent in Ethiopia. These constructs or beliefs cause disability. Uninformed and callous media coverage reinforces unfavourable opinions. Laws and policies that reinforce discrimination and phobias may reinforce negative stereotypes about people with disabilities (ILO, 2013; Iyassu & Mckinnon, 2021).

Okech et al., (2021) stated that a person's attitude is a fundamental and essential component of their life endeavours. Sensations, preferences, dissatisfaction, behavioural goals, ideas, and thoughts all contribute to the state of mind (Adewumi & Mosito, 2019). Supporting inclusive learning is only one aspect of what makes inclusive policies successful; other factors include individuals' views (school principals, legislators, instructors, young professionals, educators, family members, and support providers), governing bodies, organisations, and the mainstream media towards inclusiveness (Avramidis & Norwich, 2010 ; UNICEF, 2013).

The effective execution of inclusive education requires certain skills and expertise; thus, it is critical to emphasise the significance of cultivating an upbeat mind set towards educational inclusion (Edward, 2015). According to Nel et al (2016) teacher preparation, positive attitudes and dispositions, pedagogical expertise, comprehension of various learning requirements, and self-efficacy are all necessary for successful teacher-training. Thus, not all educators have a positive outlook on students with special needs (Chiroodza, 2020). The ‘African Child Policy Forum’ (ACPF) found that prevalent beliefs regarding reasons for infancy impairment include curse from one's ancestors, possession by spirits, or the mother's guilt or promiscuity. These beliefs were based on field investigations conducted in Cameroon, Ethiopia, Senegal, Uganda, and Zambia (ACPF, 2010).

2.13.9 Teachers, Students, and Parents’ Knowledge and Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education

Equilibrium schooling is a widely accepted approach to learning that reflects societal growth patterns in many nations (Banks et al., 2015). Teachers’ individual perspectives and emotions regarding this particular social issue are referred to as attitudes in the larger context of equitable education, and they are crucial in fostering inclusive learning (Parveen, 2018). This is related to the obstacles to this strategy and the achievement of it. School settings with students who are not impaired, families of uninjured students, inadequately qualified instructors, and a lack of specialised educational assistance are the most frequent causes of these issues. Note that challenges and obstacles also impact achievement in special education. This involves a lack of connection between educational institutions and families, the condemnation of students, and educator readiness (Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021).

The primary intricacy of educators’ perspectives on equitable learning and the possible negative influence of teaching experiences on comprehensive education sentiments are both significant factors. Furthermore, student mentality also controls and highlights the

need to deliver equitable learning appropriately. Practically little countrywide training or assistance was available to educators or students to encourage a more favourable mind set towards inclusive practice s (Dapudong, 2014).

In a study conducted by Papadakaki et al., (2022 ; Saminder Singh et al., (2023) teachers were unsure about their understanding of the rules and regulations of equitable learning. This insecurity might make it more difficult for them to assist diverse students. They gave the impression that they were averse to changing their methods of instruction to accommodate the wide range of demands of their students. This raises the possibility of a discrepancy between the intended use of inclusive measures and their actual use.

Similarly, teachers have fewer significant knowledge and training opportunities to deliver inclusive education (Ginja & Chen, 2023). According to research by Gedfie et al., (2020) and Wondim et al., (2021) on parental engagement in learning, most parents of disabled children in the study region did not regularly monitor the activities of their children, supervise their schoolwork schedule, or provide their students with evaluations. The same scenario has been investigated by most parents without the necessary support system from both teachers and parents (Sesay, 2018).

As reported by the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (EASNIE, 2013) students in ordinary schools might include talented students, learners who are slow language learners, intellectually disabled students, restless students, emotionally challenging students, and students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. A suitable understanding of instructional techniques, sufficient teaching strategies, resources, and time to manage the range of demands in the classroom are necessary to overcome all these challenges facing the teaching profession (Fourie, 2016).

To address appropriately the expected challenges in the inclusive classroom, educators should empower with critical knowledge that is necessary for instructional adaptation in the regular classrooms to trainees with disabilities, manage the challenging behaviour of trainees with and without disabilities and collaborate with special needs education teacher educators and related services providing experts (Greene, 2017; Halder, 2023).

Regretfully, a large number of currently employed educators finished their education as educators during a period of inadequate inclusion, failing to emphasise the requisite abilities and lacking suitable experiential learning opportunities (Lee, 2016). Likewise, there are still notable disparities among educators among teachers who have attended other educational institutions in the past few years (Hills & Sessoms-Penny, 2021; Maulidina, 2019). Then, to educate in a welcoming environment of learning, instructors must be adequately prepared for the crucial role they undertake (EFA, 2003). To ensure that educators have the necessary information, expertise, and experience to effectively implement equitable educational programmes, educators should have opportunities for on-going students in pre-service and during-service expert development across their initial education (Ackah-Jnr, 2020 ; Onyesom & Igberaharha, 2021).

As a result, the effectiveness of on-going training initiatives is critical for maximising the achievement of all students in inclusive learning environments. This calls for institutional modifications to enable the widespread implementation of inclusive education that fully values each student in the classroom (Maria, 2013). Most educators also believe that if they possess sufficient expertise and skills in equitable learning, they will be better equipped to deal with the challenges and opposition they encounter in the classroom (Hofman & Kilimo, 2014).

2.14 Major Strategies to Improve Inclusive Education

As stated by Hollenweger et al., (2015) real change requires a long-term commitment to professional development. Practicing teachers is key to the successful implementation of an inclusive system, and they will need time and on-going support from school stakeholders.

In modern worldwide society, education is a vital tool for resolving issues and difficulties. In practice, it must satisfy all types of students' requirements and interests in the expanding town. An investigation by Hay & Paulsen, (2001) revealed that a typical South African teachers are either ill-prepared or unprepared to teach students inclusive learning environments. Most educators are not prepared to effectively implement inclusive education because of a lack of knowledge, skills, and training (Temesgen, 2021).

Additionally, they blamed huge class sizes, lack of facilities, lack of teacher experience, inadequacy of training, and lack of time for their lack of preparation and equipment in teaching integrated lessons (Handal et al., 2016). Likewise, instructors' views and opinions on equitable educational opportunities may become a major obstacle to student achievement and development, as well as the effective execution of inclusive education policies, if these views and opinions are not purposefully addressed (Temesgen, 2018).

By tackling the noted obstacles and problems, authorities and provincial education ministries can assist teachers in their transition towards inclusion. To prepare teachers to address the demands of a diverse classroom population, this may include offering them top-notch professional training at the pre- and in-service levels (Ahmmed et al., 2012a ; Engelbrecht et al., 2016). Furthermore, providing pertinent pre-service training is crucial to foster acceptance of all students, regardless of their ability, and to put positive mind-sets towards students with special needs. To assist teachers in successfully implementing inclusive education, it is imperative to address challenges such as lack of facilities, time, high class sizes, inadequate training, and teacher experience (Ludago, 2020). To allow teachers to

effectively transition to inclusive classrooms, a coordinated effort is required to offer the required resources, training, and support; the components that follow must be addressed properly (Gedfie et al., 2020).

- Teachers receive the necessary training, experience, and understanding to properly implement inclusive education.
- Sufficient teacher and educational support in each circumstance, accordingly.
- Overthink adequate infrastructure, facilities, and assistive device provision.
- The possible impact of inclusive education on students who require special education services in addition to regular students.
- Consideration should be given to large classrooms, unfavourable attitudes towards disability, examination-oriented education systems, rigorous teaching techniques, evaluation driven by a medical model, a lack of parent participation, and a lack of clear national policy. It is essential to address these obstacles and problems to assist educators in implementing inclusive education successfully and guaranteeing that every student can engage to the fullest extent possible (Sharma et al., 2012).

Among the main obstacles to equitable educational opportunities in Ethiopia, as identified by Temesgen (2014) ; Assefa (2018) ; (Dagneu, 2013) are limited understanding of the notion of disability, unfavourable attitudes towards people with disabilities, and a hardened reluctance to change. Instructor attitudes are considered to be a critical component of effective inclusiveness because teachers in conventional classrooms might not believe they have the knowledge and abilities necessary to address learners with limitations.

Maria (2013); Galaterou & Antoniou (2017) contended that a teacher's experiences and training greatly influence their perception of inclusive education. Positive views towards inclusion are more common among teachers who have undergone pre- and in-service training

on the educational requirements of students with special needs. However, teachers with little training and experience might not feel positively about inclusion. Advocates for the provision of training, customised curricula, resources, and support in order to foster favourable attitudes towards inclusive education (Wehbi, 2006).

To satisfy the educational requirements of children with disabilities, teachers must possess the requisite skills and expertise. Supply of resources, equipment, and support; pre-service and in-service training; and a flexible and accessible curriculum (Alemayehu, 2020; Hay & Paulsen, 2001). Moreover, it underscores the need for initiatives aimed at mitigating unfavourable attitudes towards inclusivity. For implementation to be implemented successfully, programmes should be created to counteract negative attitudes and manage the variables that lead to negative attitudes (Beyene & Tizazu, 2001 ; Neilson & Brink, 2008).

According to Temesgen (2021) there are several ramifications for advancing inclusive education in Ethiopia. To successfully implement inclusive education, it first highlights the necessity of developing positive attitudes. This suggests that it is critical to address instructors' unfavourable views and foster an atmosphere that encourages inclusive activities. Furthermore, it emphasises how important it is for teachers to have the highest level of accountability for implementing inclusive education, as well as the availability of resources, modified curricula, and training (Assefa, 2018 ; Negash, 2020).

This shows that initiatives should be taken to give educators the knowledge, tools, and assistance they need to successfully meet the needs of children with disabilities in inclusive environments. To successfully implement inclusion, actions can be taken to intervene in negative attitudes and regulate elements that contribute to unfavourable attitudes. This might involve creating focused initiatives to combat unfavourable attitudes and offer assistance to educators. Additionally, thorough measurements are required (Meidrina et al., 2017 ; SIDA, 2014 ; Costello & Boyle, 2013).

2.15 Conceptual Framework of the Study

This study intends to investigate the teacher and student levels of knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation of inclusive education and its practice in the secondary schools. The reason for this is that teachers and students need to have appropriate knowledge on the practice of inclusive education to train on the expected level to bring changes to the attitudes and implementations of inclusive education to meet the diverse needs (Tiruneh, 2019).

Therefore, improving the degree of information that represents propensity knowledge and attitude changes, as well as effective policy implementation, is necessary to assess the extent of inclusive education implementation practice in secondary schools. Using customised quantitative measures and self-assessment for every component, the application of inclusive education and the connection between variables were investigated. To incorporate both quantitative and qualitative data, a mixed sequential explanatory approach was used. In this case, the more pertinent national and international scientific discoveries and the variables under investigation were included in the literature review.

Similarly, Bronfenbrenner's ecological model theory served as the primary foundation for this study's theoretical framework. As a result, this inquiry considered the physical layout of the classroom, the educational framework, the classroom size, the application of various activities, and the use of resources in the teaching-learning process with the involvement of teachers. The abilities, expertise and attitudes of teachers to execute inclusive education in accordance with policy directives. These particular exercises aided in the investigation of the degree of understanding, attitudes, and the application of policies for the efficient use of inclusive education. This study also explored the interrelationship between each variable. The authors have set this framework.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of inclusive education development

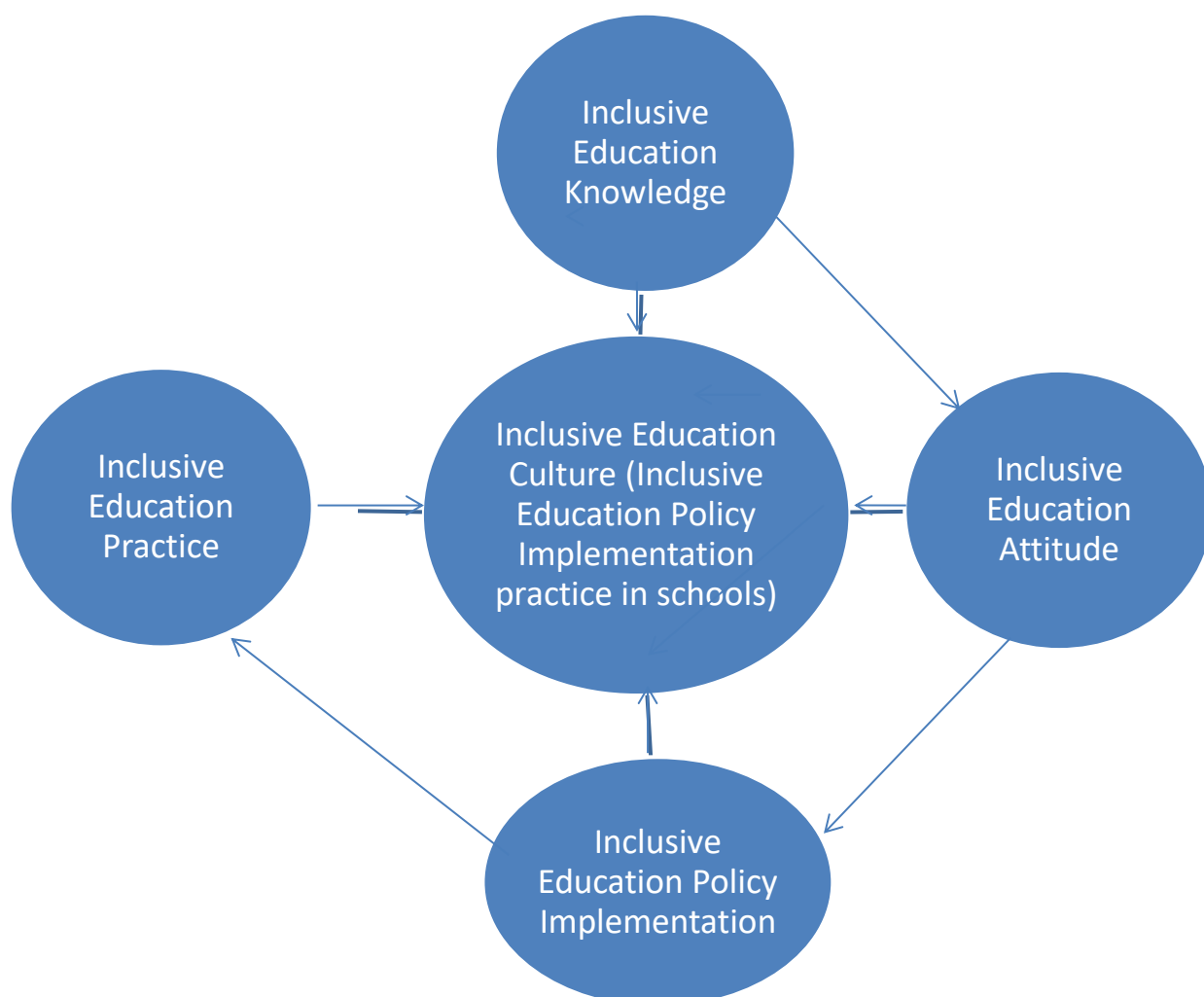


Figure: By Author

2.16 Chapter Summary

One of the most important aspects of education for students with diverse learning challenges is inclusive education. The idea of inclusive education has evolved recently to include all students who may feel excluded and vulnerable in their learning environments, not only those with disabilities. The conversations that sparked the push for diversity in education are examined, and an extensive summary of the value of inclusion in education is given in this chapter. International and Ethiopian settings have been examined in relation to inclusive

education. With particular reference to Ethiopia's adoption of inclusive education, a more thorough analysis of the country's educational system was conducted.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

This section filters out methods and methodological approaches. The current study looked at secondary school inclusive education implementation practices in the Awi Administration Zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. In fact, the previous chapters described the introductory and theoretical frameworks with a literature review. Similarly, the perspective of inclusive education has been discussed in the preceding chapter. The investigation design and research technique are presented in detail in this chapter.

In addition to demographic variables and sampling techniques, data collection methods, research paradigm, methodology, and design, pilot studies, and research site descriptions are included. This chapter also discusses the research's ethical concerns and the data's consistency, reliability, and credibility. The study's underlying research objectives of this study are presented in the following subheadings in detail.

In conclusion, this research is guided by the following questions:

1. To what extent is inclusive education practiced in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
2. What are the constraints on inclusive education practices in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
3. What measures have been taken in place to improve the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
4. What are the knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation of teachers and students regarding inclusive education practice s in secondary schools in the Awi zone?
5. Is there any significant difference in the implementation of inclusive education in the Awi zone?

By

- ✓ Teachers' and students' genders
- ✓ Number of students/class size
- ✓ Teachers' service years/experience/

3.2 Research Paradigm

The hypothesis states that researchers should employ a research paradigm whose assumptions are most appropriate for the phenomena under investigation. Investigator's perspectives influence the investigations they choose to conduct, which are known as research paradigms (Denzin, 2012). According to Bloom & Reenen (2013), research paradigms are haphazard groups of logically connected presumptions, ideas, and concepts that guide reasoning and investigation.

Researches paradigms help identify presumptions and viewpoints that shape an investigator's analysis of a question or study. Similarly, Leech et al., (2010) identified the core belief frameworks that form the basis for investigation pillars of research paradigms are ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (the connection between the knower and the known), and methodology (the process of study). Positivism, post-positivism, constructivism, and critical theory are research paradigms that guide investigator's thought process (Nugroho, 2018).

3.2.1 Positivism

The term positivism is an ideology that upholds the idea that only information that is "factual" and derived from experience (through the senses), especially measuring, is reliable. The sole responsibility of the person conducting the positivist study is to gather data and analyse it objectively. In other words, the researcher conducts the study as an impartial investigator, distancing himself from his/her views. Research results in such investigations are often measurable and visible (Haefeli et al., 2009).

Measurable experiences that result in statistical analysis form the foundation of positivity. As a school of thought, positivism agrees with empiricist theory, which holds that knowledge derives from people's experiences, according to some observations. From an ontological and atomistic perspective, the universe is made up of distinct, visible components and occurrences that communicate in a predictable, detectable way (Park et al., 2020). Thus far in this study, it is important to adopt quantitative research approaches in some aspects.

3.2.2 Constructivism

This study is also grounded in constructivism in its qualitative form as a research paradigm is grounded in people's subjective and multifaceted worldviews and feelings (Aalberg et al., 2012 ; De Oliveira et al., 2018). The implementation of inclusive education in the Awi administrative zone, Amhara region of Ethiopia, was studied in relation to the experiences, opinions, and perceptions of secondary school students and teachers.

As explained by Krauss (2015), the constructivism research paradigm holds that there are several realities that are contingent upon a particular circumstance or environment rather than a single reality. This study addressed the diverse understandings, implementations, practices, and concerns of secondary school teachers in relation to inclusive education. According to the constructivist research paradigm, reality varies among groups, peers, and individuals, and it is a subjective experience.

This study paradigm helps clarify and comprehend the many viewpoints, experiences, and perceptions that people have. According to Guba & Lincoln (2011) they practically used the implementation practice s of inclusive education in secondary schools as a framework for suggesting techniques and ideas to improve the programme's overall implementations and practice s. In addition, the constructivist investigation paradigm's epistemological premise is that people create their own understanding of reality. Furthermore, Babchuk, W.A., & Badiee (2010) stated that social factors play a major role in the creation of reality. The adoption of

inclusive learning implementations in secondary schools is primarily a personal responsibility.

In addition, the constructivism research paradigm uses qualitative methods as its methodological framework for investigation (Choy, 2014). As demonstrated by Eide & Ingstad (2011), the choice of research technique is based mostly on the study purpose and research questions. Understanding and interpreting the meanings of phenomena assigned to topics under consideration is the goal of the constructivist research paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 2011). The investigator obtains a better understanding and clarification of inclusive learning implementations in secondary schools attributable to the constructivist research paradigm in this case.

According to Kennedy & Kennedy (2016), the constructivism research paradigm contends that interacting with participants in their social environment and spending time with them is the best way to fully understand the subject under investigation. The researcher could support the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone, Amhara regional state, Ethiopia, by applying the paradigm. This was the study's methodology, which included collecting qualitative information through individual interviews and non-participant observation (Gentles et al., 2015).

3.2.3 Pragmatism

In the pragmatic view, investigators maintain objectivity throughout the data collection and analysis processes while acknowledging their opinion. In the work of scholars, pragmatism has garnered significant support as a position for researchers using mixed methods (Rae, 2019). Placing it in connecting philosophy and techniques, pragmatics "makes connections between concerns at the mechanistic level of practical processes and the intangible level of epistemological". It is the most widely used option for investigators who use mixed methodologies (Tashakkori et al., 2012 ; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

Study methodologists and empirical investigators would benefit from considering and debating pragmatism within mixed-methods study action because it provides an immediate and helpful middle ground in terms of philosophy and methodology; offers a practical and outcome-oriented approach to investigation that is action-based and repeatedly leads to additional action and the removal of doubt; and provides a means of choosing approaches.

Combinations that can help investigators solve most of the study subjects Onwuegbuzie et al., (2010) ; view pragmatism as an "approach" as opposed to a worldview. This strategy gives researchers the flexibility to select study processes, methodologies, and strategies that best suit their goals and objectives. combinations of techniques "here, research is defined precisely as the category of research in which an investigator integrates or blends quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, methods, notions, or terminology into one investigation" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

"Sometimes reality is what matters. It does not rest on a dualism between the reality existing within the mind and reality existing outside of it. To give the greatest knowledge of a study topic, researchers employ qualitative as well as quantitative information in combination research" (Creswell, 2009).

The subjective nature and realism are also not mutually exclusive. Pragmatists concur with positive thinkers and post-positivism in their observation, measurement, and, to some extent, understanding of individuals. They do recognise, nevertheless, that there are several interpretations of reality rather than a single fact (Illing, 2013 ; Turyahikayo, 2014).

It is known as "inter-subjectivity," according to Morgan (2007), who also claims that "there is no contradiction with stating the fact that there is a singular 'actual world' and that each human has a distinct perception of that reality." This enables researchers to consider

research concerns from both global and micro perspectives. Investigators conducting cultural investigations also make this claim (Pansiri, 2005 ; McCrorie, 2018).

3.3 Research Approach (Mixed Methods)

As it is well known, methodologies can be quantitative, qualitative, or mixed in nature. To elucidate the use of a mixed approach in this study, it is necessary to define mixed methods research. The term refers to a method that involves gathering, evaluating, and combining qualitative and quantitative data at certain points in a study to gain a deeper understanding of the research topic. There are several mixed-methods research designs to select from, despite the fact that mixed-methods research is still unfavourable to many researchers to triangulate gaps on both sides (Stephenson, 2021).

Research design tackles several facets of the research process, ranging from philosophical presumptions to data collection and analysis, as stated by Creswell et al., (2016) further explained that if a design uses both quantitative and qualitative methods at any point—during the formulation of research questions, sampling plans, methods for gathering data, methods for conducting analysis, or conclusions—it may be classified as mixed .

Various scholars, including Cameron (2010) have provided a typology of mixed-methods study designs. Typologies are categorisation frameworks used to explain different mixed-method designs. It is contended that because the typologies contain implicit guidelines, protocols, and standards for combining data, they are crucial to effective practice. However, Akinyode & Khan (2018) and Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2015) classified mixed-methods designs into a three-dimensional typology that includes the following:

- (a) The degree of mixing (completely Vs partially mixed);
- (b) Timing (sequential Vs concurrent); and
- (c) The methods' emphasis (equal status Vs dominating status).

According to Shukla (2020) , typologies are needed for the following reasons:

These benefits include the following:

- i. Helping establish a flexible organisational structure for the field;
- ii. enhancing the credibility of the social and behavioural sciences in particular and the field of education in general by offering examples of research designs that differ significantly from mono-method designs;
- iii. Advancing a common language for the field of mixed methods;
- iv. Provide direction and guidance to researchers in designing mixed methods studies; and
- v. The potential to improve the instruction of mixed methods research courses.

However, current classifications address four core issues of mixed methods:

- (a) Priority (QUAN or QUAL dominant or equal);
- (b) Implementation (parallel, sequential, conversion, multilevel, or combination);
- (c) Integration; and
- (d) Theoretical perspective (implicit or explicit and related to purpose or research questions).

3.4 Research Design (Sequential Explanatory Mixed Method Design)

In conducting an investigation, the research design is the plan for how to conduct research on a certain issue. A summary of mixed-methods research is necessary before defining a sequential mixed-method design. The term mixed refers to a method that involves gathering, evaluating, and combining qualitative and quantitative data at a certain point in a study to gain a deeper understanding of the research topic and its variables(Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2018). Given that many researchers have found mixed-methods research to be somewhat perplexing, there are many mixed-methods research designs from which to select.

Additionally, Boru (2018) stated that research design takes into account several facets of the research process, ranging from data analysis to philosophical presumptions. They further stated that a design may be deemed mixed if it incorporates quantitative and qualitative methods at any point in the process, such as when developing research questions, sampling plans, methods for gathering data, techniques for data analysis, or conclusions.

Authors have provided a typology of mixed-methods research designs, including (Alivernini, 2012 ; Clark & Designing, 2009). Typologies are defined as categorisation schemes that are employed to characterise different mixed-method designs. They contend that the typologies are essential to successful practice because they incorporate processes, mixing criteria, and implicit regulations.

Figure 2: Flowchart of Implementing a Mixed Sequential Explanatory Design

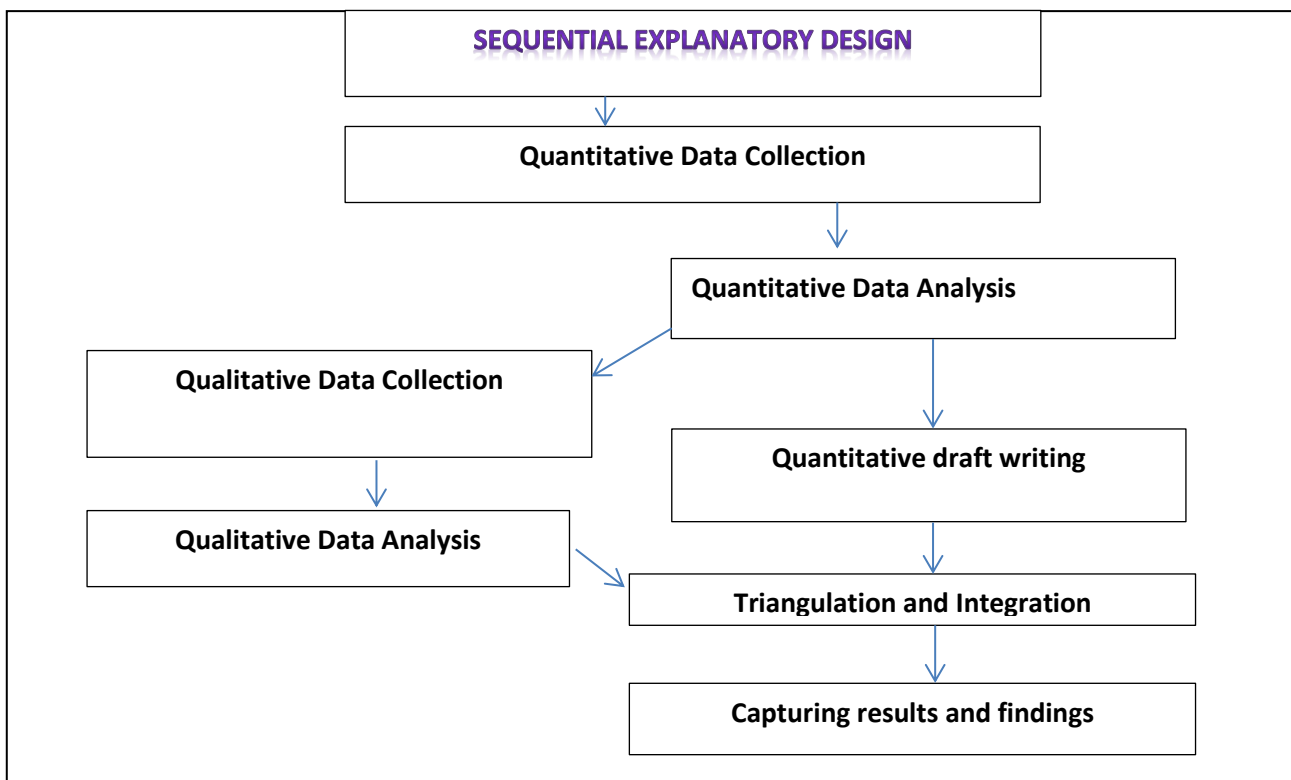


Figure: By Author

3.5 Population and Sampling Techniques

A sample can be a subset of measures taken from a population that the researcher is interested in, or it might include members of the community who are considered for participation in the study. Shukla (2020) argued that mixed methods sampling is a research phase that consists of three stages: conceptualisation, experiential, and inferential. The researcher aims to create a representative sample that yields valuable data by utilising a combination of methodologies (Carlin, 2016). It should be mentioned that sampling choices in mixed methods are often decided before an investigation is conducted (Palinkas et al., 2015).

In essence, mixed-method sampling is defined as a purposive sampling methodology that includes identifying population subgroups and purposefully choosing individuals from each segment (Taherdoost, 2018). Conversely, purposive and simple random sampling is utilised in sequential mixed-method sampling for participant selection. The employment of a Quan → Qual strand in this investigation was used. This indicates that the principals and home room teacher participants were chosen from among the participants in all three schools using purposive sampling for interviewing. Nonetheless, a straightforward and simple random selection method was used to select the student and teacher participants.

The population for this study consists of public secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone of the Amhara region, Ethiopia. The participants of are students, classroom teachers, and principals. The total population of this study were secondary school students from Chagni town Hidase secondary school, 1338 students (M = 605 and F = 733) and teachers 128 (M = 92 and F = 36); from Dangila town Mengesha Jembere secondary school, 2,600 (M = 1397 and F = 1203) and teachers 145 (M = 99 and F = 46); from Injibara town Agew Midir secondary school, 2606 (M = 1383 and F = 1223); and teachers 153 (M =

96 and F = 57), respectively. From this figure, the total population of the study was 6,544 students, and 426 teachers were included in the population.

Additionally, two from each school, for a total of six principals, were purposefully selected. To collect data about social behaviours, systems as a whole, incidents, and individuals during the research, a representative sample is chosen from the broader community based on shared features. Individuals who fit specific criteria and offer pertinent information during concentrated conversations to further comprehend the subject matter (Delamont, 2012).

To select samples from the population, the following sampling techniques have been utilised: First, districts were chosen purposefully; then, schools were selected, and participants were selected using an appropriate sampling technique. The researcher's aim and rationale for selecting the site and title were that no research studies have been conducted in this area on the topic. Second, the researcher's specialisation and familiarity with the zone for best accessibility facilitate communication for data collection processes. Third, to minimise economic and time constraints in collecting data, it would be better to minimise the area.

Using Yamane's (1967) sample size determination formula, the researcher used the following formula for each study site to make the sample more proportional.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where

N = designates the total population

n = designates the sample size that the researcher uses;

e = designates maximum variable or margin of error (5% or 0.05) with a 95% confidence interval,

1 = designates the probability of events occurring

Therefore, the required students sample size (respondents) is calculated as follows:

- Chageni Town–Hidase Secondary School $n = \frac{1338}{1+11338(0.05)^2} = 309$
- Injibara Town-Agew Midir Secondary School $n = \frac{2606}{1+2606(0.05)^2} = 347$
- Dangila Town –Mengesha Jembere Secondary School $n = \frac{2600}{1+2600(0.05)^2} = 346$
- For teachers as Yeman’s determining minimum returned sample size for a given population table at the 95% confidence level, categorical data (400 population size, 196 samples) were selected.

To illustrate briefly, the following table gives an adscription of the population and samples in each study area.

Study Site	School	Population						Sample size Determination	
		Student			Teacher			Students	Teachers
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total		
Chagni Town	Hidase High School	605	733	1,338	92	36	128	309	
Injibara Town	Agew Midir Secondary school	1,383	1,223	2,606	96	57	145	347	
Danigla Town	Mengesha Jembere Secondary school	1,397	1,203	2,600	99	46	153	346	
	Grand Total	3,692	2,852	6,544	296	130	426	1001	196

3.6 Piloting the Instrument

To evaluate the tool and ensure that the questions were clear and would not elicit biased replies, a pilot study of the questionnaires was carried out at one of the target schools (Forrester, 2004). In the pilot test, 40 participants completed the questionnaire and provided

input on how clear the questions were and how the instructions were written. As suggested by Van Der Plas et al., (2012) the purpose of the pilot test was to enhance the questionnaire's content validity and reliability as well as to determine how long it would take to complete.

Moreover, the testing was performed to provide an early indication of the types of reactions that might occur. The final questionnaire draft, which was distributed to the entire sample, was revised and reviewed based on input from the pilot test participants. Following the pilot project, a final round of data gathering was conducted.

3.7 Data Collection Techniques

The process of obtaining research data in order to fulfil the goals and objectives of the study is known as a data collection technique (Mertens, 2010). During the quantitative data collection phase, standardised open-ended questionnaires and Likert scales were used to collect data. In addition, the qualitative approach gathers data using several methods, such as observation, videotapes, object analysis, interviews, and object demonstrations. As supported by Rossman (2013), the study employed a mixed-methods design and utilised a combination of structured and semi-structured questionnaires, individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis, and observations during the qualitative phase.

3.7.1 Quantitative Data Collection Techniques

For the current study, a device designed to gather quantitative data served as the study's initial step. To answer the research objectives, the quantitative portion of the study used a questionnaire comprising closed questions based on a Likert scale and a small number of open-ended questions (Scholtz et al., 2020). To acquire quantitative data for this study, both teachers and students were involved. To enable participants to discuss inclusive education implementation and practice in the study site, the questionnaire items were more targeted, and concentrated on the research goals; it is emphasised by (Lombard & Kloppers, 2015).

3.7.1.1 Questionnaire

One of the most popular tools for gathering quantitative data is a questionnaire. As per Taherdoost (2022) defined a questionnaire is characterised as "a document that includes questions and other things intended to gather information suitable for analysis." The investigator employed a survey that surfaced from the quantitative data examination to obtain precise, dependable, and legitimate information. However, the researcher was primarily responsible for devising the style and content of this study's questionnaire. A carefully considered design was implemented to ensure that the survey yielded sufficient data (Auriacombe, 2016).

The questionnaire was designed and sent to specialists in inclusive education for examination and evaluation. The researcher considered the constructive criticism and suggestions obtained when completing the questionnaire. Each question included only one idea and was phrased in a simple, straightforward, and jargon-free manner (De Vos & Segers, 2013). A questionnaire is a data collection tool that includes a series of questions and other instructions to gather information (Abawi, 2013). The questionnaire was piloted, validated, and checked before distributing the final data collection procedures. Detailed orientations for both teachers and students were provided by the data collection assistants.

3.7.1.2 Types of Questionnaires

Only a few open-ended and mostly closed-ended questions were included in the quantitative questionnaire. The questionnaire employed a Likert scale to answer closed-ended questions, which precluded participants from voicing their own thoughts and instead required them to fall into predefined groups (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2023). Conversely, the participants were required to provide subjective answers to the open-ended questions. There was room for the participants to write a word, phrase, or remark in response to the open-ended questions (Creswell et al. 2016).

The researcher developed the key themes for the questionnaire, drawing from both the current study and a review of related literature. Both closed-ended and open-ended questions were prepared in English and translated into the “Amharic” local language to access the participants’ mother tongue. Finally, measurement scales were administered. Hence, participants' level of agreement was assessed using a four-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3), and strongly agree (4)*.

3.7.1.3 Question Sequence

To maintain the questionnaire’s coherence, the questions were arranged topically. The questionnaire came with a covering letter that outlined the goals of the research, asked for participation, and included ethical declarations that guaranteed individuals' confidentiality and gave them the option to decline participation (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Respondents felt that the first questions were simple and unthreatening. The questionnaire was sequenced as follows:

- I. Background information (closed questions)
- II. Knowledge of inclusive education implementation (closed questions)
- III. Attitude in inclusive education implementation (closed questions)
- IV. Inclusive education policy implementation (closed questions)

3.7.1.4 Length of Questions

As indicated by Delport (2014) and De Vos & Segers (2013), there is consensus that shorter, clearer, and more manageable questionnaires have higher response rates. A longer and more complete questionnaire was used to guarantee that all necessary questions were included to prevent inadequate concept representation and data collection. Therefore, the researcher made every effort to accommodate the questionnaire length. The font size is relaxed, unambiguous, and clear, resulting in a good outcome. The quantity and complexity of the questions in a given questionnaire, their language and readability, and the demographic

to which it is targeted, and the method of administration all affect the quality of the data extracted from it (Lipinski et al., 2022).

3.7.1.5 Questionnaire Distribution Protocol

In order to ensure that the participants completed the questionnaires on time, the researcher personally scheduled time for the process of hand-delivering and collecting the questionnaires. Initially, the researcher scheduled appointments with the principals to notify them of the delivery dates of the questionnaires; this was supported by (Taherdoost, 2021). On the day of administration, the researcher and assistants gathered the participants in a single room, gave briefings, reassured them of their confidentiality, and distributed the printed materials. Along with the number of teachers in each school, the researcher collected data, which was subsequently sent to the administrators of the participating schools for distribution and collection among all staff members and students. This part of the data dissemination process requires cell phone connectivity. Nonetheless, hand-delivered surveys have drawbacks, such as the possibility of participants misplacing the forms (van der Velden et al., 2022).

Then, before analysing the quantitative data, it is important to first consider the number of completed questionnaires and the frequency of the number of returned papers per school. One thousand one (1001) copies of the survey questionnaires were distributed to the student participants: 308 to Hidase, 347 to Agew Midir, and 346 to Mengesha Jembere secondary schools. Similarly, one hundred ninety-six (196) copies were distributed to teacher participants: 58 to Hidase, 69 to Agew Midir, and 69 to Mengesha Jembere secondary schools.

Looking by each school respondent from Chagni town Hidase secondary school (308) students completed the entire questioner and fifty five (55) teachers filled with 3 missed papers. Injibara town Agew Midir secondary school had three hundred forty-five (345)

students and sixty-three (63) teachers with 2 and 5 missed papers, respectively. Dangila town Mengesha Jembere secondary school has three hundred forty-three (343) students and sixty-four (64) teachers, with 3 and 5 missed papers, respectively. In total, 996 students with a 99% response rate and 182 teachers with a 92% response rate questionnaire were analysed.

3.7.2 Qualitative Data Collection

To learn more about the participants' experiences implementing inclusive practices, the study phase comprised the use of qualitative methodologies, such as individual interviews and non-participant observation (Alase, 2017 ; Busetto et al., 2020)

3.7.2.1 Sole Semi-structured Interviews

When collecting data for qualitative studies, this method allows for spoken interviews that delve into interviewees' interactions with the researcher (Skovdal & Cornish, 2015b ; Roberts, 2020). Semi-structured interview questions facilitated instant communication and data collection in a one-on-one setting. During each interview, the investigator provided a detailed explanation of the goals of the inquiry, the reasoning behind their decisions, and the selection criteria. They were better able to understand the goals of the study as a result, and they gained the courage to participate in a positive way by expressing their ideas, feelings, and experiences.

According to Skovdal & Cornish (2015) the intended questions evolved from wide to flexible and were probed to extract detailed or in-depth information. Open-ended questions encouraged participants to express their thoughts, feelings, and observations openly. Questions about ambiguous and succinct replies were answered with more in-depth responses to improve completeness, perspectives, and independent thinking (Sharan et al., 2019).

Sharp inquiries revealed more details and understanding of respondents' backgrounds, feelings, and opinions, as well as their knowledge and responses in their many fields of work (Porter et al., 2019). By following the guidelines for conducting interviews, the researcher

assessed the participants' opinions, ideas, meanings, situations, and creations of reality (Punch & Hyde, 2011).

The following are considered to produce this:

- Audio recordings were made with the participants' permission to capture all the information that the researcher could have missed while taking the notes. Every detail in the participant's responses was included in the quotation.
- Data collection and result analysis were facilitated by note-taking.
- The researcher translated the English language into participant-spoken languages (such as Amharic or Awigni languages).

Each interview took almost an hour. We coordinated and scheduled follow-up meetings with the school in response to the researcher's request for further information. This study used semi-structured interviews to gather detailed and supporting data on secondary school students' inclusive education practices (Mackey, 2014). To find answers to the challenges in implementing inclusive education, the researcher in this study employed individual interviews in addition to describing the experiences of the participants and providing a platform for reflection on those experiences. Principals and homeroom teachers participated in the orientation to create an interview guide.

3.7.2.2 Non-Participant Observation

A systematic approach to documenting and collecting impressions on someone's behaviour, activities, things, happenings, and phenomena without engaging with the participants is known as non-participant observation (Ishtiaq, 2019). Essentially, it depends on auditory and visual cues. A qualitative study benefits greatly from observation because it enables the researcher to observe the activities that teachers engage in the classroom, capturing behaviour as it happens in the teachers' natural environments (Roberts, 2020).

Through assessments at the chosen secondary school, the investigator had the opportunity to learn about the teaching practices of the professionals in inclusive educational settings, how they met the various needs of students who faced obstacles to their training, and the difficulties they encountered in doing so. Notably, throughout the sessions, there was no communication with the educators. The investigator did nothing more than watch the teacher engage in the phenomenon-related actions (Lodge et al., 2018). Employing various detection methods, the investigator documented the events to learn more and comprehend the phenomena under observation. To observe what actually happened in an actual situation scenario, an investigator must be present at the location (Kimber & Maertens, 2023).

As stated by Creswell (2014) whenever an investigator collects records in an unorganised or semi-organised way, using open-ended inquiries appropriate to the research questions wants to know the answers to and makes a qualitative report of the behaviour and activities at the study site. Describe how a researcher uses monitoring to observe and listen to what is happening at the study site. The researcher opted for observation as a method because it enabled to observe first-hand how inclusive instruction is implemented in a few selected institutions.

According to Cirocki et al., (2014), being present gave the investigator access to information on respondent attitudes, learning styles, assignment approaches, teachers, and classroom management. Instead of using an instrument to gather information about the strategies used by the teachers, the investigator of the present research was able to analyse and thoroughly describe what transpired during class throughout monitoring. This was because using a questionnaire prevented witnessing how educators use the techniques they employ in a welcoming setting (Mirhosseini, 2020). By documenting evidence as it happened and/or identifying unanticipated facts as it happened, the observational approach allows the investigator to obtain direct input from those who participated.

Kothari (2004) stated that investigators obtain evidence during an inspection by directly monitoring the responder, gathering data on what is going on throughout the period in question, and not asking questions. The primary benefit of observation is that, if done correctly, it eliminates subjective bias; the information gathered is relevant to the situation at hand; it is unaffected by past behaviour, present motives, or future attitudes; and it remains devoid of people's willingness to participate. As a result, it requires comparatively less active cooperation from respondents than the questionnaire approach or conversation.

3.7.2.3 Document Analysis

The investigator carefully reviewed the school records to evaluate, critically assess, and make decisions based on the information that was available in the paperwork to avoid any misconceptions (Fusch et al., 2018). The verification of the information supplied by the focus group participants and interviews was conducted via document review. Among the articles examined were welcoming diversity policies, school policies, regulatory frameworks, and education policies, among others.

Documents such as policy frameworks, teacher development guides, special education guidebooks from the Ministry of Education, and legislative frameworks were evaluated. Creswell and Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, (2018), on the other hand, highlighted a crucial difference between private and public records. To make a distinction between primary and personal documents should be distinguished including government publications (policies and guidelines), meeting minutes, learner profiles, policies and guidelines, and personal growth and school improvement plans. The investigator collected data for this study from primary sources, including rules, regulations, official organisational documents, legal and personal records, and learner files.

3.7.3 Qualitative Research Strategies

3.7.3.1 Credibility

As O’Leary (2017) stated that credibility is more concerned with truth value or accuracy. To ensure the research accomplished its intended goal, the methodologies and approaches employed by the researcher were relevant to the topics under investigation (Dawadi et al., 2021). While acknowledging the possibility of various facts, the deep structure of the phenomena was clearly stated. Credibility is the degree to which one may accept the veracity of reported facts and the methodological in-depth analysis of the researcher (Bitsch, 2014).

This entails conducting the analysis in a way that raises the reliability of the data's conclusions across time and under many circumstances. How well the researcher applies the technique to the gathering and analysis of data, and how well he or she understands research methodologies, will influence their credibility. According to Sanga et al., (2019) there are three separate but connected components that make up a qualitative investigation's credibility: a) reliable methods for conducting fieldwork that produce high-quality data that is consistently assessed in terms of credibility issues; b) the reputation of the researcher, which is based on their background, experience, track record, rank, and self-presentation; and c) a philosophical conviction in the significance of qualitative study.

3.7.3.2 Transferability

According to O’Leary (2017), whether or not arguments are transferable serves as a measure of a study’s credibility. If either the findings or the conclusions from a sample, context, group, or both can be applied to a larger population, a new situation, or a different group, then that is what is being considered. Transferability is demonstrated by proving that the sample fairly represents the target population, that the participants in the sample have the

knowledge, experience, and competence Elo et al., (2014), necessary to offer information in that field, and that the target audience would find the topic pertinent.

Thus, by comparing the results of the new study with the other study, other researchers can assess whether the samples accurately represented the target population and whether they possessed the knowledge, experience, and expertise required to provide information on the subject (Ferdinand et al., 2019).

3.7.3.3 Dependability

As it is defined by Khanna et al., (2022) defined dependability as an assessment of the consistency and repeatability of study findings. This explains the degree of data stability over time and in different situations. Thus, a reliability problem is internal consistency, which means that the information obtained and the results produced or acquired remain the same after several attempts. The investigator employs effective methodologies to consider study subjectivities to enhance reliability and promote coherence among research findings (Polit, 2018).

3.7.3.4 Conformability

According to Polit (2018), conformability refers to the potential for mutual consensus among persons regarding the accuracy, relevance, or importance of information. Thus, the degree to which subjectivities are recognised and managed throughout the research process is referred to as conformability in a research project. The key is to base judgments as much as possible on observable occurrences that are untouched by subjective opinions, sentiments, or personal injustices. To lessen the issue of subjectivity and ensure conformability, efforts to detect any subjectivity must be controlled with an eye towards avoiding biasing results (Rutberg & Bouikidis, 2018).

3.8 Description of the research area

The description of the research area refers to the geographical site of the study. The location of the study is where the participants live or are settled. For this study, the research was conducted geographically in the Awi administrative zone, the Amhara regional state, Ethiopia. The researcher selected samples from the population using simple random student participants and purposive sample selection mechanisms for teacher participants (Glatte, 2015).

In general, Ethiopia has 12 regional states and two federal administrative towns. The research area of this study is the Amhara region, which is one of 12 regional states. In this region, there are 10 administrative zones with their own provinces or districts. Among these administrative zones, the Agew Awi zone, which is considered the Awi subgroup of the Agaw people, is bordered on the west by the Benishangul-Gumuz region, on the north by the North Gondar zone, and on the east by West Gojjam. The administrative capital of the Agew Awi Zone is Injibara. It is approximately 447 km away from the capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, and 118 km from Bahir Dar, the capital city of the Amhara region. Other woreda-centred towns were including Chagni, Dangila, Gimjabet, Tilili, Addis kidame, Azena, Zigem, and Jawi. The Agaw Awi zone is relatively flat and fertile, with elevations varying from 1,800 to 3,100 m above sea level and an average altitude of about 2,300 m.

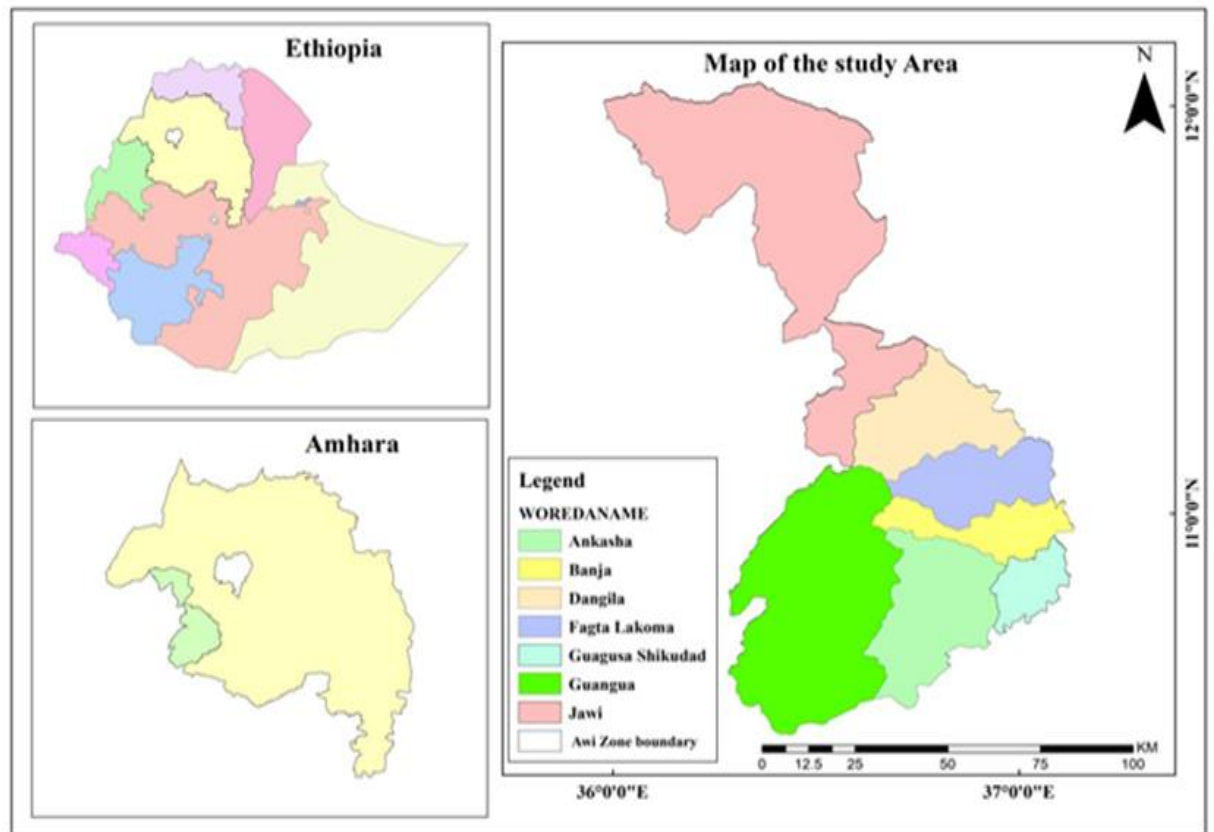


Figure 3: Map of the study area (Awi Administration zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia)

Figure 2: Figure by Author

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques

As per Muhammad (2016), a mixed-methods study entails gathering and examining both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, with an attempt to incorporate the two methodologies at one or more points during the research procedure. The most widespread understanding of mixed methods research, as reported by Hesse (2014) that it is a modular procedure with parallel or sequential execution of quantitative and qualitative components. Understanding the techniques for analysing both quantitative and qualitative data is necessary for mixed-method data analysis. Afterwards, research projects can link, integrate, or combine these two data analyses.

Consequently, Howitt & Cramer (2011) emphasised that quantitative and qualitative data techniques were integrated, informed one another, and identified parallel, sequential,

conversion, and multilevel mixed-methods data analysis. The investigator employed a sequential explanatory mixed-data analysis approach, analysing the data during both the QUAN and QUAL stages.

In addition to testing respondent-generated concepts, quantitative data and findings were used. All the teachers and students at the three schools completed the quantitative surveys. The completed surveys were examined and revised to ensure that all questions were correctly answered and that guidelines were followed, as evidenced by (Cohen et al., 2007). The data from the questionnaires were entered into the SPSS software. Next, the SPSS (Version 25) software application was used to analyse the data.

In other dimensions, Speidel (2018) suggested that group discussions and audio-recorded one-on-one interviews were the primary means of gathering qualitative data. This strengthened and reinforced the quantitative data, in which the findings were clearly corroborated. This study employed thematic analysis to identify categories and topics pertinent to the research objectives and primary phenomena under investigation. Before recording each word of the interviews, the investigator returned to the tapes several times. The data were read many times after transcription to facilitate comprehension. The purpose of grouping, labelling, and organising the data was to identify them based on units of significance, then categorise and code them. Qualitative questionnaires were developed using coded data, which were then allocated to themes and particular participant comments that corroborated the themes (Vaismoradi et al., 2016).

Generally, qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews and observation checklist protocol were analysed thematically. Thematic analysis is the process of analysing the raw data collected through interviews and observation in an attempt to identify the necessary information from the collected data from the teachers. The themes were developed using a deductive approach based on predetermined research questions and

ideas. The data collected from both interviews and observations were used to explain the quantitative data results and to substantiate interpretations of the quantitative study. Finally, the results were interpreted by integrating the quantitative and qualitative analyses. The following table shows the questionnaire type and its analysis techniques.

Table 1:
Data Analysis Techniques for each Research Question

Research questions	The type of Data	Instrument	Data analysis techniques
RQ1	Qualitative data	Semi-structured interview	Thematic analysis
RQ2	Qualitative data	Semi-structured interview	Thematic analysis
RQ3	Qualitative data	Semi structured interviews	Thematic analysis
RQ4	Quantitative data	Questionnaire	Mean and standard deviation
RQ5	Quantitative data	Questionnaire	Mean, SD, independent t-test, and one-way ANOVA

3.9.1 Data Triangulation

Triangulation is an effective technique for investigating alternative realities and confirming the study's topics by obtaining a thorough understanding of the event from several angles (Vogl et al., 2019). Assertions given that until data have been triangulated, it ought not to be given substantial attention; this claim was backed by Turner et al., (2017) who strengthened the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon.

3.10 Research Quality and Integrity

3.10.1 Validity Check

According to Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, (2018) stated that mixed methods research enhances the validity of theoretical propositions and enables a researcher to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the occurrence under study than is achievable with a smaller scientific approach, which explains why the study used this approach. Moreover, validity

refers to the degree of quality that a research study, its components, the results obtained, and the applications derived from it can have.

According to Zaveri et al., (2016), data reliability guarantees that data consistently and accurately represent constructions being examined, while data validity ensures that data present constructs they intend to capture. Teachers and specialists in education, psychologists, and local languages assessed the instrument's face and content validity. It also looked at the items' exterior characteristics to determine whether they were reliable and had a clear meaning. Validity of the instruments' content: the study's title, goal, and research question were attached to the questionnaires, and the researcher invited the participants to participate (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). They were asked to assess the degree to which the items aligned with the study objectives, the degree to which they measured expected behaviour, and whether the items were suitable enough to gauge the intended behaviour.

3.10.2 Reliability Check

In the quantitative phase of a mixed-methods study, validity and reliability may be determined (Creswell, 2011) . Additionally, Hitchon et al., (2020) noted that methods such as test-retest reliability, split-half reliability, parallel form reliability, and inter reliability can be used to determine reliability and that evaluating content, convergent, concurrent, predictive, and discriminant validity can be used to determine measurement validity.

According to Teddlie & Tashakkori (2012) they offer a paradigm for evaluating validity in mixed methods research, suggesting the use of inference transferability and quality as general terms. The researcher then tested the instruments' dependability in a pilot study. As Surucu & Maslakci (2020) stated, by piloting the reliability test, we can determine the questionnaire's reliability and, should the instrument prove to be too unreliable, whether the questionnaire is ready for the main research or not. For each scale, Cronbach's alpha was determined. After conducting the pilot test and gathering data, the investigator used SPSS

(version 25) software to calculate the reliability coefficient, also known as Cronbach’s alpha, to assess the instrument’s dependability. The following table shows the reliability of the questionnaire subsections:

Table 2:
Cronbach's Alpha of the Questionnaire for Subsections

Questionnaire Sections	No Item Number and Alpha Level			
	For teachers	α	For students	α
1. Inclusive Education Knowledge	14	.74	6	.71
2. Inclusive Education Attitude	13	.71	12	.80
3. Inclusive Education Policy Implementation	10	.72	7	.72

The internal reliability (consistency) was tested through Cronbach’s alpha, a test that measures the consistency between all items on the scale; this is represented by the reliability coefficient, which ranges from 0 to 1. The table above shows the outcomes generated when conducting the Cronbach’s alpha reliability test. Reliability between 0.7 and 0.9 is preferred and acceptable; however, reliability as low as 0.6 can be less acceptable.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

3.11.1 Permissions

As indicated, Wicks (2017), and Vogelzang et al., (2011) assert that in order to ensure the ethical conduct of the job and protect the research design, study proposals ought to be vetted by a body to which the researcher is attached. The University of South Africa’s (UNISA) Research Ethics Committee granted permission to conduct this investigation ethically. By holding the purpose of the research and the researcher’s qualification letter from the Injibara University College of Education and Behavioural Science Department of Special Needs and Inclusive Education, permission to carry out a study in Awi administrative zone

secondary schools were secured, and the Awi administrative zone education bureau/office offered permission. As soon as the approval letter was received, it was taken to the 3 selected regular secondary schools in the Awi zone, where the researcher handed it to each school principal.

3.11.2 Informed Consent

As stated by Doody & Bailey (2016), informed consent is one of the fundamental tenets and legal mandates of research ethics. Before providing consent to participate in the study, potential participants must be thoroughly informed about the research processes, risks, and benefits (Richards & Hemphill, 2018). The goals of the study, its duration, methods, advantages, potential risks, and pain that could arise were all described to the participants in a meeting that the researcher called before data collection began.

According to Kenny & Fourie (2015), participants should be treated with respect because they are volunteers. Participants were informed that their participation in the study was entirely voluntary and that they could leave at any time if they felt unsafe. The researcher provided each participant with a written consent form after discussing the specifics of the study. Participants were given time to consider the full research process and sign the form; thus, they did not feel compelled to do so. No force was used to persuade the subjects to sign the permission form.

3.11.3 Confidentiality

Study participants' identities must be protected, which is why confidentiality is crucial. Qualitative researchers should behave politely and follow an ethical code of conduct, as acknowledged by Stake & Eisele (2010), who view them as visitors to private spaces. In a confidential, private session, the researcher and each participant discussed their understanding, practices, concerns, and requirements regarding the implementation of inclusive education. The discussion was conducted without the involvement of a third-party.

According to Onwumechili (2018) to preserve confidence, private information must be handled securely and safely. Participants were assured that all material gathered through completed questionnaires, one-on-one interviews, observations by non-participants, and document analysis would be handled in confidence. Participants were assured that all physical copies of data would be securely stored in a locked filing cabinet by the researcher and that electronic data would be retained on a password-protected computer.

3.11.4 Anonymity

Irby et al., (2010) contended that when publishing study results, participant names must be kept secret from the wider public. It is recommended that qualitative researchers safeguard their identities using assumed names or pseudonyms for locations and people (Ishtiaq, 2019). This study employed pseudonyms to denote the individuals and their respective universities. In order to safeguard participants' identities, the researcher ensured that none of the photos or prints from the non-participant observations could be identified as belonging to them.

3.12 Chapter Summary

In this study, an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design was employed to assess inclusive secondary school education implementation. An explanatory sequential mixed-methods design was chosen for this study because it is appropriate when the researcher first quantitatively explores teachers and students' knowledge, attitude, and practice regarding inclusive education, followed by a qualitative method to examine the remaining objectives. This study was conducted in the Awi administrative zone, in the Amhara region of Ethiopia. The subjects of this study were regular secondary school teachers' and students' at three schools. To gather data, a questionnaire, semi-structured interview, non-participant observation, and document analysis were used.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the participants' demographic information is presented in detail, quantitative data are presented and analysed, and the same practice of qualitative data analysis is presented. First, an output from SPSS was created using the quantitative data, and tables were set up in sequential and mixed explanatory analyses. The quantitative results were examined and interpreted in light of the table. Subsequently, a qualitative questionnaire was administered to the participants to determine the major gaps and provide fresh information. This questionnaire also served as a foundation for thematic analysis and the development of response categories. In addition, codes were used to separate the main ideas and concerns of the participants to identify themes in the qualitative data. English transcription and translation of the Amharic language textual and oral qualitative data were completed.

The findings are presented and harmonised in accordance with the five research objectives described in chapter one. Data were collected through questionnaires for quantitative and qualitative data, semi-structured interviews, documentary reviews, and non-participant observations. Accordingly, the purpose of this chapter is to present, analyse, and interpret the findings of the empirical research data collected in relation to the research questions. The presentation and analysis are based on the research objectives, namely:

- To assess the level of secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi zone.
- To identify the major constraints of secondary school inclusive education implementation practice in the Awi zone.

- To identify the level of knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations of students and teachers with relation to secondary school inclusive education practice s in the Awi zone.
- To improve and tackle barriers to the implementation of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi zone.
- To determine if there is a statistically significant difference in the implementation of inclusive secondary school education in the Awi zone?

By

- ✓ Teachers' and students' sex
- ✓ Class size/Number of students in class/
- ✓ Teachers' service years/work experience/

4.2 Participant Demographic Information

Participants' demographic information is critical for assessing the generalizability and applicability of research findings. In special education research, the evidence base for interventions often lacks diversity, which raises questions about the generalizability of findings (Robertson et al., 2017).

This study involved three purposefully selected secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. These were Chagni town (Hidase secondary school), Injibara town (Agew Midir secondary school), and Dangila town (Mengesgha Jembere secondary school). In this scenario, both teachers and students were key participants.

Respondents were asked to provide information on the following aspects: for students (sex, age, grade level, and school name) and teachers (sex, age, education level, class size, (number of students in class), and service year (working experience). Their characteristics were

clarified in terms of frequency percentages, tables, and descriptions. Therefore, the demographic profile of the participants is presented in the following section.

The quantitative and qualitative findings are presented separately and then integrated into a separate section. The results section of this study has two main sections. First, the quantitative results, which were collected from the survey questionnaires, are presented. In the second section, results from qualitative data obtained through semi-structured interview guides and non-participant observation are presented. Finally, both findings were merged in the integration section. The table below shows each participant’s demographic profile.

Table 3:
Description of Student and Teacher Participants’ Sex

Participants	Sex	Frequency	%	Total
Students	Male	445	44.7	996
	Female	551	55.3	
Teachers	Male	122	67	182
	Female	60	33	

As revealed in Table 3, students; 445 (44.7%) of the participants were males, whereas 551 (55.3%) were females. In total, 996 student participants were actively involved in this study. Similarly, teachers 122 (67%) of the participants were males, whereas 60 (33%) of them were females; a total of 182 teacher participants participated. In this regard, both teachers and students were fully assured of their response.

Table 4:**Description of Teacher and Student Participants Study Area Information**

School Name	Participants	Frequency	%
Hidase Secondary School	Teacher	55	30.2
	Student	309	31
Agew Midir Secondary School	Teacher	63	34.6
	Student	344	34.5
Mengesha Jembere Secondary School	Teacher	64	34.4
	Student	343	35.2

As revealed in Table 4, regarding student and teacher participants study area information: Hidase secondary school teachers were 55 (30.2%) and students were 309 (31%); Agew Midir secondary school teachers were 63 (34.6%) and students were 344 (34.5%); Mengesha Jembere secondary school teachers were 64 (34.4%) and students 343 (35.2%) were involved.

Table 5:**Description of the Study Participants' Age**

Age category	Frequency	%
12-15 years	81	8.1
16-18 years	708	71.1
19-21 years	207	20.8
Total	996	100

As shown in Table 5, student participants' age were recorded in three categories: early adolescents (12-15), middle adolescents (16-18), and late adolescents (19-21). As for the student participants' age category, 12-15 years, 81 (8.1%), 16-18 years, 708 (71.1%), and 19-21 years, 207 (20.8%), a total of 996 participants participated.

Table 6:**Description of the Student Participants' Grade Level**

Grade level	Frequency	%
Grade 9	247	24.8
Grade 10	249	25
Grade 11	251	25.2
Grade 12	249	25
Total	996	100

As illustrated in Table 6, the student participant's grade level starts from Grades 9–12. This shows that grade 9 (247, 24.8%), 10 (249, 25%), 11 (251, 25.2%), and 12 (249, 25%) were participated.

Table 7:**Description of the Education Level of Teacher Participants'**

Education level	Frequency	%
Diploma	0	0
Degree	159	87.4
Master's Degree	23	12.6
PhD	0	0
Total	182	100

As depicted in Table 7, in terms of teacher participants' education qualifications, 159 (87.4%) were degree holders and 23 (12.6%) were master's holders. Diploma and PhD holders did not exist in the three study sites.

Table 8:**Description of the Work Experience of Teacher Participants**

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-10 years' experience	41	22.5
11-20 years' experience	106	58.2
21and more years' experience	35	19.2
Total	182	100

As illustrated in Table 8, Participants' work experiences were recorded in three categories: 1-10, 11-20, and more than 21 years. Concerning the teacher participants' work experience, 41 (22.5%) of the participants had 1-10 years; 106 (58.2%) of them had 11-20 years; and 35 (19.2%) had more than 21 years of teaching experience.

4.3 Quantitative Data Presentation and Analysis**4.3.1 Presentation and Analysis of Descriptive Data**

Quantitative data include the background information of the participants, the levels of inclusive education knowledge, attitudes and policy implementations of secondary school teachers and students and the differences among the study variables.

Table 9:**Item Mean Scores and Students' Responses on Inclusive Education Knowledge**

Items	SA%	A%	D%	SD%	Mean	SD	Decision
At school, all students are accepted by the school community	280 (28.1%)	420 (42.2%)	172 (17.3%)	124 (12.4%)	2.85	.96	High knowledge
Students help each other	371 (37.2%)	421 (42.3%)	163 (16.4%)	41 (4.1%)	3.12	.82	High knowledge
Teachers and students are respected	342	334	240	80	2.94	.95	High knowledge

	(34.3%)	(33.5%)	(24.1%)	(8%)			
There is joint coordination between teachers and parents.	204 (20.5%)	420 (42.2%)	268 (26.9%)	104 (10.4%)	2.72	.90	Low knowledge
Students, principals, parents, and government bodies share the philosophy of inclusive education.	151 (15.2%)	325 (32.6%)	345 (34.6%)	175 (17.6%)	2.45	.95	Low knowledge
The school is working to avoid any discrimination (for students with special needs).	270 (27.1%)	301 (30.2%)	267 (26.8%)	158 (15.9%)	2.68	1.03	Low knowledge
Overall mean score					2.79		

Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD= strongly disagree; Decision= weighted Average= 16.76/6=2.79

The response options for both the student and teacher participants on these dimension items were: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3), and strongly agree (4). From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.79 with a range of 2.45–3.12. Both the highest and lowest inclusive education implementation knowledge was observed from the respondents, with each item's mean score being compared with the overall item mean score.

The data analysis shows that in Table 9, most respondents expressed that in the school, students feel accepted by the school community, and students in the school help each other mutually. Also, teachers and students respect each other in secondary schools.

On the other hand, most participants felt that there was no joint coordination between teachers and parents. In addition, students, principals, parents, and government bodies do not share the philosophy of inclusive education. In line with this, schools were not working to avoid discriminatory action with relation to students with special needs.

Table 10:**Item Mean Score and Students Responses on Inclusive Education Attitude**

Items	SA%	A%	D%	SD%	Mean	SD	Decision
We learn by considering all students (including those with special needs) when preparing the lesson.	216 (21.7%)	310 (31.1%)	342 (34.3%)	128 (12.9%)	2.61	.96	Low attitude
The education provided encourages the participation of all students.	342 (34.3%)	376 (37.8%)	199 (20%)	79 (7.9%)	2.98	.92	High attitude
The education we receive enhances our understanding of diversity	342 (34.3%)	412 (41.4%)	132 (13.3%)	110 (11%)	2.99	.95	High attitude
Students actively participate in their individual studies	247 (24.8%)	341 (34.2%)	276 (27.7%)	132 (13.3%)	2.70	.98	Low attitude
Students learn by supporting each other.	312 (31.3%)	364 (36.5%)	190 (19.1%)	130 (13.1%)	2.86	1.0	High attitude
Principals plan, teach, and review the school in coordination	382 (38.4%)	315 (31.6%)	135 (13.6%)	164 (16.5%)	2.91	1.0	High attitude
All students participate in activities outside classrooms	155 (15.6%)	303 (30.4%)	314 (31.5%)	224 (22.5%)	2.39	1.0	Low attitude
It has become possible to use the professional knowledge and skills of teachers	178 (17.9%)	436 (43.8%)	276 (27.7%)	106 (10.6%)	2.68	.88	Low attitude
Teachers prepare school resources	216 (21.7%)	371 (37.2%)	310 (31.1%)	99 (9.9%)	2.70	.91	Low attitude
School resources are distributed in a way that is suitable for the proper implementation of Inclusive education	236 (23.7%)	377 (37.9%)	270 (27.1%)	113 (11.3%)	2.73	.94	High attitude
The school resources are used to meet the needs of students with special needs and to enhance the school ability to increase diversity.	222 (22.3%)	337 (33.8%)	328 (32.9%)	109 (10.9%)	2.67	.94	Low attitude
When students with special needs are assigned to a class, they receive appropriate support from the school	170 (17.1%)	326 (32.7%)	331 (33.2%)	169 (17%)	2.49	.96	Low attitude
Overall mean score					2.72		

Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree;

Decision-Weighted Average =32.71/12=2.72

As revealed in Table 10, the item mean scores and student respondents regarding inclusive education attitude and culture in the school are illustrated. From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.72 with a range of 2.39–2.99. From each item's mean score, some are less than the overall mean score, while others are greater than the overall mean score.

Regarding students' attitude towards inclusive education implementation, most respondents perceived that the educational provision provided encourages the participation of all learners. Additionally, the education provisions they learn encourage or enhance the understanding of diverse learners. Students' attitudes to learn by supporting each other have been more visited by principals' plans to plan, teach, and review the school in coordination. School resources are distributed in a manner is suitable for the proper implementation of inclusive education in principle.

Following the above statement, students' attitudes in inclusive education implementation, most respondents confirmed that they are learning without considering all students (students with special needs) when preparing lessons. Similarly, in schools, it was impossible to use teachers' professional knowledge and skills to implement inclusive education. The teachers did not prepare the school's teaching and learning resources and materials. School resources are not distributed and allocated in a way suitable for the proper implementation of inclusive education.

Similarly, the school's resources are not used to meet the needs of students with special needs or to enhance the school's ability to increase diversity. The rigid attitude and low consideration imply that when students with special needs are assigned to a class, they are not given appropriate support from the school to implement inclusive education.

Table 11:**Item Mean Scores and Students' Responses on Inclusive Education Policy Practice**

Items	SA%	A%	D%	SD%	Mean	SD	Decision
The school has made it easy for disabled students to attend school.	136 (13.7%)	316 (31.7%)	366 (36.7%)	178 (17.9%)	2.41	.93	High practice
When I arrived at school, I was supported to adapt easily	102 (10.2%)	293 (29.4%)	407 (40.9%)	194 (19.5%)	2.30	.89	Low practice
Instead of forcing students with special needs out of school, teachers try to address their problems.	224 (22.5%)	324 (32.5%)	295 (29.6%)	153 (15.4%)	2.62	.99	High practice
Teachers work hard to make schools comfortable for students.	245 (24.6%)	400 (40.2%)	257 (25.8%)	94 (9.4%)	2.79	.91	High practice
The buildings/rooms /at the campus are designed for students with disabilities.	113 (11.3%)	221 (22.2%)	447 (44.9%)	215 (21.6%)	2.23	.91	Low practice
With the implementation of Inclusive education, government policies are being properly implemented	118 (11.8%)	243 (24.4%)	451 (45.3%)	184 (18.5%)	2.29	.90	Low practice
They are being trained on inclusive education	89 (8.9%)	190 (19.1%)	509 (51.1%)	208 (20.9%)	2.16	.85	Low practice
Overall mean score					2.4		

Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree; Decision-Weighted Average = 16.8/7=2.4.

As revealed in Table 11, the item mean scores and student respondents' responses regarding inclusive education policy implementation in schools. From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.4 with a range of 2.16–2.79.

From each item's mean score, some are less than the overall mean score, while others are greater than the overall mean score. Concerning the implementation of the inclusive education policy, the school had made it accessible and easy for disabled students to come to

school. Principally, instead of forcing students with special needs out of school, teachers try to address their problems. Teachers also work hard to make schools comfortable for students and to apply policy issues regarding inclusive education.

On the contrary, when students arrived at school, they were not supported in adapting to the school environment. In the sample school, buildings, class rooms, and the building compound were not designed for students with disabilities. With the implementation of inclusive education, government policies are not being properly implemented. In addition, in the school, they were not given training on inclusive education concepts to implement

Table 12:

Item Mean Scores and Teachers' Response Regarding Inclusive Education Knowledge

Items	SA%	A%	D%	SD%	Mean	SD	Decision
In the school, all students feel that they are accepted by the school community.	11 (6%)	17 (9.3%)	113 (62.1%)	41 (22.5%)	1.98	.75	Low knowledge
Students help each other and learn together	39 (21.4%)	99 (54.4%)	33 (18.1%)	11 (6%)	2.91	.79	High knowledge
Teachers and students respect each other.	28 (15.4%)	42 (23.1%)	77 (42.3%)	35 (19.2%)	2.34	.96	Low attitude
There is a co-operation with teachers and parents	17 (9.3%)	57 (31.3%)	77 (42.3%)	31 (17%)	2.32	.86	Low attitude
Directors and government bodies work together	16 (8.8%)	21 (11.5%)	86 (47.3%)	59 (32.4%)	1.96	.89	Low attitude
High estimates are given to all teachers.	5 (2.7%)	36 (19.8%)	95 (52.2%)	46 (25.3%)	2.00	.75	Low attitude
Students, teachers, parents and government bodies share the philosophy of inclusive education.	5 (2.7%)	39 (21.4%)	92 (50.5%)	46 (25.3%)	2.01	.76	Low attitude
The school is working to prevent any discrimination (for students with special needs)	43 (23.6%)	102 (56%)	27 (14.8%)	10 (5.5%)	2.97	.77	High knowledge
I would like to help students with disabilities	77 (42.3%)	79 (43.4%)	23 (12.6%)	3 (1.6%)	3.26	.74	High knowledge
Teaching students with special	60	81	33	8			

needs to regular ones is a good	(33%)	(44.5%)	(18.1%)	(4.4%)	3.06	.82	High knowledge
I am ready to help students with special needs if I receive training in inclusive education.	72 (39.6%)	93 (51.1%)	11 (6%)	6 (3.3%)	3.26	.71	High knowledge
Inclusive Education is a cost-effective system of education.	57 (31.3%)	91 (50%)	27 (14.8%)	7 (3.8%)	3.08	.78	High knowledge
Acknowledge the child's education right to attend their home environment school.	34 (18.7%)	39 (21.4%)	70 (38.5%)	39 (21.4%)	2.37	1.02	Low attitude
Enables education structures and systems to meet the needs of diversity	73 (40.1%)	89 (48.9%)	16 (8.8%)	4 (2.2%)	3.26	.71	High knowledge
Overall mean score					2.62		

Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree; Decision-Weighted Average = $36.78/14=2.62$

As illustrated in Table 12, the item's mean scores and teacher respondents' responses regarding inclusive education knowledge in secondary schools. From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.62 with a range of 1.98–3.26.

Hence, students help each other and learn together. Also, the school was working to avoid any discrimination (for students with special needs). In other words, teachers would like to help students with disabilities in the classroom. The same sense teachers believe that teaching students with special needs to regular needs is a good task. Teachers were willing to help students with special needs if they received training in inclusive education. Implementing inclusive education is a cost-effective approach. Finally, inclusive education enables educational structures and systems to meet diverse learning needs.

On the other hand, teachers believe that in schools, all students feel that they are not accepted by the community. Thereafter, teachers and students disrespect each other. There is no cooperation with teachers and parents to implement inclusive education. In the school, teachers noticed that directors and government bodies did not work together. In addition, high estimates are not given to all teachers in the school environment and the community.

Moreover, teachers believe that students, teachers, parents, and government bodies do not share the philosophy of inclusive education in schools and do not acknowledge the right of children to attend school in their home environments.

Table 13:

Item Mean Scores and Responses on Inclusive Education Attitudes

Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Decision
The course is intended to attract all students (even those with special needs)	11 (6%)	17 (9.3%)	113 (62.1%)	41 (22.5%)	1.98	.75	Low attitude
Our education encourages the participation of all students.	39 (21.4%)	99 (54.4%)	33 (18.1%)	11 (6%)	2.91	.79	High attitude
The lesson we teach highlights an understanding of diversity	28 (15.4%)	42 (23.1%)	77 (42.3%)	35 (19.2%)	2.34	.96	Low attitude
students actively participate in their private education	17 (9.3%)	57 (31.3%)	77 (42.3%)	31 (17%)	2.32	.86	Low attitude
students learn to support each other	16 (8.8%)	21 (11.5%)	86 (47.3%)	59 (32.4%)	1.96	.89	Low attitude
Teachers plan, teach, and revise the content of the school	5 (2.7%)	36 (21.4%)	95 (50.5%)	46 (25.3%)	2.00	.75	Low attitude
All students participate in activities outside classrooms	5 (2.7%)	39 (21.4%)	92 (50.5%)	46 (25.3%)	2.01	.76	Low attitude
The use of professional knowledge and skills	43 (23.6%)	102 (56%)	27 (14.8%)	10 (5.5%)	2.97	.77	High attitude
Teachers develop school inputs and delivery tools	54 (29.7%)	88 (48.4%)	31 (17%)	9 (4.9%)	3.02	.81	High attitude
The school resources have been distributed in a manner that is conducive to the proper implementation of inclusive education.	50 (27.5%)	96 (52.7%)	26 (14.3)	10 (5.5%)	3.02	.80	High attitude
School resources have been used to enhance the capacity to increase the diversity of schools in order to meet the needs of students with special needs.	31 (17%)	105 (57.7%)	41 (22.5%)	5 (2.7%)	2.8	.70	High attitude
I receive appropriate support from the school when students with special needs are assigned to my room	60 (33%)	77 (42.3%)	36 (19.8%)	9 (4.9%)	3.03	.85	High attitude
I appreciate the philosophy of inclusive plans and strategies.	66 (36.3%)	85 (46.7%)	29 (15.9%)	2 (1.1%)	3.18	.73	High attitude
Overall mean score					2.58		

**Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree;
Decision- Weighted Average = $33.54/13=2.58$**

As revealed in Table 13, it demonstrates that each item refers to scores and teacher respondents' responses regarding inclusive education attitude in secondary schools. From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.58 with a range of 1.96–3.18.

Teachers feel that their education system encourages the participation of all students. Thus, the use of professional knowledge and skills has been made. In teaching aids, teachers develop school inputs and delivery tools. Furthermore, school resources have been distributed in a manner that is conducive to the proper implementation of inclusive education, even it has drawbacks.

Similarly, school resources have been used to enhance the capacity to increase school diversity to meet the needs of students with special needs. They receive appropriate support from the school if students with special needs are assigned to my room. Teachers generally support and appreciate the philosophy of inclusive plans and strategies in schools.

In dimensions other than the above statements, teachers feel that preparing a course is not intended to attract all students (even those with special needs). The lesson we teach is not to highlight diversity, and students are not actively participating in their private education. Most students were not taught to support each other. Accordingly, the teachers did not plan, teach, or revise the content of the teaching material and the school system. Teachers believe that all students did not participate in activities outside classrooms.

Table 14:
Item Mean Scores and Teachers' Responses on Inclusive Education Policy Practice

Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Decision
The school facilitated the possibility of students with disabilities easily coming to school.	10 (6%)	18 (9.3%)	113 (62.1%)	41 (22.5%)	1.98	.75	Low practice
When I come to school, I am supported and can easily adapt	39 (21.4%)	99 (54.4%)	32 (18.1%)	12 (6%)	2.91	.79	High practice
Teachers try to address their problems rather than letting students leave the school.	28 (15.4%)	42 (23.1%)	77 (42.3%)	35 (19.2%)	2.34	.96	High practice
The teacher works hard to make the school comfortable for students.	17 (9.3%)	57 (31.3%)	77 (42.3%)	31 (17%)	2.32	.86	High practice
Buildings for schools considering students with disabilities	16 (8.8%)	21 (11.5%)	86 (47.3%)	59 (32.4%)	1.96	.89	Low practice
Government policy in the implementation of the Education act is going down to the ground and is being implemented correctly.	5 (2.7%)	36 (19.8%)	95 (52.2%)	46 (25.3%)	2.00	.75	Low practice
Teachers are trained in inclusive education	5 (2.7%)	39 (21.4%)	92 (50.5%)	46 (25.3%)	2.01	.76	Low practice
Teachers use class-wide rules and regulations to support classroom management.	43 (23.6%)	102 (56%)	27 (14.8%)	10 (5.5%)	2.97	.77	High practice
Teachers have experience of using Individualised Educational Programme (IEP).	15 (8.2%)	44 (24.2%)	90 (49.5%)	33 (18.1%)	2.22	.84	Low practice
My school has effectively disseminated inclusive education policies	8 (4.4%)	51 (28%)	83 (45.6%)	40 (22%)	2.14	.81	Low practice
Overall mean score					2.28		

Note: N=182, SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree; Decision-Weighted Average = 22.85/10=2.28.

As shown in Table 14, it confirms that each item refers to scores and teacher respondents' responses regarding inclusive education policy implementation in secondary schools. From the descriptive analysis, the dimension had an overall average mean score of 2.28 with a range of 1.98–2.97.

Thus, when teachers came to school, they were supported to adapt easily in the school. Teachers tried to address their students' problems rather than letting them leave the school. In addition, teachers were working hard to make the school conducive, as the inclusive policy stated. Similarly, teachers felt that they had used class-wide rules and regulations to support classroom management.

Teachers believe that schools that do not consider buildings do not consider students with disabilities. Government policy in the implementation of the 'Education Act' is going down to the ground and is not being properly implemented. Teachers were not trained in inclusive education. Plus, teachers did not have experience using the Individualised Educational Programme (IEP). Secondary schools have not effectively disseminated inclusive education policies.

4.3.2 Inferential Data Analysis

Table 15:

Independent Sample t-test Mean Comparison of Knowledge, Attitude and Policy Implementation across Sex

Subject	Variables	Sex	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	p
Students	Inclusive Education Knowledge	Male	445	16.48	3.30	994	-2.56	.01
		Female	551	17.03	3.43			
	Inclusive Education Attitude	Male	445	32.25	6.75	994	-2.3	.022
		Female	551	33.19	6.22			
	Inclusive Education Policy	Male	445	17.08	3.91	994	1.87	.061
		Female	551	16.61	3.97			

A t-test is a parametric test to measure the effect of an independent variable with two levels on dependent variables. The significance of the results was also determined using an alpha level of 5% or 95% of the confidence interval. This test was used to measure the differences in inclusive education knowledge, inclusive education attitudes, and inclusive education policy implementation practice in terms of both teachers and students sex.

As shown in Table 15, there was a significant difference in secondary school students' knowledge of their sex between inclusive education implementation scores for males ($M = 16.48$, $SD = 3.30$) and females ($M = 17.03$, $SD = 3.34$; $t(994) = -2.56$, $p = .01$, two-tailed). In other words, there was a statistically significant difference in inclusive education knowledge: $t(994) = -2.56$, $p < .01$) between male and female secondary school students; in this case, we can conclude that the variation in the mean implies that females have better knowledge about inclusive education than their male counterparts. However, using Cohen's d to quantify the effect size for the t-test of independent samples, the difference between males and females was determined. Consequently, a slight difference was detected between the two groups, as

indicated by the Cohen's *d* value of 0.163. However, it does represent a trivial-sized effect (Eta squared).

Similarly, we can reveal that regarding secondary school students' inclusive education attitudes, there was a significant difference in students' attitudes of their sex between inclusive education implementation scores of males ($M = 32.25$, $SD = 6.75$) and females ($M = 33.19$, $SD = 6.22$; $t(994) = -2.3$, $p < .022$, two-tailed). In other words, there was a statistically significant difference in inclusive education attitude, $t(994) = -2.3$, $p < .022$) between male and female secondary school students. In this case, we can conclude that the variation in the mean implies that females have a better attitude towards implementing inclusive education than their male counterparts; however, using Cohen's *d* to quantify the effect size for a t-test for independent samples, we determined the amount of the difference between male and females. Consequently, a slight difference was detected between the two groups, as indicated by the Cohen's *d* value of 0.145. It did represent a small-sized effect (Eta squared).

Finally, we can illustrate that there was a significant difference in secondary school students' policy implementation of their sex between inclusive education implementation scores for males ($M = 17.08$, $SD = 3.91$) and females ($M = 16.61$, $SD = 3.97$; $t(994) = 1.87$, $p = .061$, two-tailed). In other words, there was a statistically significant difference in inclusive education policy implementation: $t(994) = 1.87$, $p < .061$) between male and female secondary school students. In this case, we can conclude that the variation in the mean implies that males have better policy implementation towards inclusive education than their female counterparts; however, using Cohen's *d* to quantify the effect size for a t-test for independent samples, the amount of the difference between males and females was determined. Consequently, a slight difference was detected between the two groups, as

indicated by the Cohen’s d, which was 0.119; it did represent a small-sized effect, (Eta squared).

Table 16:

Independent Sample t-test Mean Comparison of Teachers’ Knowledge level, Attitude level and Policy Implementation across sex

	Variables	Sex	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	p
Teachers	Inclusive Education	Male	122	33.27	4.64	180	.64	.18
	Knowledge	Female	60	32.31	4.33			
	Inclusive Education	Male	122	33.00	4.57	180	-1.11	.67
	Attitude	Female	60	33.30	4.03			
	Inclusive Education	Male	122	22.89	4.38	180	.22	.80
	Policy	Female	60	22.00	3.82			

As shown in Table 16, concerning secondary school teachers’ sex, there was no significant difference on teachers’ inclusive education implementation knowledge scores between males (M = 33.27, SD = 4.64) and females (M = 32.31, SD = 4.33; t (180) = .64, p = .18). In other words, there was no statistically significant inclusive education implementation knowledge difference among teachers sex (t (180) = .64, p > .18). In this statistical information, we can confirm that the mean implies that there was no difference in inclusive education knowledge implementation between male and female counterparts.

Similarly, concerning secondary school teachers’ sex, there was no significant difference in teachers’ inclusive education implementation attitude scores between males (M = 33.00, SD = 4.57) and females (M = 33.30, SD = 4.03; t (180) = -1.11, p > .67). In other words, there was no statistically significant inclusive education implementation attitude difference among teachers sex (t (180) = -1.11, p > .67). In this statistical information, we can confirm that the mean implies that there was no difference in inclusive education knowledge implementation between male and female counterparts.

Finally, concerning secondary school teachers' sex, there was no significant difference in teachers' inclusive education implementation knowledge score between males ($M = 22.89$, $SD = 4.38$) and females ($M = 22.00$, $SD = 3.82$; $t(180) = .22$, $p = .80$). In other words, there was no statistically significant inclusive education implementation knowledge difference among teachers sex ($t(180) = .22$, $p > .80$). In this observation, the variation in the mean implies that there was no difference in inclusive education policy implementation between male and female students.

Table 17:

One -way ANOVA Mean Comparison of Teachers' Service Years with Knowledge Level, Attitude Level and Policy Implementation Level to wards Inclusive Education

Variables		Sum of Squares	Df	F	p
Inclusive Education Knowledge	Between Groups	100.409	2	1.663	.92
	Within Groups	5403.157	179		
	Total	5503.566	181		
Inclusive Education Attitude	Between Groups	65.606	2	1.235	.293
	Within Groups	4753.164	179		
	Total	4818.769	181		
Inclusive Education Policy	Between Groups	119.560	2	2.604	.077
	Within Groups	4109.034	179		
	Total	4228.593	181		

Independent one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effect of work experience on the dependent variables. This parametric test aims to test the effect of independent variables (that have three or more levels) on dependent variables. This test allows the researcher to determine whether there is a significant effect using an alpha level of 5% or a 95% confidence interval. If there is a significant difference between the independent and dependent variables, the ANOVA test allows for measuring the difference between any two levels of the independent variables that are conducted through post hoc tests. In this

study, this test was measured by teachers' service years and student numbers/class sizes/; classified into three groups i.e., small, medium, and large.

As can be seen, one-way ANOVA in Table 17 revealed that, in terms of teachers' work experience, the one-way ANOVA results show that work experience has no significant effect on inclusive education knowledge implementation. The participants' mean score from the implementation of inclusive education knowledge was not statistically significantly different at the $p < .05$ level for the three groups of teachers' work experience, i.e., 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and above 21 years: $F(2,179) = 1.663, p = .92$.

Similarly, the one-way ANOVA result reveals that, in terms of teachers' work experience, it has no significant effect on the implementation of inclusive education and inclusive education attitude. In addition, the participants' mean score from the implementation of inclusive education attitude was not statistically significantly different at $p < .05$ level for the three groups of teachers' work experience, i.e., 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and above 21 years: $F(2,179) = 1.235, p = .29$.

Finally, the one-way ANOVA results reveal that, in terms of teachers' work experience, it has no significant effect on inclusive education policy implementation. The participants' mean score from the implementation of inclusive education policy was not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level for the three groups of teachers' work experience, i.e., 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and above 21 years: $F(2,179) = 2.604, p = .077$.

Table 18:**One- way ANOVA Mean Comparison of Class size with Teachers Knowledge, Attitude and Policy Implementation level to wards Inclusive Education**

Variables		Sum of Squares	Df	F	P
Inclusive Education Knowledge	Between Groups	31.828	2	.521	.595
	Within Groups	5471.738	179		
	Total	5503.566	181		
Inclusive Education Attitude	Between Groups	62.108	2	1.169	.313
	Within Groups	4756.661	179		
	Total	4818.769	181		
Inclusive Education Policy	Between Groups	33.153	2	.707	.494
	Within Groups	4195.440	179		
	Total	4228.593	181		

As can be seen in one-way ANOVA in Table 18, which reveals that in terms of student number/class size, the one-way ANOVA result shows that class size has no significant difference on inclusive education knowledge implementation. The participants' mean score from the implementation of inclusive education knowledge was not statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level for the three groups of class size, i.e., 30-40 students, 41-50 students, and above 50 students: $F(2,179) = .521, p = .595$.

Similarly, the one-way ANOVA result above reveals that, in terms of student number/class size, result shows that class size has no significant effect on inclusive education attitude implementation. The participants' mean score from the implementation of inclusive education attitude was not statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level for the three groups of class size, i.e., 30-40 students, 41-50 students, and above 50 students: $F(2,179) = 1.169; p = .313$.

Finally, the one-way ANOVA results reveal that, in terms of teachers' work experience, it has no significant effect on inclusive education policy implementation. The

participants' mean score from implementation of inclusive education policy was not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level for the three groups of teachers' work experience, i.e., 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and above 21 years: $F(2,179) = .707, p = .494$.

4.2 Qualitative Results

Themes emerged from qualitative data to gain further understanding of inclusive education implementations in secondary schools in the Awi administrative zone. The probing interview guide questions were forwarded to both principals and teachers. In addition, non-participant observations were held in the three secondary schools. The compounds, classrooms, teaching materials, etc., were observed in accordance with inclusive education assumptions.

Finally, documents were analysed at the regional and federal levels, including manuals, books and other supporting policy documents on inclusive education implementation. Qualitative data were obtained from six directors (two in each school) of the three selected secondary schools. There was one principal and one vice academic principal who led the school towards administrative and academic issues. The two teachers who were interviewed in parallel at each school are presented in this section. The findings of the interviews were therefore coded, categorised, analysed and implemented. The findings focused on the participants' background, the experience of teachers' knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations towards inclusive education. The results are presented to demonstrate the similarities and differences between the participants and identify common shared experiences among the participants within each section of the study.

4.2.1 Background Information of the Principal Interviewees

The two in each school total of six principals and six teachers from three schools, namely Chagni town (Hidase secondary school), Injibara town (Agew Midir secondary school), and Dangila town (Mengesha Jembere secondary school), were interviewed. They

were purposefully selected with the view that schools have better experiences than other schools when trying to implement inclusive education.

After completing the quantitative phase of analysis, the researcher organised a convenient time and conducted face-to-face interviews with the respondents at their schools. The six principals had a service record for several years in teaching, including in school leadership positions.

4.2.2 Background Information of the Teacher Interviewees

In total, six teachers from the three secondary schools were selected. Teacher 1 is a female interviewee who received a BA degree in Biology, and teacher 2 is a male interviewee who received an MA degree in counselling psychology; they have been teaching and counselling in Chagni town (Hidase secondary school) for 15 and 10 years, respectively.

Teacher 3 and 4 were male interviewees from Injibara town (Agew Midir secondary school). They hold a BA degree in Civic and Ethical Education and an MA degree in Climate Geography.

Finally, teachers 5 and 6 were female and male participants who were from Dangila (Mengesha Jembere secondary school). They have BA degrees in English and Economics.

Table 19:

Socio Demographic Characteristics of Interviewees

Respondents	Profession	Role	Age	sex	Experience
Rp1	BA in History	Main Principal of Hidase Secondary School	43	M	16 years
Rvp1	BA in Amharic language	Vice Principal of Hidase Secondary School	40	M	18 years
Rp2	MA in EDPM	Principal of Agew Midir Secondary School	52	M	23 years
Rvp2	BA in Biology	Vice Principal of Agew Midir Secondary School	48	M	17 years
Rp3	BA in civics	Principal of Mengesha Jembere Secondary School	39	M	12 years
Rvp3	BA in English	Vice Principal, Mengesha Jembere Secondary School	51	M	19 years

RT1	BA in Biology	Hidase Secondary School Teacher	46	F	15 years
RT2	MA in Counselling psychology	Hidase Secondary School Teacher	37	M	10 years
RT3	BA in Civics	Teacher at Agew Midir Secondary School	41	M	11 years
RT4	MA in Climate Geography	Teacher at Agew Midir Secondary School	39	M	14 years
RT5	BA English	Teacher at Mengesha Jembere Secondary School	38	F	11 years
RT6	BA Economics	Teacher at Mengesha Jembere Secondary School	40	M	13 years

Note: Rp= Respondent Principal; Rvp=Respondent vice p(Principal; RT = Respondent Teacher

4.3 Interview Results

The interviews were conducted in order to support the data that were untouched in the quantitative data collections, and regarding the results of the quantitative data analysis, we focused on the main gaps that were observed. In this interview session, six teachers and six principals were interviewed, two at each study site.

4.3.1 Categorising the Interview Data Collected from Principals and Teachers

Data from in-depth interviews, field notes, and tape records were processed using qualitative data analysis. For this purpose, patterns that comprised similar categories were grouped with respect to principals' and teachers' views on inclusive education knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation in secondary schools.

Table 20:

Themes and Subthemes of the Interviewed Qualitative Data

Themes and subthemes	Themes and subthemes content
Theme one	Inclusive Education Knowledge
Subtheme 1:	Principals' and teachers' understanding of and skill gaps in inclusive education
Sub-theme 2:	Principals and Teachers misunderstanding, societal belief, on Inclusive Education

Theme Two	Principals and Teachers Attitude on Inclusive Education
Sub-theme 1:	Principals' and teachers' perceptions of inclusive education
Sub-theme 2:	Principals' and teachers' commitment and willingness to implement IE
Theme 3	Challenges in Implementing Inclusive Education Policies
Sub-theme 1:	Government-level challenges
Sub-theme 2:	Parental-level challenges
Sub-theme 3:	Teacher- level challenges

As can be illustrated in Table 20, the data were analysed from capturing the semi-structured interview guides. Three main themes and seven sub-themes were captured. Therefore, the collected interview guide data were analysed in terms of the themes and categories of ideas that could be extracted from both the principals' and teachers' interviews.

4.3.1.1 Inclusive Education Knowledge

Regarding teachers' and principals' perceptions of inclusive education, the researcher proposed the study's first query. This initial question was intended to build a link between the participants' prior knowledge and the questions the researcher planned to ask later.

Sub-theme 1: Knowledge, understanding, and skills regarding Inclusive Education

Most teachers and principals understood inclusive education as a method for including students with special needs, rather than gifted and multilingual, multicultural, and diverse needs. They do not have better knowledge to manage and accomplish the task of inclusive education. The knowledge of inclusive education helps students with disabilities. This theme explains principals' and teachers' understanding of inclusive learning. The interviewees discussed the importance of inclusive education in relation to their educational setting. A 46-year-old female educator in biology related what she remembered. The next verbal expression helps address the above issues:

... We know that the concept of inclusive education involves including students with minorities and diversities together and teaching provided by a single teacher in a single classroom, but this simply merges together without proper guidance and support that each learner needs (teacher 1).

In line with the above statement, the 41-year-old male civic teacher interviewees stated that:

In my view, to tell the truth, inclusive education is a wired concept; it is not practical in third-world countries, specifically in Ethiopia; it is time-consuming and worthless. It is better to send students with disabilities to religious schools or separate class rooms to provide teaching according to their learning style (teacher 3).

In addition to that, 39-year-old geography teachers concerning Inclusive education said that;

I am bored teaching here because I feel it is not acceptable by the school community. Teachers and students have not respected each other. A low estimation has been given to us. Ethnic conflicts marginalised each teacher and student, leaving status; since this zone is a special zone, we cannot offer residents living here. A knowledge gap was observed among the local teachers (Awi-Awigni language speakers) (Teacher 4).

In the same scenario, a 48-year-old vice principal asserted that the knowledge level of inclusive education it was sounding from other participants' point of view.

All school teachers do not have training opportunities in the workplace regarding inclusive education implementation. However, some teachers introduced special needs education courses as a common course in their first year bachelor's degree programmes. However, they lack practical skills and they do not have better knowledge in handling students with diverse needs... (Vice Principal 2).

The main inclusive education knowledge by teachers and principals were focused on theoretically because they are not new to this paradigm, but practically they cannot handle it as expected. This was supported by a 43-year-old principal history teacher who asserted that:

Honestly speaking, I took a special needs education course during my first degree as a common course. Theoretically, it is a good concept, but practically, it is difficult to implement inclusive education. This requires time, financial resources, and commitment. My school teachers were not committed to filling the gaps in this regard. Simply, they knew how to allocate class time in a given period, and they went out of school to support other work with extra money. Because the government does not pay satisfactory salaries, almost all teachers engage in extra work or outside teaching (principal 1).

Concurrently, another participant (a 51-year-old male English teacher vice principal) stated the impact of knowledge on inclusive education implementation; he added that:

I really think that this has posed a major challenge in teaching different abilities and diverse needs in a single classroom. This is the practice of economically wealthy countries. Teachers have insufficient knowledge to implement inclusive practice scientifically. They try to do as common sense chalk and board... this requires inclusive education, which involves providing educational services for students with disabilities with the help of special education teachers (Vice principal 3).

Sub-theme 2: Principals and Teachers' Misunderstanding, Societal Belief, on Inclusive Education

In this section of the thematic area, the participants were given the opportunity to express their personal perspectives and opinions about how inclusive education may meet the various requirements of each student in their school. The purpose of this theme area was to obtain detailed, individualised answers from the participants on their experiences with inclusive teaching methods. A 46-year-old female teacher stated that she understood and believed in the inclusive education philosophy. She recounted the events as follows:

I really tell you that in this way, my understanding is not good, and my society. As you have seen, the school building is not conducive to accommodating disabled students and other extraordinary students. Parents must do so when teaching students, but they give up on teachers' support. The primary choice was mainstreaming school/class... (Respondent Teacher/RT1/).

In the same way as the expression above, society does not have well-constructed knowledge and attitude. Although they sent children with disabilities at the beginning of elementary schools, after some boring years, they sent their students to Orthodox religious schools to become priests or monks (Teacher participant /TP3/).

Regarding students with gifted and talented abilities in schools and the zone areas, a 39 respondent principal in Menegsha Jembere Secondary School stated that with regard to extraordinary and underachievers, he said:

Governments and parents have a static understanding of able students; they focus on the hard sciences rather than students' interests. For example, if students earn high grades, they are primarily set to become doctors or pilots; in reality, students want to become keyboardists and artists or others. In the same manner, if the student scores a low mark, they are ignoring and demotivating the student who has been given a direction to become a trader or driver (three-tier vehicle) rather than supporting the student to dig out their talents and gifts. This is all, and I also accept this tactic (Principal 3).

4.3.1.2 Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education

The perspectives of educators and administrators are narrated and clarified in this respect by the following sub-themes: In this approach, every major issue is covered. The researcher sent the semi-structured questionnaire to teachers and school administrators to determine their feelings about implementing equitable learning in their schools.

Sub-theme 1: Perceptions of Principals and Teachers on Inclusive Education

Concerning teachers' and principals' attitudes regarding inclusive education, interviews were held at each study site. Respondents replied to the question raised by the interviewer, "What is your perception and willingness to implement inclusive education in your school?" Their perception (attitude) is better and acceptable. Most teachers and principals have a better attitude towards the implementation of inclusive education. However, the current situations of Ethiopian civil war students and teachers have been frustrated with the need to live and learn together.

The following quotations support this idea:

Mr. I told you the fact that my belief is that I love teaching, but the current circumstances of our country—political instability, economic inflation, student misbehaviour—could lead me boredom to teach eagerly. My salary could not afford me to exist with my family, so teaching for me in this time is as recreation; I engaged as a broker, sold, and rented houses for many years (teacher 2).

Similarly, regarding the above interview, we can capture information on inclusive education.

I do not believe that in a third-world country, inclusive education is applicable and manageable. Because we have devastating minds and think separate schools for students with disabilities and minorities are needed. I observed fillings in different statuses in economy, ethnicity, and religion among students this time (vice principal 2).

Sub-theme 2: Principals' and Teachers' Commitment and Willingness to Implement IE

Although school directors and zone education officials merely engage in a surface-level manner to promote inclusion, some teachers are less willing and devoted than others.

Mr. I regret informing you that students have a difficult time in class because there are moments when I feel powerless. Their academic achievements were not particularly successful (teacher participant 4).

Similarly, a 40-year-old teacher supported the above statement. This is mostly concerned with salary subsidies; not heartless feelings, he forwards:

Despite my strong commitment to helping students with disabilities, special needs students, and above-average students, my biggest challenges are the lack of professional support and the lack of a pay package. All these things affect how committed I am to helping them. I spend an hour and 20 minutes a day, 6 hours a week, teaching. The rest of my time is spent driving a (Bajaj) three-wheeler motor (teacher participant 6).

In a similar vein, a 38-year-old female participant teacher stated:

I try my hardest to fulfil my commitments, but I am overwhelmed by the many difficulties that come with working at a private school to make enough money to live and look after my children (Participant Teacher 5).

4.3.1.3 Inclusive Education Policy Implementation

To acquire in-depth information from interviewees from teachers and principals about inclusive education knowledge, in their schools, exhibiting training sessions regarding inclusive education were not offered. In terms of inclusive education, they stated the following:

Sub-theme 1: Government-level challenges

Inclusive education requires money. I have transferred to more than four schools in my life. In each school, the government does not provide the cost of inclusive education. Various resources are not met, such as books, computers, and class room arrangements etc. The government should provide professionals to schools beyond

theory-based talking. They need it only for reporting; they do not apply it at ground level, especially in rural and province-level schools (respondent principal 1).

There is a dearth of collaboration among NGOs operating in this area to support education. Regarding the health sector, non-governmental organisations are actively involved, but the education sector lacks talent. Thus, based on what I observed during my teaching career, the government should promote this industry and give it the attention it deserves to create a well-educated generation, regardless of problems, because being a human is enough (principal 3).

...Yes, we may do that, but the school is not that ready as far as I can see the physical condition, appearance of the school, and physical structure of the school. The government does not work on it... (Principal 1).

... In order to ensure high quality and fair education, the government must ensure that schools have an adequate supply of books, learning resources and qualified teachers. Despite having a psychologist on staff as a school counsellor, he also engaged in extracurricular activities. He did not have a safe place for consultation, and he works as a hobbyist at private colleges and attends class every day (teacher 3).

..Financial constraints abruptly affected the implementation of inclusive education; to fulfil each individual's needs, the government budget has been under the expected amount. In this year, the new curriculum books were not distributed to for students; instead, teachers were used to address the content from online sources (teacher 2).

...It is important to note that since August 2023, there has been a struggle in the Amhara area between the federal administration and the armed forces (Fano). The young Amhara students who were not in school were made to feel actively ashamed by this action. Young men were joining "Fano" militias, schools were closed, and women

were getting married young and leaving the country. This has a broad impact on school activities.

Sub-theme 2: Parental-level challenges

We know that there are various challenges to the educational sector. In particular, to implement inclusive education. This requires good facilities, community acceptance, parental involvement, and active participation in school communities. This sub-theme includes teachers' and principals' perspectives on inclusive education in Awi zone secondary schools. Among the participants, a 48-year-old teacher, who was counted, his view as follows:

Actually, parents were sending their children off with all their needs met with great enthusiasm, but they could not care less about the support that schools provide. Financially capable parents help their students during extracurricular study sessions for the hard sciences. However, students who came from remotes have not been provided for students with disabilities (Vice principal 3).

Due to the common misconception that children typically do not find employment following graduation and cannot enter universities after completing grade 12 exams, parents of young people are frequently demoralised and unwilling to engage in their children's education.

....As you know of low-income students actively participate in government-run educational institutions. Parents, particularly those with lower incomes, do not aggressively enforce learning environments for their students. Most boys and girls work in the straight market, selling pulses and shining shoes after school. Except for a few parents mentioned in the annual meeting report, parental engagement was quite low in this case.

Sub-theme 3: Teacher-level challenges

In the segments of inclusive education policy implementation, sub-theme 3, which addresses teacher-level challenges in implementing policy and legislative issues regarding the inclusive education paradigm, a 46-year-old participant teacher stated that:

To be honest, I did not study inclusive education in my teacher preparation programme. I was assigned to a class containing students who had diverse needs, yet I had no idea where to begin. At first, I was really lost. However, once I began to teach, I began to see certain ideas about inclusive education and special education coming together (participant teacher 2).

Because there are no skilled professionals in the subject matter area and a standardised assessment tool to assess the case of students, it is entirely difficult to discuss a meaningful support and intervention plan for helping students in inclusive classes. Some of the students in our school are still being misunderstood and misperceived because there is no special need experts to treat them, understand them, and make proper follow-up of both their strengths and weaknesses.

Uhhh...Oh, the problem at my school, in my opinion, is not a lack of passion; rather, it is the fact that most of the teachers, including myself, did not receive constructive training on how to implement inclusive education practically, and new political concerns quickly surfaced. They wrote in front of the school building, "quality education for all," but in reality, they do not care because everything changes the nation's political landscape (Teacher 6).

4.4 The Observation Results

4.4.1 School Physical Structures in Study Areas

The interior and exterior layouts of construction sites, education facilities, libraries, labs, restrooms, teacher staff members' office doors, ground arrangement, playing surfaces, roadways, and paths are not appropriate for students with disabilities or inclusion concepts, according to the researcher's observations of the physical environment of secondary schools in each school. In summary, a large number of students in grades 9 through 12 are enrolled in these institutions; however, the school grounds were unmaintained, and their resources were difficult to manage.

Hinders the availability of steps and ramps; open water pipes (sewerages) in the entrances to each structure and classroom doorways; uncovered ground holes at various locations; and a school with a veiled fence between Ethiopian Defence Force military camps—a very dire state. Less leaving the location because the students were becoming irritated. When the fences are broken down and abused, anyone can easily enter and exit the area without restriction.

4.4.2 Classroom Setups for Inclusive Education Practices

The researcher observed that certain classroom locations, gates, doors, and windows in secondary schools were inappropriate for students with limited ability to readily locate and operate classrooms. The room had inadequate ventilation and lighting. The number of students in the class was inappropriate for a conventional classroom, but given the circumstances of the 'Civil War' surrounding the area, students from rural or farming backgrounds were more likely to drop out of school. Therefore, the actual class composition ranged from 35 to 51. Before the event, there were up to 70 students were placed in each classroom at the school. Additionally, these placements violated the inclusionary teaching practice concept, which addresses the needs and aspirations of every individual.

Surprisingly, no expert in inclusive education or special needs exists at the selected secondary school research locations. Despite addressing only a section of the subject matter, no one can do braille reading, sign language, talent training, etc. with only the subject matter knowledge. The dearth of teaching tools and textbooks and their abhorrent monthly income gross salary of 5,163 up to 10,150 ETB, based on their teaching experience or around 50 up to 85 US dollars, are the main reasons why teachers are demotivated.

4.4.3 Teaching Methods and Challenges in the Classroom

According to the observations made in the classroom, the instructional tactics employed there were not adequate or differentiated enough to fulfill the requirements of students with disabilities. There was not a discernible range of activities available for every student. The most difficult obstacles in the studied regions were untrained instructors, restricted living conditions, issues with the allocation of funding, political interference, principals who did not pay enough attention, limited parental engagement, and a lack of hope for the future of young people. Many students commented, "This is not the time for learning"; instead, they should be working on technical projects. Learning up to grade 10 takes plenty of time.

Although every classroom was built using a building, its quality was not compromised. The manifestations in the area are dust, wooden, traditional crooked blackboards, chalk, and blackboards. Although teachers make an effort in this regard, it appears that when outsiders or supervisors enter the classroom, participatory teaching occurs, but not in reality.

They are unable to use the restrooms freely due to their dusty conditions. Whatever the appearance of the government's plans and approaches, the work being done with people who have special needs in order to achieve full inclusion in schools and full involvement in all aspects of society at large suggests that much more work has to be done. It turned out to

be confusing in secondary schools but, generally a positive scenario, especially in primary schools. The net picture was as witnessed from the researcher's observations.



4.5 Document Analysis in Inclusive Education

In this sense, an examination of documents is the procedure of ensuring that a deployment document for equitable learning is prepared for use or dissemination. In order to realise this, users often need to read the written material, verify the accuracy of any data points, and verify the sources. Whether regulations play a role in these issues or not, schools should be mindful of the documents to appropriately apply them. After discussing the current state of customised schooling for students, this study now addresses the relevant policy framework. Let it be first, provide a quick summary of how government policies and programmes have included schooling for children who have special needs over the course of time.

4.5.1 National and International policy plans on Inclusive education

Table 21:

International and National Policies, plans and Programmes

Year	National policy plans and programmes	International policies
1994-2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Ethiopian Federal Constitution (1995) • Education and Training Policy (ETP) (1994) • Education Sector Development Programme I (1997) • Education Sector Development Programme II (2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education for All (2000) • Salamanca Statement (2004)
2005-2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education Sector Development Programme III (2005) • Special Needs/Inclusive Education Strategy (2005) • General Education Quality Improvement Project I (2008) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) (ratified in Ethiopia in 2008)
2010-2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education Sector Development Programme IV (2010) • Special Needs/Inclusive Education Strategy (2012) • General Education Quality Improvement Project II (2013) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable Development Goals (2015)
2015-2020	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education Sector Development Programme V (2015) • Master Plan for Special Needs Education/Inclusive Education (2016-2025) • General Education Quality Improvement Programme for Equity (2018) 	

According to the "Education Training Policy," education ought to support the nation's need for workers, including children with disabilities. To help our nation's economy grow, we must acquire the required education and join the workforce. According to the approach, this is the intended outcome. Therefore, although it appears that the federal government has always prioritised inclusive education; bilateral agreements may have contributed to the continued momentum of this initiative. In fact, access to schooling and fairness have both generally improved. However, access to high-quality education is limited for the most marginalised groups, including those with disabilities, girls living in different sections of the population, and others.

Despite receiving more attention from the government, some stakeholders have criticised the top-down methods used in the creation of policies, plans, and programmes. Because the plans, strategies, and programmes were not conducting the intended vision functionally. Although the practicality of the policies was debated, in the case of the current research, thorough visualisation of the policies developed from the top level to the lowest. The plans that were in place at the time were seen as being very rigid and did not take into account the needs of disabled students attending other schools in this area or the changing resources and skills available to provide support to students in an inclusive learning environment. This demonstrates that the government cannot make practical promises through proper testimony, even when supporting and ratifying policies, plans, and strategies.

The foundation for special needs and inclusive education in Ethiopia has been built around six strategic pillars over the next decade, from 2015 to 2025. Fundamentally, it covers fundamental topics related to the implementation of inclusive education for those with special needs. To throw light in a more thorough manner, they are mostly based on Special Needs Education (SPN) components that are integrated into the ESDP-V as traversal concerns.

Increasing awareness of inclusive education and special needs education is another goal. Concerns that are either absent from the development plan or require enforcement are addressed by issues that are already included in the ESDP IV: enhancement of pre-service and during-service teacher preparation with a greater emphasis on special needs education, outlining the qualifications, career paths, and positions for SNE educators and other professionals, and creating pay structures that take SNE educators into consideration; the objectives of inclusive education resource centres should be made clear. They should also focus on assessment and identification, provide information on counselling and guidance, support for learning and attendance and curriculum; examine curricula, teaching and learning materials and teacher guides; expand the approach to include students with learning difficulties; and emphasise the value and procedures of evidence-based decision making. The aforementioned methods were attempted in primary schools, but professionals in secondary education have no opportunity to work.

The six pillars and their objectives are as follows:

- Development of pre-service, in-service, and leadership training for teachers to better address special needs education and support;
- Establish a policy environment that supports inclusive and special needs education;
- The assurance of pertinent structures, mandates, and responsibilities at all levels to support inclusive and special needs education; and
- The assurance of access to high-quality education for all students.
- Create a system that directs all administration levels through sound evidence and relevant performance information.
- To create a financing framework addressing the provision of education and support for learners with special needs and disabilities, each of the pillars starts

with analytical considerations, assumptions, and requirements. After that, a set of strategic priorities is set for each pillar, followed by activities through which the objectives are met. The outcomes and possible indicators are then represented.

4.6 Mixed Results Triangulation

First, a quantitative strand was created and used in this inquiry. The numerical results are then made clear. Second, a qualitative thread was created to explain the quantitative results. In this case, triangulation with qualitative data was modified to support the quantitative conclusions. This lends credence to the study's conclusions and results. This mixed-methods strategy employed two distinct data gathering techniques to offer a thorough understanding of inclusive education in secondary schools.

The main conclusions of each approach were combined to create a more thorough analysis. The degree of knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations on inclusive education among students and instructors were among the factors covered by the quantitative data. A summary of perceived attitudes, knowledge, and obstacles to implementing inclusive education was also included in the qualitative data. Here, the survey questionnaire and interview results were compared and contrasted to triangulate the data and highlight differences between the outcomes of each approach. Consequently, the following topics demonstrate the integration.

4.6.1 Practical Realities of Inclusive Education in Secondary Schools

The focus of this section was on the research questions and designs, which are closely linked. When examining the quantitative analysis using mean ratings, the students' and teachers' scores were above and below the expected level. Participants in the interview guides also noted that teachers and principals were relatively unsuccessful in implementing inclusive education because they felt it was an unpleasant hope; however, some attitudinal

and knowledge gaps made it difficult for them to implement inclusive education in their schools. This study had three basic inclusive education implementation dimensions.

I. Inclusive Education Knowledge: Despite the fact that the quantitative data indicated that, according to the students' responses, parents and teachers were not working together to achieve inclusive education. The new inclusive education paradigms are also not shared by parents, government agencies, educators, teachers, and students. Lack of knowledge leaves the school unable to prevent discrimination against students with special needs. At the same time, remarks made by the teachers revealed that none of the students felt like they belonged there and that they were not always present to help one another when learning. Similar to this, there was a lack of respect between teachers and students, cooperation between teachers and parents, evaluations of all teachers, disagreements among educators about the principles of inclusive education, and acknowledgement that the child did not legally have the right to attend school in their home. Furthermore, the quantitative conclusions were corroborated by the interview data. There was a lack of awareness among students and instructors about inclusive education, notwithstanding the gender difference that was observed, with female students having a stronger understanding and attitude towards inclusive education.

II. Inclusive Education Attitude: In another noteworthy example, students responded that they had not learned by planning lessons with consideration for all students, including those with special needs. Students did not actively engage in their individual studies or extracurricular activities; additionally, teachers failed to prepare lesson plans and make use of their professional expertise; schools failed to diversify; students with special needs were not placed in a class; and the school failed to provide adequate support. In a similar vein, instructors react when the course is ready; it is not meant to draw in every student, even those with specific needs. Teachers did not plan, teach, or revise the curriculum at

school; students did not actively participate in their private education; students were not taught to support one another; and none of the students engaged in extracurricular activities. These are some reasons why the lesson they teach does not emphasise appreciation for diversity. In this regard, the qualitative results are consistent with the quantitative findings. Students, teachers, and parents attitudes were, in some ways, misapplied in relation to inclusion principles. However, a few other elements have caused their negative attitude. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative outcomes are complementary to one another.

III. Inclusive Education Policy Implementation: Students commented that the campus buildings, rooms, and other spaces were not constructed with handicapped students' needs in mind, nor were they assisted in adjusting when they first arrived at the school. As a result, because these children were not trained in inclusive education, the government policy on inclusive education is being improperly executed.

Furthermore, the teachers stated that the school did not make it possible for children with disabilities to attend classes easily. It also demonstrates how schools' architectural design did not take students with impairments into account; the way government's policy is implementing the Education Act is correct, however, it does not go all the way to the grassroots levels. In addition to schools' ineffective dissemination of inclusive education policies, teachers receive insufficient training on inclusive education. The results of the qualitative interviews corroborate the quantitative data's assertion that the research references' execution of the policy was questionable. The inclusive education policy was like a balloon in the sky—it could not touch the earth. In summary, the findings indicate that the degree of inclusive education implementation across the three dimensions was below anticipated levels. As a result, information from the interview and questionnaire supplemented one another, which may have increased the validity of the findings.

IV. Barriers to Implementing Inclusive Education

Three primary themes emerged from the triangulation of the two datasets regarding challenges. These are the knowledge, attitudes, and application of inclusive education policies held by teachers and students. Barriers to implementing inclusive education have been identified. Knowledge and attitude deficits were identified based on the quantitative analysis and results. The qualitative outcome supported the aforementioned situation similarly. However, the interview data revealed that obstacles to inclusive education included a lack of training, budgetary limitations, commitment issues and policy implementation at the practical level. The last prevalent obstacle was the disapproval of disabilities and education held by parents and educators. A paper from the Ministry of Education highlighted that a lack of commitment among educators and administrators resulted in the poor practical application of policies. This deficiency was exacerbated by a lack of follow-up from regional and district managers, who viewed their role as simply distributing documents. Field observations confirmed similar challenges, noting that schools lacked trained personnel, adequate resources, and proper infrastructure, and that issues with accessibility had not been addressed. The quantitative evidence in this regard reveals that learning is discouraged because of the fear of stigmatisation.

4.6.2 Strategies to Increase Inclusive Education Implementation

Information was collected using interview guides and survey questionnaires. The outcomes of both tests demonstrated that if certain tactics were employed, inclusive education implementations might be more effective. Most participants, including students and teachers, offered specific recommendations to improve the implementation of inclusive education while examining the quantitative analysis.

Likewise, information collected through interview guides demonstrated the most effective means of implementing inclusive education. In this study, the best strategies to improve

inclusive education implementation were teachers' short- and long-term training, parental involvement and attitude changes, professional assignments, economic empowerment, and real-world policy practice.

In addition, the findings reveal that students and instructors started to participate more actively when schools made them feel more at home. Furthermore, the findings from both data sets indicated that teaching parents about various issues was one of the best strategies. Regarding tactics to enhance the execution of inclusive education, both datasets identified nearly identical results.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

This study investigated inclusive education implementation practices in the Awi administration zone, Amhara region, Ethiopia. This study assessed the knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations of teachers and students regarding inclusive education. This chapter provides a summary of the study's main conclusions and gives an indication of their theoretical and practical implications. Each finding's implications have been connected to previous findings to illustrate the study's contribution to inclusive education in the study area and to represent the research's implications.

Finally, a critical evaluation of the research has been conducted, and conclusions to be drawn. The following sections address the study's primary findings and practical consequences.

5.1 Teachers' and Students' Extent of Inclusive Education Implementation

In this study, the extent of the implications of implementing inclusive education was not as good as expected. In the study sites, the school communities were eager to implement and practice inclusive education in previous years. However, in the current study, teachers and principals have not addressed these issues. In this study, teaching and learning activities were affected by political and financial instabilities.

In general, inclusive education has not been implemented in a desired manner. The study found that general curriculum teachers have no basic knowledge of managing learners with diverse needs. College/university courses did not prepare students adequately for inclusive environments. Generally, during the in-depth conversations, many teachers revealed that the adoption of equitable education in the chosen public secondary schools had only been partially executed.

5.2 Existing Status of Teachers' and Students' Knowledge and Attitudes Regarding Inclusive Education Implementation

The practice of inclusive education is primarily intended to overcome excluded and marginalised citizens educational problems throughout the world. In this study, the findings showed that the knowledge and attitudes of teachers and students were somewhat limited. The practice s of inclusive education in secondary schools was scarce compared with elementary schools in the study area. Social, economic, and political factors have stagnated the status of inclusive education in secondary schools in the Awi educational zone.

The availability of manpower, infrastructure and society's beliefs have not been consistent with the current philosophical assumptions of inclusive education implementation. Teachers' knowledge and attitudes about inclusion varied; however, most of them were found to have theoretical knowledge on inclusive education concepts and activities.

However, there was an observable limitation in the inclusive classroom in the presentation of instruction by using different teaching methods and instructional material usage to address the diversity of students' needs. Halder (2023) asserted that theoretical and fundamental information must be thoroughly understood by educators to ensure a better inclusive culture. In addition, Sharma and Michael (2017); Ginja & Chen (2023) found that attitudinal barriers and Forlin (2011), Yorke et al. (2022), and Kuppusamy et al. (2016) lack of ability and expertise adversely affect the practice of inclusive education.

Teachers in secondary schools stated that most lacked pedagogical and practical content knowledge. In their view, curriculum and examination-driven secondary school teachers trusted upon traditional "chalk and talk" teaching methods. Similarly, Watkinson (2013) evaluated secondary teachers who were either unaware or did not want to acknowledge their lack of pedagogical knowledge. Again, the current finding is consistent with Meidrina et al., (2017), SIDA (2014), Costello and Boyle (2013) and UNESCO (2020)), who also asserted

that attitude plays a significant role in achieving inclusive education goals. Temesgen (2014), Assefa (2018), Dagneu (2013), and Singh et al. (2023) revealed those teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and abilities can be major barriers to inclusion (Adewumi & Mosito, 2019).

In other dimensions that contradict the current findings, Okech et al. (2021) found out that teachers' attitudes towards learners with disabilities and other special needs were reported to be increasingly positive in the last decade; that is the best support to practice inclusion.

5.3 Inclusive Education Implementation Constraints and Challenges

5.3.1 Challenges at the School Level

School management can either elevate it or deprive inclusive education implementation practice s of their level of understanding. In the current study, the principals revealed that inclusive education is not properly implemented. They cannot force teachers to do everything, unless for the purpose of reporting to higher-level officials. Highly recommended by Logofătu et al., (2020), they stressed that teachers and staff needed good management to implement inclusion.

This result is also consistent with Okongo et al., (2015) study that a deficiency of resources affects inclusion at the school level. This concept was supported by Logofătu, M. et al. (2020) and the Salamanca statement (1994). School factors beyond the attitudes of individual teachers include the school leaders; the role of leadership and the resources available in the school are mandatory pillars. They can motivate and adjust the entire school system to implement inclusive education. The reality here is that leaders are more concerned with political issues and students' superficial scores to report to the woreda, province, and zone education heads.

5.3.2 Challenges at the Teacher Level

In the meantime, the implementation of inclusive education has been systematically curtailed by teachers' willingness to accept their living conditions. Teachers failed to implement the recommendations in their classes due to workload, time constraints, and a lack of resources. According to the findings of this study, teachers play a vital role in the teaching and learning process but less in the implementation of inclusive education.

The primary obstacle to delivering daily lessons in accordance with students' needs and abilities was a lack of knowledge and skills in the development and exploitation of instructional materials. By eliminating difficult barriers and providing various opportunities, accommodations, and suitable structures and arrangements, inclusive education seeks to meet the diverse needs and abilities of people and facilitate their participation in education and other social and cultural activities (UNESCO, 2005). This allows each student to maximize their potential to benefit from their education. According to Park et al., (2016) and Kurz & Paul, (2005) stated that research findings indicated inclusion teacher preparation is guaranteed to bring dreams to life.

Similarly, Singh et al.'s (2023) showed that educators still hold the view that inclusive classrooms are the same as traditional classrooms, assuming that all students need to receive the same instruction to complete all course materials, regardless of their degree of involvement or participation. As Okech et al., (2021) found that educators are making every effort, but this is difficult because people like you are cognizant, they lack training and continue to employ outdated techniques that affect the expected goals to practice inclusion. Maria (2013) and Galaterou & Antoniou (2017), contended that teaching experiences and training greatly influence the perception of inclusive education. Supply of resources, equipment, and support; pre-service and in-service training; and flexible and accessible curriculum (Alemayehu, 2020; Hay & Paulsen, 2001).

The practice of inclusive education benefits everyone, and this highlights the role that support services play in helping people overcome learning difficulties. In the process of teaching and learning, inclusive education works in this way to promote human growth, particularly for individuals who receive special treatment. As far as educators are concerned, inclusive teaching is an effort to ensure that every student has access to education. However, many educators connected the idea of special needs thinking to ways to provide everyone access to education; nevertheless, thinking is counterproductive.

5.3.3 Parental and Community-level Challenges

Parental and community-level participation in school improvement, quality education, and inclusive education implementation has a backbone. According to the teachers' reports in this study, the main parental-related obstacles to implementing equitable educational opportunities comprised parents' unfavourable mental state, lower levels of perception, economic difficulties, and a lack of skills and expertise. The qualitative findings revealed that the teachers reported that parents were less active in inclusive education implementation activities. Additionally, the study revealed that a primary obstacle to parental and community participation was the unfavourable mind set and misunderstanding of parents. Because parents believe that a child's impairment is a result of God's retribution, they believe that education at a higher level cannot change their child.

Consistent with the current study, Parveen (2018) and Temesgen (2021) reaffirm that the biggest obstacles to integration into a larger community and the negative attitudes of their loved ones prevented youngsters from attending school. Less skills, wealth, and education level were determined to be the most prevalent barriers that prevented parents from participating in inclusive education, which is consistent with the findings of (Williams and Sánchez, 2013 and Muhammad, 2022). The last component of the structure, cooperating, was

emphasised by Paju et al. (2022) and (Garcia-Melgar et al., 2022) who also emphasised that cooperation is necessary for successful inclusion.

This is supported again by Beaton et al. (2022) ; (Beaton, M and Burke, A and Dharan, V and Galkiene, A and Kyrö-Ämmälä, O and Lakkala, S and Löfström, J and Maxwell, 2022) and Musa's (2019) finding that inclusion ensures that all students, regardless of any intimidation feelings, feel welcome and that their individual needs and learning styles are valued. Herz (2023) supported this approach; it may also require making parental and community participation mandatory. Salamanca (1994) also confirmed that parents and communities play a great role when they are aware of inclusive education.

5.3.4 Government-level Challenges

Poor political stability, poverty, illiteracy, inattention, and lack of commitment all have a significant, harmful impact on the quality of education. The observation confirmed that all schools in the research locations had physical structures, but none were adequate for or accommodating students with disabilities. This includes classrooms, libraries, laboratories, restrooms, gate entries, sports fields, and pathways. The practice of inclusive education involves more than just giving students with disabilities and their peers the opportunity to attend classes together; it also entails setting up the right conditions for accommodating students with disabilities through flexible curricula, teaching-learning methodologies, and aesthetically pleasing physical environments.

Furthermore, some areas that require further adaptation include the open fluid lines (sewerages) in front of each building and the classroom gate; the absence of covered ground holes in various locations; and the placement of collections of stones and other materials on various surfaces, which serve as some examples of the challenges associated with the physical structures of school compounds. The government's disregard for inclusion in

education is the main cause of this problem. In particular, the classroom stairs were constructed without taking the needs of children with disabilities into account.

In line with the current study, Musyoka (2018) and Mitiku et al. (2014), assert that obstacles to inclusive education may come from various sources, including a reluctance to alter inflexible learning environments and school structures. A classroom that isn't favourable to learning might affect students' moods for learning in both physical and psychological ways. The results of this have a detrimental impact on students' academic achievement and ability to help students reach their full potential.

The other research revealed that physical settings, infrastructures, cultures and policy changes should all be considered while promoting inclusive education. Consistent with Uchem et al. (2014) the goals of all these educational systems are to address the diverse needs of community members as learners. Similarly, Okongo et al. (2015) and Maulidina (2019) stated that school buildings must be modified to promote a positive, inclusive school climate.

A study by Mariga et al. (2017) also stated that it encourages students who are eager to voice fresh ideas and innovations in the classroom. Many educational institutions have run-down structures that lack resources for libraries, laboratories, and other support services. Similarly, the findings of Akanmu & Isiaka (2016) ; Charema & Centre (2016); Biswas (2021) and Meremikwu & Ibok (2020) confirmed challenges related to inclusiveness of politics and economic impact.

In line with this, a local study by Henok (2014) suggested that Ethiopian public buildings should be accessible in both design and construction. To assist teachers in improving their skills, it is crucial to provide relevant experience in real-world settings following training, in addition to hands-on training and internships. Governments, according to Halder (2023) and Kavua (2022), must prioritise giving educators the necessary experience

in real-world settings following training, in addition to hands-on training and internships that will allow them to further develop their skills.

In line with the current study, according to Fullan (2015), unfavourable educational environments impact inclusive practices. In addition, Shields (2018) asserted that government support and management play crucial roles in the efficacy of inclusive education. Improved accessibility, safety, and friendliness of learning and boarding facilities for all students are essential for a sound barrier-free environment. They still do not have the proper methods and techniques to guarantee success. Sufficient funding, instruction, supplies, and encouragement from educational institutions, local communities, and even parents are required to advance inclusive education.

5.4 Poor Policy Implementation Implications

Despite being open and sincere in its intentions to assist students with disabilities, Ethiopia's education policy may be challenging to implement in daily life. In practice, the policy has only been mentioned in the text, but the government intends and plans to implement it. Although the Special Needs Education Policy calls for the creation and execution of methods to identify and improve recruiting processes for SNE staff, the investigation results revealed that no such hiring had occurred in the schools studied. In the three schools, no one was ever allowed to work with special needs or inclusive education capacities. This was not in line with the recognized papers, either domestically or internationally, regarding the plans, strategies, and programs of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

In Ethiopia, policies are enforced to implement inclusive education, as Tesemma (2011) and MoE (2016) stated that inadequate policies consider the absence of equal education in a manner consistent with the latter. Furthermore, it was made abundantly evident by UNESCO (2020) that laws and policies promoting inclusive education have been passed

in several African nations, including Ethiopia, Uganda, Burkina Faso, South Africa, and Kenya.

Additionally, Ethiopia has accepted numerous international agreements and conventions pertinent to inclusive education (Maclachlan et al., 2014 ; Butz & Cook, 2017). The 'Education and Training Policy' (1994) in Ethiopia seems to favor special education in the current context. Similarly, it guarantees that economically exploited groups will receive extra assistance in training, development, and policy. It also seeks to provide education to all children without prejudice (Debela et al., 2020).

Consistent with Howgego et al. (2014), evidence supporting inclusive education in African nations is insufficient and dispersed. Learners with disabilities face challenges in Africa because of inaccessible locations, unaccommodating policies, unfavorable attitudes, biased application and admission processes, and a lack of accessibility regulations and options (Chataika et al., 2012).

Research on the execution of policies has revealed that the capacity to perform a policy determines its comprehension (Viennet & Pont, 2017). It is well recognized that many development initiatives in many nations fail because of a lack of institutional capacity to perform and maintain policy practices (Parveen, 2018). The ability to carry out policy functions, resolve issues, and establish and achieve the goals of policy Greene (2017) is the standard definition of capability (Hehir et al., 2016 ; Bell & Stevenson, 2015).

5.5 Tactics to Reduce Challenges in Implementing Inclusive Education

5.5.1 Offer Trainings

The growth of teachers overall depends heavily on teacher training. No special education background exists among the instructors in the inclusion schools; nevertheless, a handful of them completed PGDT courses as required by their universities. In particular, the

teachers did not put much effort into finding effective ways to teach students who experience learning difficulties in their courses. They also showed a lack of commitment to inclusive teaching methods.

Consequently, Munoz et al. (2007) emphasized that curriculum development must coincide with inclusion teacher training and school amenities. Furthermore, studies by Hayes & Bulat (2017); Zegey (2021); Temesgen (2021) and Ludago (2020) corroborated the conclusions that the implementation of inclusion is affected by a lack of infrastructure, specialist trainees and resources.

Regarding Melaku (2018) findings, educators who are willing to assume this duty often realize that they require support and guidance to modify their teaching and learning approaches. Additionally, providing professionals with excellent pre- and in-service training enhances the programme (Ahmmed et al., 2012b ; Engelbrecht et al., 2016 ; Gedfie et al., 2020).

5.5.2 Financial Support

Every action requires financing in one form or another. Therefore, it often costs significant money to place children with substantial special needs in an inclusive classroom without the experience and knowledge of an instructor. The programme will undoubtedly require significant financing, and it may be necessary to train a substantial portion of the teaching staff.

For the inclusive strategy's goals to be implemented and realized, there must be sufficient resources and administrative structures must be available and used appropriately. Because government or non-governmental organizations pay for everything, most low-income Ethiopian parents wish to send their disabled children to boarding schools. Parents must invest time and financial resources in their children to ensure inclusive education. This

research identified financial issues as a major barrier to the implementation of inclusive education.

Consistent with current findings, Abimanyi-Ochom & Mannan (2014 and Parveen (2018), found that obstacles to adopting inclusive education indicated a lack of specialized material resources for student instruction. Rahaman & Sutherland (2011), Sharma and Kumar (2019), and Gedfie et al. (2020) also showed that budgetary constraints affect the implementation of inclusive education. One of the unresolved concerns in this field is how to support equal educational opportunities. It has deteriorated in inclusive education practices, particularly in industrialized nations.

5.5.3 Commitments

True commitment is needed to establish fair education. The results of this study demonstrate that instructors are less committed for various reasons. Their lack of accessibility, low pay, lack of subsidies, lack of education, and attitude are the reasons behind their lack of commitment. Srivastava et al. (2015) confirmed that instructors allocate less time and energy to inclusion.

Furthermore, Rouse (2008) emphasised that while knowledge may not always translate into classroom practice, dedication is also required for inclusive practice. According to Van Lancker & Parolin (2020) and Okech et al. (2021), a number of educators are reluctant to incorporate inclusive education techniques into their classroom instruction because of a lack of requisite skills. The results of Hollenweger et al. (2015) are likewise in line with the preceding conclusions, which stated that sustained professional growth is necessary for genuine transformation.

The majority of interviewees identified time and commitment limits as obstacles to efficient inclusive education practices, particularly administration, paperwork, homework

correction, and policy development. According to the results of the current study, instructors' salary-related commitment was the main issue, and time constraints arose during the test period. Teachers are unwilling to work in inclusive schools because of their lack of desire and excessive workloads.

5.6 Sex Differences in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Students and Teachers

Research has indicated that the demographic characteristics of educators, including age and gender, may impact the provision of inclusive education. In this study finding, there were some differences in knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementation by sex.

The current study found substantial differences between the students' sex in secondary school students' knowledge and attitudes regarding inclusive education. Although some female respondents were more knowledgeable about inclusive education and had a more positive attitude than male respondents, some male respondents were also better at implementing policies. Regarding the teachers, no discernible gender difference was observed in their knowledge, attitudes, and application of inclusive education policies among the teachers.

Consistent with this, Loria (2010) recognized the results from Georgia on the impact of educators' sex on the adoption of inclusive education. Inconsistent with the current finding, Fakolade et al. (2009), Boyle et al. (2013) and Mintesnot (2018) found that female teachers have a more favorable attitude towards inclusiveness compared to their male counterparts.

The current findings align with research conducted in the United Arab Emirates, India, and Spain by Bibiana et al. (2020); Wangio (2014); Awal (2014); and Triviño-amigo et al. (2022), which suggested that the gender of educators had no significant influence on the implementation of inclusive education. In a similar vein, Costello & Boyle (2013) studied on

"the attitudes of secondary school teachers towards inclusive education" revealed no distinction between male and female educators' views.

Similar to this, Majoko et al.'s (2018) research in South Africa showed that managing inclusive institutions did not depend on the gender of the teachers, as both sexes were skilled at doing so. In contrast to the present research by Mashiya (2014) and Wangio (2014), a different South African study revealed that female teachers preferred male teachers to female teachers. Contrary to recent research by Parveen (2018), which revealed that women had less of a significant difference in teacher attitudes and knowledge (feelings) when it comes to implementing inclusive education, males have a greater difference.

In other ways, consistent with the current finding, Emily & Mc Laughlin (2014) conducted studies in Kenya demonstrated that male teachers were less accepting of inclusive education than female teachers, which hindered the enrolment of students with special needs in regular schools.

The present research corroborates Okech et al. (2021) findings that successful implementation of inclusive education requires the use of effective teaching practices to cater to the needs of students with disabilities. Additionally, as noted by Kocha & Senapathy (2022) positive attitudes towards inclusive education, effective educational procedures, and sufficient teacher knowledge of inclusion are other factors that contribute to the success of inclusive education. Though role practice, teacher comprehension, and mindsets were regarded as crucial for effective inclusivity, most teachers' views towards inclusion were often negative, which is consistent with the current study (Alhassan, 2014).

Similar to the current findings, research conducted by Ludago (2020) in Hadiya, Ethiopia, revealed issues with attitudes, skills, and abilities among educators, as well as how inclusive programs are run in schools. Many children with disabilities do not always benefit

from inclusive education; this is due to a lack of specialized instructional abilities, unfavorable teacher attitudes, and a lack of awareness of inclusion among school administrators.

5.7 Differences in Class Size in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Teachers

According to some studies, material assistance and resource availability are more important for high-quality education than class size. Thus, the results of this study demonstrate that differences in student population or class size have no impact on how differently instructors apply policies or how much knowledge and attitude they possess.

In contrast to the contrary of the current findings, teachers would embrace an inclusive curriculum if there were few students in the class, according to Tamar (2008) and Tshifura (2012), who discovered data. Similar to this, South African researchers, Evans et al. (2009) and Swart et al. (2002), emphasized that big learning settings are considered the most difficult obstacle to effective inclusion management. Class size or total number of students affects teacher-student interaction, climate, and specific educational requirements. According to Pedder (2006); Sowell (2013); and Siegle et al. (2014), instructors find it more difficult to teach in larger classes and that extracurricular activities require more time.

5.8 Differences in Work Experience in Knowledge, Attitude, and Policy Practice towards Inclusive Education Implementation among Teachers

The development of the abilities necessary for successful instruction is undoubtedly aided by classroom experience. Supporting and managing a diverse student body in educational settings is made easier by experience. In the current study results, work experience does not affect the knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations to practice inclusive education. Studies by Avramidis & Norwich (2010), Wangio (2014), and Awal

(2015) showed inconsistent results with the current findings on the acceptance of students with physical limitations by teachers with less than six years of experience compared to those with six to ten years of experience, who showed a drop in the acceptance of students with physical limitations.

Similarly, older instructors have a worse attitude towards inclusive teaching than younger teachers, according to studies by Wangio (2014) and (Ní Bhroin & King, 2020). Similarly, Costello & Boyle (2013) found inconsistent results when examining statistically significant attitudes of instructors with and without experience; teachers with greater experience preferred inclusive environments.

Inconsistent with the current findings, a study by Lambe & Bones (2006) in Ireland claimed that less experienced educators—pre-service teachers who had little interaction with students with a variety of special needs—were more positive about inclusion than more experienced educators. Previous research by Alghazo et al.(2004) in Dubai showed that although instructors with 12 years of experience embraced inclusive education, those with less experience were less supportive.

In contrast to the present research findings, a study by Mokaleng & Möwes (2020) demonstrated that Kenyan educators with considerable experience teaching children with special needs are more tolerant and self-assured when managing inclusive classroom environments. The study conducted by Costello and Boyle (2013) also revealed a statistically significant difference in the attitudes of instructors with and without experience, with more experienced teachers favoring an inclusive environment.

The adoption of inclusive education was impacted by older teachers' less positive attitude towards inclusion than younger teachers, in contrast to studies conducted in North Florida by McKay (2016) and in Georgia by Loria (2010). Consistent with a study conducted

in the United Arab Emirates, however, the teachers' experience did not influence the inclusive education techniques employed (Dukmak, 2013 ; Wangio, 2014).

An investigation carried out in Zululand, South Africa, by Chitiyo et al. (2020) found that teacher age affected the uptake of inclusive education. It was thought wise to keep older instructors out of the inclusive system because research indicated that they were less able to adjust to new teaching methods. This was contrary to studies conducted in Tanzania and Kenya by Patrick (2013) ; Hofman & Kilimo (2014), and Wangio (2014), which demonstrated that more experienced teachers were better at implementing inclusive education than less experienced teachers. Both are inconsistent with the current research findings. Consistent with the results of the present research, teaching experience does not significantly affect the implementation of inclusive education, according to research conducted in Talisay District, Division of Batangas, Philippines by (Masongsong et al., 2023).

This study suggests that the "Policy Practice Alignment Theory" ensures that school policies effectively implement national inclusive education frameworks. This theory facilitates the downward translation of these policies from the national level to practical, accessible classroom accommodations. Effective implementation at the microsystem level requires collaboration among families, teachers, and classmates.

At the classroom level, teachers reported that their negative attitudes, insufficient confidence, and lack of skills hindered their ability to support learners with disabilities. This resulted in inadequate support during classroom interactions. To address this, the mesosystem level requires collaboration among teachers, parents, school nurses, therapists, and the wider community to promote inclusive education through an interdisciplinary approach. However,

infrequent communication between parents and teachers negatively impacted individualised learning support, creating a weak collaborative link.

Furthermore, continuous professional development (CPD) is essential for equipping teachers to meet diverse student needs through training, capacity building, and targeted briefings. This capacity development operates within and supports the exosystem, enhancing reflective teaching and differentiated instruction. However, at this level, issues were noted where resource allocation decisions made by district and zonal authorities limited the availability of essential services.

At the macro system level, societal attitudes, beliefs, and cultural, religious, or local norms regarding persons with disabilities significantly influenced whether schools embraced inclusive education concepts.

Collectively, this theoretical framework aligns with the study's findings, offering a clear lens that emphasises that inclusive education cannot be confined to the classroom alone. Instead, it demands a multi-layered effort that requires systemic support, integrated collaboration, cultural shifts, and on-going reflection.

5.9 Strengths of the Current Study

Determining the significance of this thesis requires a methodological evaluation, which is extremely commendable. There are several advantages to the current analysis that justify the findings. The primary advantage of this study is its use of a mixed-method design, specifically a sequential "explanatory mixed design." Both quantitative and qualitative components are present in the design. The study's qualitative components made it easier to analyse the viewpoints of participants on pertinent issues related to teachers' understanding of inclusive education, attitudes towards it, and the application of policies.

The incorporation of numerical information enhances the utility of qualitative discoveries. Subsequently, the researcher employed interviews and a survey to gather pertinent and useful data. Qualitative data came from a more focused, small sample, whereas surveys allowed me to quickly obtain information from a notably larger sample of respondents.

Regarding the current researcher, combining surveys and interviews proved to be effective in obtaining comprehensive data and assistance in creating a significant and exhaustive problem study. Through their cooperation, I have been able to obtain the opinions of the responders regarding the topics of my inquiry.

Finally, the researcher in question felt that this study employed a suitable technique of analysis to determine the presence of sex, professional experience, and student differences by combining the two analytical methods. Independent t-tests and ANOVA were applied for these validations.

5.10 Limitations of the Current Study

Similar to other studies, the present investigation has several limitations that may have affected the findings. In spite of the researcher's highlighted qualities, this study was limited by the fact that the researcher had to take laborious notes during certain interviews, and some interviews were not freely recorded. The conditions of students and teachers were under a state of emergency due to the civil war.

In addition, the extent of the issue could be overstated or understated because the questionnaire used to gather data from both students and instructors was based mostly on self-reflections. Finally, the study was limited to government secondary schools. As a result, there may be specific restrictions in private schools; therefore, it may not be feasible to generalise.

5.11 Chapter Summary

The results of the exploratory sequential design, which involved gathering both quantitative and qualitative data in two phases, are presented in this chapter. According to the researcher's results, secondary school instructors and students are implementing inclusive education in a way that is well analysed. The results also highlighted the difficulties and methods of meeting a range of learning requirements and boosting each student's engagement to the fullest. On the other hand, this chapter highlighted the difficulties teachers face when implementing inclusive methods into reality.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

To provide equal educational opportunities for secondary schools run by the Awi zone administration, this study employed a mixed-methods design. A combination of surveys, observations, and interviews was used to collect data. The conclusive section offers a succinct summary of the main findings from the analysis of the inquiry's both the quantitative and qualitative information. This section also addresses the conclusions drawn from the research findings and the recommendations that were made.

6.1 Summary

Research on inclusive education practices is crucial for providing various forms of support for students with diverse needs. However, there are currently several potential obstacles to the adoption and practice of inclusive education, including those from government agencies, families, neighbourhoods, and school heads. All these obstacles prevented inclusive education from going beyond theoretical presumptions in an effective manner. Consequently, in a few government secondary schools in the Awi zone administration of the Amhara National Regional State in Ethiopia, this study aimed to investigate the knowledge, attitudes, and policy implementations of inclusive education among teachers and students.

Three secondary public schools participated in the investigation. To address the topics under study, five major research concerns were developed. The research used a sequential explanatory mixed method design, in which data were gathered sequentially using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative techniques were given more weight than the qualitative ones.

Data were collected using questionnaires for both teachers and students, and semi-structured interview guides were also used for teachers and principals. In all, 196 teachers and 1001 students responded to the questionnaires designed to measure the three dimensions of

inclusive education: knowledge, attitude, and policy implementation status. In addition, 12 participants were interviewed, of whom six were teachers and six were principals.

The validity and dependability of the instruments were also examined. In addition, qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques were applied. Thus, thematic analysis was used to study qualitative data, whereas descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the quantitative data.

Various techniques for gathering and analysing data were applied to the study topics. Examining the execution of equitable education was the focus in this investigation. A combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques was employed in analysis simultaneously; qualitative data were subjected to thematic analysis, whereas quantitative data were subjected to descriptive statistics, an independent sample t-test, and one-way ANOVA. The results of quantitative and qualitative research indicated that inclusive education did not offer significant benefit in the study sites.

To determine sex differences between teachers and students, independent T-test statistics were used. Therefore, students' knowledge, attitudes and policy implementation in inclusive education showed statistically significant sex disparities. Women differed significantly from men in terms of inclusive education policy implementation, although women had higher mean differences in knowledge and attitude. Besides, there was no discernible difference in inclusive education knowledge, attitudes, or policy implementation among teachers based on their sex.

In the second dimension, the results of a one-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences in the total number of students or class size, teachers' work experience, knowledge (equitable educational understanding), attitudes, and the execution of policies regarding inclusive education implementations.

Furthermore, the qualitative results demonstrate that the main obstacles to the implementation of inclusive education were low levels of knowledge, skills, and attitudes on the part of both teachers and students; less than ideal school conditions; low levels of community and parent participation; a lack of funding; commitments, and a lack of training. In this case teachers, students, parents, school administration, and government agencies are the key stakeholders involved in these hurdles.

6.2 Conclusion

This research examined how inclusive education is being implemented in the Ethiopian Awi administrative zone in the Amhara region from the perspectives of both teachers and students. The major conclusions drawn from the survey made clear that inclusive education was implemented at a very basic level. The study's quantitative results indicate that in terms of inclusive education knowledge and attitude, female students outperformed their male counterparts, but in terms of policy implementation, the opposite was true. However, no appreciable disparities were found in the understanding, attitudes, or application of inclusive education policies among teachers based on their sex.

The qualitative findings also revealed obstacles and methods for enhancing inclusive education in the research region. The community, parents, educators, students, school administrators, and government entities were sources of obstacles to inclusive education. The primary obstacles were low levels of financial hardship, unfavourable attitudes from parents and the community, and teachers' lack of training and experience. Secondary school-related obstacles to inclusive education included unwelcoming attitudes of teachers and administrators, a dearth of a welcoming school climate, a lack of dedication, and inadequate school training.

Lastly, because there were many obstacles preventing the full implementation of inclusive education, strategies to increase its implementation were suggested. These include

training sessions, advocacy, the planning and provision of awareness-raising programmes, the creation of a welcoming school environment, and government body concentration at the local level, parental active involvement, and NGO support.

6.3 Recommendations

Lastly, to improve equitable educational opportunities in the study location, the investigator would like to provide and advocate recommendations that follow in response to the results of the investigation. Teachers, parents, politicians, investigators, and administrators from educational bodies receive ideas and requests.

6.3.1 Recommendations for Further Study

In the first place, one of the premises used to conduct this research was the theoretical and empirical claims about inclusive education implementation barriers and role-taking in elementary schools. This insight has indicated that this study focused on the implementation of inclusive education in government secondary schools. However, in this regard, government elementary and secondary schools must be evaluated for their implementation of inclusive education. This was due to the fact that apart from being geographically delimited in the Awi administrative zone, the rest of the Amhara region had to be taken.

6.3.2 Recommendations for Governments, Schools, and Parents

The study's conclusions demonstrate the teachers' and principals' blatant lack of dedication and skill sets. To address the expertise gap, mind-sets require on-going programmes to raise awareness and specialised trainings on contemporary issues related to the policy implementation of inclusive education. Since, in the current investigation, inclusive education was minimally implemented. In general, it would play a significant role in the learning and growth of schools by working with school leadership bodies, parent-student-teacher interactions, teacher preparation programmes, and the Awi educational zone education office.

The following stakeholders have participated in this research recommendations and suggestions.

I. Recommendations for Governments (MoE –Ethiopia)

The federal government agencies are giving the implementation of inclusive education the attention it deserves, which is low. It is a must; the government revises and ratifies national and international policies and strategies, but the execution of components has not been carried out correctly.

- The survey found that a lack of inclusive training, instruction, and abilities has presented educators, students, and parents with difficulties. Thus, school administrators, zone education offices, regional education bureaus, and the Ministry of Education should have been able to accommodate all of this.
- Government agencies should consider the accessibility of the entire educational facility, including buildings, grounds, restrooms, and general architectural design for students from diverse backgrounds.
- Budget and resource centres must be allocated with checks and balances and professional herring.
- To better motivate and support teachers in their efforts to adopt inclusive education, it is imperative that the payment package be given careful consideration. This can be used to improve the living conditions of instructors in cash or as one of the house amenities.

II. Recommendations for Schools (Teachers and Principals)

- Teachers and principals should collaborate with parents and stakeholders.
- Teachers and principals should avoid superficial commitments in practice and rather attach them to political purposes.

- Principals must adjust their short-term training and invest in additional teacher training workshops and seminars with the collaboration of Injibara University.

III. Recommendations for Parents

- Parents should actively participate in school case related issues with increased willingness.
- They must collaborate with teachers, students, and governments to better implement inclusive education. Finally, the study revealed that female students scored better than male students, suggesting that male student organisations still have room for improvement in advocacy, instruction, and attempts to dissuade unfavourable opinions. It is necessary to customise some rules, guidelines, and strategies to meet the demands of female groups.

References

- Aalberg, T., Strabac, Z., & Brekken, T. (2012). Research Design. *How Media Inform Democracy: A Comparative Approach*, 15–30. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203803448-9>
- Abate, M. (2019). *The Practice of Inclusive Education in Some Selected Government Preschools of Addis Ababa* (Issue June).
- Abawi, L. (2013). School meaning systems: The symbiotic nature of culture and ‘language-in-use’. *Improving Schools*, 16(2), 89–106. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1365480213492407>
- Abebe. (2014). *College of Education and Behavioural Studies Inclusive Education Practices of Primary Schools in Yeka Sub City Addis Ababa*. AAU.
- Abebe, S. M., Shitu, K., Liulseged, T., Abera, M., Fentie, M., Mekonnen, F., Batorowicz, B., Xu, X., Efed, N. A., & Aldersey, H. M. (2023). Understanding Barriers and Facilitators to Inclusive Education for Grade 7-9 Students with Disabilities in Ethiopia and Ghana: A Qualitative study. *Disability, CBR and Inclusive Development*, 34(1), 6–26. <https://doi.org/10.20372/dcidj.671>
- Abimanyi-Ochom, J. & Mannan, H. (2014). Uganda ’ s disability journey : Progress and challenges. *African Journal of Disability*, 3(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.4102/ajod.v3i1.108>
- Abiodun, C., & Prof, A. (2021). *CHAPTER TWELVE PARENTSKNOWLEDGE OF HEALTH EDUCATION : DETERMINANT FACTOR FOR WELLNESS OF CHILDREN WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES Philip Owoade Adeleke PhD. 2010*, 117–127.
- Able, H., Sreckovic, M. A., Schultz, T. R., Garwood, J. D., & Sherman, J. (2015). Views from the trenches: Teacher and student supports needed for full inclusion of students with ASD. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 38(1), 44–57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0888406414558096>
- Ackah-Jnr, F. R. (2020). The teacher should be learning: In-service professional development and learning of teachers implementing inclusive education in early childhood education settings. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 16(2), 93–121. <chrome-extension://efaidnbmninnkpcjpcglclefindmkaj/https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1289803.pdf>
- ACPF. (2010). The African Report on Child Wellbeing. In *Policy*.
- Adams, D., Harris, A., & Jones, M. S. (2013). Teacher-Parent Collaboration for an Inclusive Classroom: Success for Every Child. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 2016(3), 58–72.
- Adewumi, T. M., & Mosito, C. (2019). Experiences of teachers in implementing inclusion of learners with special education needs in selected Fort Beaufort District primary schools, South Africa [Cogent]. In *Cogent Education* (Vol. 6, Issue 1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1703446>
- Adu-Yeboah, C., & Kwaah, C. Y. (2018). Preparing Teacher Trainees for Field Experience: Lessons From the On-Campus Practical Experience in Colleges of Education in Ghana.

SAGE Open, 8(4). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018807619>

Ahmed, M., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. (2012a). Variables affecting teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Bangladesh. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 12(3), 132–140. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-3802.2011.01226.x>

Ahmed, M., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. (2012b). *Variables affecting teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Bangladesh*. 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-3802.2011.01226.x>

Ainscow, M. (2020). Promoting inclusion and equity in education: lessons from international experiences. *Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy*, 6(1), 7–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20020317.2020.1729587>

Akanmu, M. A., & Isiaka, A. B. (2016). Senior School Teachers' Views on the Introduction and Implementation of Inclusive Education in Ogbomoso, Oyo State *Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, April 2020. <https://jci-ilorin.org.ng/index.php/jci/article/download/6/5>

Akinyode, B. F., & Khan, T. H. (2018). Step by step approach for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Built Environment and Sustainability*, 5(3), 163–174. <https://doi.org/10.11113/ijbes.v5.n3.267>

Al-Shammari, Z., Faulkner, P. E., & Forlin, C. (2019). Theories-based Inclusive Education Practices. *Education Quarterly Reviews*, 2(2), 408–414. <https://doi.org/10.31014/aior.1993.02.02.73>

Alam, G. M. (2025). Sustainable Education, Sustainability in Education and Education for Sustainable Development: The Reconciliation of Variables and the Path of Education Research in an Era of Technologization. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su17010250>

Alase, A. (2017). The Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA): A Guide to a Good Qualitative Research Approach. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, 5(2), 9. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.5n.2p.9>

Albarracin, D., Zanna, M. P., & Johnson, B. T. (2021). Attitudes: Introduction and Scope. *The Handbook of Attitudes*, i, 17–34. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410612823-8>

Alemayehu, B. A. (2020). In - Service Primary School Teachers' Knowledge of Inclusive Pedagogy in Ethiopia. *Manisa Celal Bayar Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 8(1), 17–30.

Alemu, A. (2023). Secondary school teachers' perception of quality management practices in Ethiopia: Implications for quality education for all. *Emerald Open Research*, 4(July), 26. <https://doi.org/10.35241/emeraldopenres.14715.2>

Alghazo, E. M., El, E., & Gaad, N. (2004). *General education teachers in the United Arab Emirates and their acceptance of the inclusion of students with disabilities*. 31(2).

Alhassan, A. M. (2014). Implementation of Inclusive Education in Ghanaian Primary Schools: A Look at Teachers' Attitudes. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 2(3), 142–

148. <https://doi.org/10.12691/education-2-3-5>
- Alivernini, F. (2012). Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning. *Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning, October*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1428-6>
- Almalki, S. (2016). Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Data in Mixed Methods Research—Challenges and Benefits. *Journal of Education and Learning, 5*(3), 288. <https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v5n3p288>
- Alterator, S., Cleveland, B., & Boys, J. (2022). *The evaluation of inclusive school environments: a scoping review of the literature La valutazione degli ambienti scolastici inclusivi: una scoping review della letteratura*. 3(6). www.iuline.it
- Alzahrani, N. (2020). The development of inclusive education practice: A review of literature. *International Journal of Early Childhood Special Education, 12*(1), 68–83. <https://doi.org/10.20489/intjecse.722380>
- Anderson, J., Boyle, C., & Deppeler, J. (2014). The Ecology of Inclusive Education. *Equality in Education, 23–34*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6209-692-9_3
- Andrews, D., Walton, E., & Osman, R. (2021). Constraints to the implementation of inclusive teaching: a cultural historical activity theory approach. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 25*(13), 1508–1523. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2019.1620880>
- Assefa, G. M., Sherif, S., Sluijs, J., Kuijpers, M., Chaka, T., Solomon, A., Hailu, Y., & Muluneh, M. D. (2021). *Gender Equality and Social Inclusion in Relation to Water, Sanitation and Hygiene in the Oromia Region of Ethiopia*.
- Assefa, M. (2018). Implementation and Challenges of Inclusive Education in Harari Regional State in Selected Schools Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Thesis*.
- Auriacombe, C. J. (2016). Towards the construction of unobtrusive research techniques Critical considerations when conducting a literature analysis. *Centre for Public Management and Governance, 9*(4), 1–19.
- Avram, F., Claudia, S., & Mariana, V. S. (2021). Curricular approaches in the education of children with disabilities, in inclusive contexts. *Blacksea Journal of Psychology, 12*(1), 1–22.
- Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2010). *Teachers' attitudes towards integration / inclusion : a review of the literature Teachers' attitudes towards integration / inclusion : a review of the literature*. 6257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856250210129056>
- Awal, A. (2015a). *Attitude of School Teachers Towards Inclusive Education*. November. https://www.academia.edu/download/32645254/Attitude_of_Teachers_Towards_Inclusive_Education_.pdf
- Awal, A. (2015b). *Attitude of School Teachers Towards Inclusive Education*. 4(1). https://www.academia.edu/download/32645254/Attitude_of_Teachers_Towards_Inclusive_Education_.pdf
- Ayanwale, M. A., Sanusi, I. T., Adelana, O. P., Aruleba, K. D., & Oyelere, S. S. (2022).

- Teachers' readiness and intention to teach artificial intelligence in schools. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 3(September), 100099.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2022.100099>
- Badiee, W. A. B. and M. (2010). Realizing the Potential of Qualitative Designs: A Conceptual Guide for Research and Practice Wayne A. Babchuk and Manijeh Badiee. *Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education, 2005, 2005–2010.*
- Bank, W. (2023). *THE WORLD BANK GROUP ARCHIVES il l* (Vol. 2).
- Banks, J. A., New, B., San, Y., Mexico, F., Montreal, C., London, T., Paris, M. M., Kong, H., Cape, S. T., & Sydney, T. (2015). *Cultural Diversity And Education Foundations, Curriculum, and Teaching Preface xvii Acknowledgments xviii PART I Dimension, History, And Goals Chapter One The Dimensions of Multicultural Education 3 The Aims And Goals Of Multicultural Education 3 The Dime.*
- Bartolo, P. A., Kyriazopoulou, M., Björck-Åkesson, E., & Giné, C. (2021). An adapted ecosystem model for inclusive early childhood education: a qualitative cross European study. *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology*, 9(1), 3–15.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2019.1637311>
- Beadle-brown, J., Šiška, J., Bekele, Y., Beadle-brown, J., Záhořík, J., Šiška, J., Bekele, Y., Beadle-brown, J., & Role, J. Z. (2019). Role of resource centres in facilitating inclusive education : experience from Ethiopia. *Disability & Society*, 0(0), 1–20.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09687599.2019.1649120>
- Beaton, M and Burke, A and Dharan, V and Galkiene, A and Kyrö-Ämmälä, O and Lakkala, S and Löfström, J and Maxwell, G. (2022). *UNESCO Chairs / UNITWIN Networks Policy Brief Form Under the III World Higher Education Conference (WHEC 2021)* (Issue May).
- Bell, L., & Stevenson, H. (2015). Towards an analysis of the policies that shape public education: Setting the context for school leadership. *Management in Education*, 29(4), 146–150. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0892020614555593>
- Beyene, G., & Tizazu, Y. (2001). Review Article Attitudes of Teachers towards Inclusive Education in Ethiopia. *Education*.
- Bezyak, J. L., Sabella, S. A., & Gattis, R. H. (2017). Public Transportation: An Investigation of Barriers for People With Disabilities. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 28(1), 52–60.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1044207317702070>
- Bibiana, R. I., Madrine, K., Eric, W., & Simon, T. (2020). Policy strategies for effective implementation of inclusive education in Kenya. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 12(1), 28–42. <https://doi.org/10.5897/ijeaps2019.0622>
- Biking, W. M. (2021). *Kentucky SHAPE Journal* [. 58(2), 1–81.
- Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. (2020). *Navigating Individualized Education Programs (IEPs): Your Roadmap to Equitable Access.*

- Biswas, P. (2021). Exploring the Importance and Challenges in Inclusive Education in India. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 11(03), 34–40.
- Bitsch, V. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2), 272–281. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08941939.2012.723954>
- Blake, E. A. (2023). (Re)Imagining Inclusive Education: How Boundaries can Come to Matter More than Children Within Public Schools. *Interchange*, 54(4), 425–438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10780-023-09503-w>
- Bloom, N., & Reenen, J. Van. (2013). CONSTRUCTIVISM PHILOSOPHICAL PARADIGM: IMPLICATION FOR RESEARCH, TEACHING AND LEARNING. *NBER Working Papers*, 4(10), 89. <http://www.nber.org/papers/w16019>
- Boitumelo, M., Kuyini, A. B., & Major, T. E. (2020). Experiences of general secondary education teachers in inclusive classrooms: Implications for sustaining inclusive education in Botswana. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 16(1), 1–34.
- Borg, G., Hunter, J., Sigurjonsdottir, B., & D'Alessio, S. (2011). *Key principles for promoting quality in inclusive education*. 1–26.
- Boru, T. (2018). CHAPTER FIVE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 5 . 1 . Introduction. *CHAPTER FIVE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 5.1. Introduction*, December, 41. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.21467.62242>
- Bota, S. K. (2023). *Scholarship @ Western Championing Inclusive Education in Canada : Voices of Educators , Advocates , and Researchers*.
- Bour, K. B., Adom-Fynn, D., Kugbey, N., Farkor, K. P., & Kwakye, I. N. (2025). Reflections on Supported Teaching in School (STS) as a Strategy for Attaining Sustainable Teacher Education in Ghana. *SAGE Open*, 15(2), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440251334206>
- Boyle, C., Topping, K., & Jindal-Snape, D. (2013). Teachers attitudes towards inclusion in high schools. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 19(5), 527–542. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2013.827361>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2023). Toward good practice in thematic analysis: Avoiding common problems and be(com)ing a knowing researcher. *International Journal of Transgender Health*, 24(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26895269.2022.2129597>
- Bronfenbrenner. (1994). Bronfenbrenner's ecological model. In *Ecological Model of Human Growth and Development* (pp. 287–290). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203730386-13>
- Brownell, M. T., Griffin, C., Leko, M. M., & Stephens, J. (2011). *Improving Collaborative Teacher Education Research : Creating Tighter Linkages*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0888406411404570>
- Burgstahler, S. (2021). Universal Design: Process, Principles, and Applications. *Do-It*, 1–6. <https://www.washington.edu/doiit/universal-design-process-principles-and-applications>

- Burningham, O., Chen, A., Genovesi, E., Belay, W., Ahmed, I., Ayele, M., Girma, F., Lakew, L. T., Hanlon, C., & Hoekstra, R. A. (2024). Inclusive Education for Children with Developmental Disabilities in Ethiopia: Stakeholder Views on Benefits, Disadvantages and Priorities for Action. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-024-06549-2>
- Busetto, L., Wick, W., & Gumbinger, C. (2020). How to use and assess qualitative research methods. *Neurological Research and Practice*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42466-020-00059-z>
- Butz, D., & Cook, N. (2017). The epistemological and ethical value of autophotography for mobilities research in transcultural contexts. *Studies in Social Justice*, 11(2), 238–274.
<https://doi.org/10.26522/ssj.v11i2.1629>
- Cabanová, M., & Integracyjnej, N. K. (2019). Teacher Training and Selected Characteristics of Teachers. *EUNOMIA – Rozwój Zrównoważony – Sustainable Development*, 1(1), 126–130.
- Cameron, R. (2010). Is Mixed Methods Research Used in Australian Career Development Research? *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 19(3), 52–66.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621001900308>
- Carlin, A. (2016). Book Review: Talking about Troubles in Conversation. *The Sociological Review*, 64(4), 1005–1009. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-954x.12437>
- Carrington, S., Park, E., McKay, L., Sagers, B., Harper-Hill, K., & Somerwil, T. (2024). Evidence of transformative leadership for inclusive practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 141(November 2023), 104466. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2023.104466>
- Cate, I. M. P., & Krolak-schwerdt, S. (2018). *Promoting Inclusive Education : The Role of Teachers ' Competence and Attitudes*. 15(December 2017), 49–63.
- Cerna, L., Mezzanotte, C., Rutigliano, A., Brussino, O., Santiago, P., Borgonovi, F., & Guthrie, C. (2021). Promoting inclusive education for diverse societies: A conceptual framework. In *OECD Education Working Papers* (Issue 260).
- Charema, J. (2010). Inclusion of primary school children with hearing impairments in Zimbabwe. *African Education Review*, 6627(1), 85–106.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2010.485810>
- Cheon, S. H., Reeve, J., Jang, H. R., Pink, M. A., Song, Y. G., & Im, C. H. (2024). Autonomy-supportive teaching leads to autonomy-supportive parenting: A teacher-to-parent relationship spillover effect. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 144(January), 104548.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2024.104548>
- CHIROODZA, J. R. (2020). No 主観的健康感を中心とした在宅高齢者における健康関連指標に関する共分散構造分析Title. *Corporate Governance (Bingley)*, 10(1), 54–75.
- Chitiyo, M., Ogbonnaya, U. I., Dada, O. C., & Charles-Ogan, G. (2020). SOUTH AFRICA INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION ‘Rethinking Teaching and learning in the 21st Century’ Proceedings Editors Masilonyana Motseke. *SAICed 2020*

- Choy, L. T. (2014). The Strengths and Weaknesses of qual quan Research. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 19(4), 99–104.
- Cirocki, A., Tennekoon, S., & Calvo, A. P. (2014). Research and reflective practice in the ESL classroom: Voices from Sri Lanka. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(4), 24–44. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n4.2>
- Clark, P., & Designing, V. (2009). Book Review. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2007, 801–804.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). Research Methods in Education. In *Research Methods in Education*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203029053>
- Cole, L. (2019). Creating and Enhancing Capacity in Africa for Efficient Economic and Social Development. *Afrika Tanulmányok / Hungarian Journal of African Studies*, 12(4.), 36–53. <https://doi.org/10.15170/at.2018.12.4.3>
- Collins, S. P., Storrow, A., Liu, D., Jenkins, C. A., Miller, K. F., Kampe, C., & Butler, J. (2021). *No Title 濟無No Title No Title No Title*. 1–37.
- Costello, S., & Boyle, C. (2013). Pre-service secondary teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(4), 129–143. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2013v38n4.8>
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). 119675_Book_Item_119675. In *Basic Characteristics of Mixed Methods Research* (p. 12).
- Creswell. (2009). Mapping the field of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 3(2), 95–108. <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/1558689808330883>
- Creswell, J. (2014). Steps in Conducting a Scholarly Mixed Methods Study. *Steps in Conducting a Scholarly Mixed Methods Study*, 1–54. <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1047&context=dberspeakers>
- Creswell, J., Shope, R., Clark, V. L. P., & Green, D. O. (2006). How interpretive qualitative research extends mixed methods research. In *Research in the Schools* (Vol. 13, Issue 1).
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). Mixed Methods Procedures. In *Research Defign: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed M ethods Approaches*.
- Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2016). Presentation of Advances in Mixed Methods. *Mixed Methods International Research Association*, 1–65. <https://cloudfront.ualberta.ca/-/media/ualberta/faculties-and-programs/centres-institutes/international-institute-of-qualitative-methods/webinars/mixed-methods/2016/jcreswellmmira-webinar.pdf>
- Creswell JW, P. C. V. (2011). Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Reserch.2nd ed. In *Sage Publications* (pp. 1–443).
- Curry, L. A., Nembhard, I. M., & Bradley, E. H. (2009). Qualitative and mixed methods

- provide unique contributions to outcomes research. *Circulation*, 119(10), 1442–1452. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.107.742775>
- Dagneu, A. (2013). Factors Affecting the Implementation of Inclusive Education in Primary Schools of Bahir Dar Town Administration. *Education Research Journal*, 3(3), 59–67.
- Dalgaard, N. T., Filges, T., Viinholt, B. C. A., & Pontoppidan, M. (2022). Parenting interventions to support parent/child attachment and psychosocial adjustment in foster and adoptive parents and children: A systematic review. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 18(1). <https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1209>
- Dalton, E. M., Mckenzie, J. A., & Mckenzie, J. (2012). *The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa : Reflections arising from a workshop for teachers and therapists to introduce Universal Design for Learning Inclusive education in South Africa*. 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.4102/ajod.v1i1.13>
- Dapudong, R. C. (2014). *Teachers ' Knowledge and Attitude towards Inclusive Education : Basis for an Enhanced Professional Development Program*. 4(4), 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijld.v4i4.6116>
- Darling-hammond, L. (2010). Steady Work: How Finland Is Building a Strong Teaching and Learning System. *Education*, 15–25.
- Dawadi, S., Shrestha, S., & Giri, R. A. (2021). Mixed-Methods Research: A Discussion on its Types, Challenges, and Criticisms. *Journal of Practical Studies in Education*, 2(2), 25–36. <https://doi.org/10.46809/jpse.v2i2.20>
- De Boer, A., Timmerman, M., Pijl, S. J., & Minnaert, A. (2012). The psychometric evaluation of a questionnaire to measure attitudes towards inclusive education. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 27(4), 573–589. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-011-0096-z>
- De Oliveira, J. L. C., De Magalhães, A. M. M., & Matsuda, L. M. (2018). Mixed methods in nursing research: Application possibilities according to creswell. *Texto e Contexto Enfermagem*, 27(2), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0104-070720180000560017>
- de Vos, A., & Segers, J. (2013). Self-directed career attitude and retirement intentions. *Career Development International*, 18(2), 155–172. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-04-2012-0041>
- Debasu, H., & Yitayew, A. (2024). Examining Elements of Designing and Managing of Creating Inclusive Learning Environment: Systematic Literature Review. *International Journal of Special Education*, 39(1), 33–43. <https://doi.org/10.52291/ijse.2024.39.4>
- Debela, B. K., Bouckaert, G., Warota, M. A., & Gemechu, D. T. (2020). Public Administration in Ethiopia: In *Public Administration in Ethiopia* (Issue December). <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv19m65dr.6>
- Degener, T. (2024). The Human Rights Model of Disability in Times of Triage. *Scandinavian Journal of Disability Research*, 26(1), 437–449. <https://doi.org/10.16993/sjdr.1088>
- Delamont, S. (2012). Introduction: Leaving Damascus. In *Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education* (Issue 1947). <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781849807296.00007>

- Delport, M. (2014). Developing Emotional Intelligence for Sustained Student Success. In *Null*. UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH.
- Denman, S. J. (2015). *Inclusive Education in Low-income Countries : A Resource for Teacher Educators , Parent Trainers and Community Development Workers*. September. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1034912X.2015.1074391>
- Denzin, N. K. (2012). Triangulation 2.0*. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 6(2), 80–88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689812437186>
- Dewsbury, B., & Brame, C. J. (2019). Inclusive teaching. *CBE Life Sciences Education*, 18(2), 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.19-01-0021>
- Donders, Y. (2021). The Right to Science. *The Right to Science*, February. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108776301>
- Doody, O., & Bailey, M. E. (2016). Setting a research question, aim and objective. *Nurse Researcher*, 23(4), 19–23. <https://doi.org/10.7748/nr.23.4.19.s5>
- Duerden, M. D., & Witt, P. A. (2010). An Ecological Systems Theory Perspective on Youth Programming. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration Summer*, 28(2), 108–120.
- Dugarova, E. (2015). Social inclusion, poverty eradication and the 2030 agenda for sustainable development, UNRISD Working Paper, No. 2015-15. In *United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD)*, Geneva (Issue October). <https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/148736/1/861278364.pdf>
- Dukmak, S. (2013). Regular classroom teachers' attitudes towards including students with disabilities in the regular classroom in the United Arab Emirates. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, 9(1), 26.
- Đurišić, M., & Bunijevac, M. (2017). Parental Involvement as a Important Factor for Successful Education. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal*, 7(3), 137–153. <https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.291>
- EADSEN. (2006). European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education News Item European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, December 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0885625970120109>
- EASNIE. (2013). Inclusive Education in Europe : Putting theory into practice International Conference - 18 November 2013. *Inclusive Education in Europe : Putting Theory into Practice International Conference - 18 November 2013*, November, 101.
- EASNIE. (2014). *2014 Dataset Cross-Country Report*.
- Education and Training Policy. (1994). *Education and training policy*.
- Edward, G. (2015). *Teachers' knowledge and perceived challenges of teaching children with autism in tanzanian regular primary schools*. 3(5), 36–47.
- Edwards, N. J. (2014). Disability Rights in Indonesia? Problems with Ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. *Australian Journal of*

Asian Law, 15(1), 1–15. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2459818>

EFA. (2003). Education for All: A gender and disability perspective. Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2003/4: Gender and Education for All: The Leap the Equality. In *Paris: Global Monitoring Report*.

EFA, & United Nations Education, S. and cultural O. U. (2015). *Ethiopia National EFA 2015 Review Report*. 1–29. efa2015reviews@unesco.org

Eide, A. H., & Ingstad, B. (2011). Disability and Poverty: A Global Challenge. In *Disability and Poverty: A Global Challenge*. <https://doi.org/10.51952/9781847428868.int001>

Elfert, M. (2021). The power struggle over education in developing countries: The case of the UNESCO-World Bank Co-operative program, 1964-1989. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 81(March), 1964–1989. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2020.102336>

Elo, S., Kääriäinen, M., Kanste, O., Pölkki, T., Utriainen, K., & Kyngäs, H. (2014). Qualitative Content Analysis. *SAGE Open*, 4(1), 215824401452263. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014522633>

Elshabrawy, E., & Hassanein, A. (2009). *THE INCLUSION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN MAINSTREAM* Submitted by. 1–304. <https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/125502>

Emily, P., & Mclaughlin, T. F. (2014). International Journal of English and Education. *International Journal of English and Education*, 3(2), 581–584.

Engelbrecht, P., Nel, M., Smit, S., & Van Deventer, M. (2016). The idealism of education policies and the realities in schools: The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20(5), 520–535. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2015.1095250>

Epstein, J. L. (2018). School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools, second edition. In *School, Family, and Community Partnerships: Preparing Educators and Improving Schools, Second Edition*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429494673>

Esteve-gonzález, V. (2016). *Teaching and Learning in digital worlds: strategies and issues in higher education* (Issue June, p. 213). Publicacions Universitat Rovira i Virgili Av. Catalunya, 35 · 43002 Tarragona publicacions@urv.cat.

Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap. (2018). *Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap An integrated Executive Summary* (Issue July).

Evans, I. M., Harvey, S. T., Buckley, L., & Yan, E. (2009). Differentiating classroom climate concepts: Academic, management, and emotional environments. *Kotuitui*, 4(2), 131–146. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1177083X.2009.9522449>

Fakolade, O. a, Adeniyi, S. O., & Tella, a. (2009). Attitude of Teachers Toward the Inclusion of Children with Special Needs in the General Education Classroom: The Case of Teachers in Selected Schools in Nigeria. *Education*, 1(3), 155–169.

<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ehh&AN=42513483&site=ehost-live>

- Fatia, F., & Kurniawati, F. (2019). *Pre- Service Teachers ' Attitu des Toward Inclusive Education Pre- Service Teachers ' Attitu des Toward Inclusive Education*. 229(Iciap 2018), 588–601.
- FDRE. (2014).
KLJL^OAGLIO^BZIOVLZOMKZDLKLJL^OAJLEMC^OZBC^LX\NABCMKLZDBM
XBO. *The Works of Thomas Chatterton*, 307–309.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781139626422.056>
- Ferdinand, K. C., Izzo, J. L., Lee, J., Meng, L., George, J., Salsali, A., & Seman, L. (2019). Antihyperglycemic and Blood Pressure Effects of Empagliflozin in Black Patients With Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Hypertension. *Circulation*, 139(18), 2098–2109.
<https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.118.036568>
- Ferguson, D. L. (2008). International trends in inclusive education: the continuing challenge to teach each one and everyone. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 23(2), 109–120. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856250801946236>
- Ferriday, G., & Cantali, D. (2020). Teachers talk about inclusion... but can they implement it in their classroom? Exploring teachers' views on inclusion in a Scottish secondary school. *Support for Learning*, 35(2), 144–162. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9604.12295>
- Florian, L. (2012). Preparing Teachers to Work in Inclusive Classrooms: Key Lessons for the Professional Development of Teacher Educators from Scotland's Inclusive Practice Project. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 63(4), 275–285.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487112447112>
- Florian, L. (2019). Preparing Teachers for Inclusive Education. *Encyclopedia of Teacher Education*, September, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1179-6_39-1
- Forghani-Arani, N., Cerna, L., & Bannon, M. (2019). The Lives of Teachers in Diverse Classrooms. *Edu/Wkp*, 198, 1–49. [https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/8c26fee5-en%0Ahttp://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=EDU/WKP\(2019\)6&docLanguage=En](https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/8c26fee5-en%0Ahttp://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=EDU/WKP(2019)6&docLanguage=En)
- Forlin, C. (2011). From special to inclusive education in Macau (SAR). *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(4), 433–443. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603110903079516>
- Forlin, C., & Loreman, T. (2011). *The Sentiments , Attitudes , and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised (SACIE-R) Scale for Measuring Pre-Service Teachers ' Perceptions about Inclusion*. 21(3), 50–65.
- Fourie, J. (2016). Learning support strategies for learners with neurodevelopmental disorders : Perspectives of recently qualified teachers Inclusive education in South Africa. *African Journal of Disability*, 9(2), 1–10.
- Froese-germain, B., Riel, R., Mogahey, B., & Thomas, G. (2012). Class Size and Student Diversity : Two Sides of the Same Coin. *Class Size and Student Diversity: Two Sides of*

the Same Coin, January, 1–4.

Fullan, B. M. (2015). *Leadership from the Middle* (Issue December).

Fusch, P., Fusch, G. E., & Ness, L. R. (2018). Denzin's Paradigm Shift: Revisiting Triangulation in Qualitative Research. *Journal of Social Change*, 10(1), 19–32. <https://doi.org/10.5590/josc.2018.10.1.02>

Gadella Kamstra, L. S. (2024). Bridging the gap between pre-service teacher education and in-service teachers' experiences in Spain. In *British Council* (Issue February). <https://doi.org/10.57884/ZZGN-0K41>

Gadour, A. (2018). Challenging Inclusive Education Policy and Practice in Libya. In *Challenging Inclusive Education Policy and Practice in Africa* (Issue May). https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004391505_001

Galaterou, J., & Antoniou, A. S. (2017). Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: The role of job stressors and demographic parameters. *International Journal of Special Education*, 32(4), 643–658.

Gammarano, R. (2019). The working poor or how a job is no guarantee of decent living conditions. *ILOSTAT: Spotlight on Work Statistics*, April, 1–11. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/publication/wcms_696387.pdf

Garcia-Melgar, A., Hyett, N., Bagley, K., McKinstry, C., Spong, J., & Iacono, T. (2022a). Collaborative team approaches to supporting inclusion of children with disability in mainstream schools: A co-design study. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 126(April), 104233. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2022.104233>

Garcia-Melgar, A., Hyett, N., Bagley, K., McKinstry, C., Spong, J., & Iacono, T. (2022b). Collaborative team approaches to supporting inclusion of children with disability in mainstream schools: A co-design study. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2022.104233>

Geburu, S. G., & Demeke, M. A. (2014). The Millennium Development Goals and the Status of Gender Disparity in Ethiopia: Achievements and Challenges. *American Academic Scientific Research Journal for Engineering, Technology, and Sciences*, 8(1), 56–78. https://asrjetsjournal.org/index.php/American_Scientific_Journal/article/view/600

Gedfie, M., Getahun, D. A., & Negassa, D. (2020). Parent's involvement in the education of their children with disabilities in primary schools of Bahir dar city, Ethiopia: Voices of parents. *International Journal of Special Education*, 35(1), 55–66. <https://doi.org/10.52291/IJSE.2020.35.6>

Gedfie, M., & Negassa, D. (2019). The Contribution of Cluster Resource Centers for Inclusion: The Case of Atse Sertse Dingil Cluster Primary School, Ethiopia. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, 7(2), 31. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.7n.2p.31>

Genovesi, E., Ahmed, I., Ayele, M., Belay, W., Burningham, O., Chen, A., Girma, F., Lakew, L. T., Hanlon, C., & Hoekstra, R. A. (2024). Exploring context for implementation of

- inclusive education for children with developmental disabilities in mainstream primary schools in Ethiopia. *PLoS ONE*, 19(8 August), 1–16.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0307576>
- Gentles, S. J., Charles, C., Ploeg, J., & McKibbin, A. K. (2015). Insights from an overview of the methods literature. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(11), 1772–1789.
https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss11/5%0Ahttps://cpb-us-e1.wpmucdn.com/sites.nova.edu/dist/a/4/files/2016/01/Gentles_Sampling-2016-01-16.ppt.pdf
- George, P. (2022). *TEACHER EFFICACY IN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS*.
- Ginja, T. G., & Chen, X. (2023). Conceptualising inclusive education: the role of teacher training and teacher’s attitudes towards inclusion of children with disabilities in Ethiopia. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 27(9), 1042–1055.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2021.1879958>
- Gitterman, A. (2008). Collaborative Learning and Teaching. *Writing Center Journal*, 28(2), 334–345. <https://doi.org/10.7771/2832-9414.1711>
- Glatte, T. (2015). Location strategies: Methods and their methodological limitations. *Journal of Engineering, Design and Technology*, 13(3), 435–462. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEDT-01-2013-0004>
- Goshu, B. S., & Woldeamanuel, M. M. (2019). Education Quality Challenges in Ethiopian Secondary Schools. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science*, 31(2), 1–15.
<https://doi.org/10.9734/jesbs/2019/v31i230147>
- Gouédard, P., Pont, B., Hyttinen, S., & Huang, P. (2020). Curriculum reform: A literature review to support effective implementation. *OECD Education Working Papers*, 239, 5–59.
- Grant, & Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, Selecting, and Integrating a Theoretical Framework in Dissertation Research: Creating the Blueprint for Your “House”. *Administrative Issues Journal Education Practice and Research*, 4(2), 12–26.
<https://doi.org/10.5929/2014.4.2.9>
- Greene, B. L. (2017). Teachers ’ Attitudes toward Inclusive Classrooms. In *Walden University Scholar Works*. <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>
- Groll, A., Bates, S., Saunders, C., & Smith, R. (2018). The teacher educator experience: ‘Guardians of the pedagogy’? *Identity and Resistance in Further Education*, 28–37.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351232951>
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). ‘Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions and Emerging Confluences, revised’ The Sage handbook of qualitative research. *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*, 4, 97–128.
- Guetterman, T., & Fetters, M. (2018). Two Methodological Approaches to the Integration of Mixed Methods and Case Study Designs: A Systematic Review. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 62, 000276421877264. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764218772641>

- Haefeli, E., McCormack, N., Poole, M., Scott, J., Stanwood, O., & Office, L. R. (2009). *This is an author-produced version of an article published in the*. 124(4), 29–52.
- Haihambo, C. (2010). *Inclusive education : challenges of students with disabilities in institutions of higher education in Namibia*. August.
<http://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/3702>
- Halder, S. (2023). PREPARING TEACHER EDUCATORS FOR INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM: Challenges, Lacuna and Future Direction. *The Routledge Handbook of Inclusive Education for Teacher Educators: Issues, Considerations, and Strategies*, 3–24.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003266068-2>
- Handal, B., Watson, K., & Maher, M. (2016). *Social diversity and class size 1*. November, 13–18.
- Hankebo, T. A. (2018). Being a deaf and a teacher: Exploring the experiences of deaf teachers in inclusive classrooms. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(3), 477–490.
<https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2018.11333a>
- Härkönen, U. (2013). Reorientation of teacher education towards sustainability through theory and practice. In *Proceedings of the 10th international JTEFS/ BBCC conference Sustainable development. Culture. Education* (Issue 7).
<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/15171009.pdf#page=40>
- Hasan, M., Khan, A. N., & Malik, I. S. (2023). Universal Design for Learning (UDL): A Paradigm Shift in Inclusive Education. *Journal of Education and Practice*, September.
<https://doi.org/10.7176/jep/14-25-01>
- Hausburg, T. C. (2022). *Teaching With Intention: Using Woop To Support Social-Emotional Learning in the Classroom*. University of Pennsylvania.
- Hay, J. F., & Paulsen, M. (2001). *Teacher preparedness for inclusive education*. 21(4).
- Hayes, A. M., & Bulat, J. (2017a). *Countries*. July.
- Hayes, A. M., & Bulat, J. (2017b). Disabilities Inclusive Education Systems and Policies Guide for Low- and Middle-Income Countries. In *RTI press* (Issue July).
<http://www.rti.org/publication/school-and-classroom-disabilities-inclusion-guide-low-and-middle-income-countries%0Ahttps://www.edu-links.org/sites/default/files/media/file/op-0031-1701-bulat.pdf%0Ahttp://europepmc.org/books/NBK554622%0Ahttps://europepmc.o>
- Hehir, T., Grindal, T., Freeman, B., Lamoreau, R., Borquaye, Y., & Burke, S. (2016). A summary of the evidence on inclusive education. *Instituto Alana*, 1–34.
http://alana.org.br/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/A_Summary_of_the_evidence_on_inclusive_education.pdf
- Hemann, J. S. (2007). *Inclusion of special needs students into the regular education classroom*.
- Henok, T. (2014). *No 主観的健康感を中心とした在宅高齢者における健康関連指標に関する共分散構造分析Title*.

- Herz, R. (2023). Inclusive Education in Lebanon: Condition, Challenges, and Recommendations. In D. Lane, N. Catania, & S. Semon (Eds.), *Progress Toward Agenda 2030* (Vol. 21, pp. 105–120). Emerald Publishing Limited. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-363620230000021008>
- Hesse, S. (2014). *A Design and Analysis Method for Automotive and Aerospace Composite Structures including Manufacturing Variations Paper Number : 224 Title : A Design and Analysis Method for Automotive and Aerospace Composite Structures including Manufacturing Variations . September*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/2.1.4971.1681>
- Hills, D. C., & Sessoms-Penny, S. (2021). Pre-service professional development for inclusion teachers. In *Research in Higher Education Journal* (Vol. 40). <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1296461>
- Hitchon, C. A., Zhang, L., Peschken, C. A., Lix, L. M., Graff, L. A., Fisk, J. D., Patten, S. B., Bolton, J., Sareen, J., El-Gabalawy, R., Marriott, J., Bernstein, C. N., & Marrie, R. A. (2020). Validity and Reliability of Screening Measures for Depression and Anxiety Disorders in Rheumatoid Arthritis. *Arthritis Care and Research*, 72(8), 1130–1139. <https://doi.org/10.1002/acr.24011>
- Hofman, R. H., & Kilimo, J. S. (2014). Teachers' Attitudes and Self-Efficacy Towards Inclusion of Pupils With Disabilities in Tanzanian Schools. *Journal of Education and Training*, 1(2), 177. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jet.v1i2.5760>
- Hofmann, V., & Müller, C. M. (2021). Language skills and social contact among students with intellectual disabilities in special needs schools. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 30(PA), 100534. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2021.100534>
- Hollenweger, J., Pantic, N., & Florian, L. (2015). Tool to Upgrade Teacher Education Practices for Inclusive Education. *Council of Europe Experts*, 53(9), 1689–1699.
- Hornby, G. (2015). Inclusive special education: Development of a new theory for the education of children with special educational needs and disabilities. *British Journal of Special Education*, 42(3), 234–256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8578.12101>
- Howgego, C., Miles, S., & Myers, J. (2014). *Children with disabilities and*. September, 1–59.
- Howitt, D., & Cramer, D. (2011). Introduction to Research Methods in Psychology. In *Introduction to Research Methods in Psychology*.
- Hunt, C. (2018). *The Pursuit to Advance Diversity, inclusion and equity in higher education: A multiple case study analysis of CDO perceptions and practice (dissertation)*.
- Illing, J. (2013). Thinking About Research: Theoretical Perspectives, Ethics and Scholarship. In *Understanding Medical Education: Evidence, Theory and Practice: Second Edition*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118472361.ch24>
- ILO. (2013). Inclusion of people with disabilities in Ethiopia. *Irish Aid*, 2007, 2–4. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_emp/@ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_112299.pdf
- ILO. (2014). *Conditions of Work and Equality Department (WORKQUALITY) Bureau for*

Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP) Inclusion of Youth with Disabilities (Issue September).
www.ilo.org/publns

- Imaniah, I., & Fitria, N. (2018). Inclusive Education for Students with Disability. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 42, 00039. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20184200039>
- Imran, M., Sultan, A., & Ali, F. (2024). TOWARDS STUDENTS' LEARNING. *Journal of Education and Social Studies*, 5(1), 176–182.
- Irby, B. J., Alford, B. J., Perreault, G., Zellner, L., & Administration, N. C. of P. of E. (2010). Promoting Critical Ideas of Leadership, Culture and Diversity. The 2010 Yearbook of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration. In *NCPEA Publications*.
- Ishtiaq, M. (2019). Book Review Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. *English Language Teaching*, 12(5), 40. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n5p40>
- Iyassu, S. A., & Mckinnon, F. (2021). Disability Rights are Human Rights : Pushing Ethiopia Towards a Rights-based Movement DISABILITY RIGHTS ARE HUMAN RIGHTS : PUSHING ETHIOPIA TOWARDS A RIGHTS-. *Northwestern Journal of Human Rights*, 19(1), 51–61.
- Jensen, T. (2022). *The importance of inclusive classrooms for students with disabilities: Research leading to the creation of a needs assessment to support inclusive classrooms*. January, 1–102.
- John, C. (2013). What Makes an Inclusive Teacher? Can Fish Climb Trees? Mapping the European Agency Profile of Inclusive Teachers to the English System. *Forum*, 55(1), 103. <https://doi.org/10.2304/forum.2013.55.1.103>
- Juvonen, J., Lessard, L. M., Rastogi, R., Schacter, H. L., & Smith, D. S. (2019). Promoting Social Inclusion in Educational Settings: Challenges and Opportunities. *Educational Psychologist*, 54(4), 250–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2019.1655645>
- Kalyanpur, M. (2018). *services for children with disabilities* *. 397–413. <https://doi.org/10.24130/eccd>
- Kamenopoulou, L. (2016). ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS THEORY: A VALUABLE FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH ON INCLUSION AND SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS/DISABILITIES. *Педагогика*, 88(4), 515–528.
- KASSA, S. Z. (2012). *Assessment of Aid Effectiveness in Ethiopia : a Case Study on the General Education Quality Improvement Programme and the Collaboration Among Dfid , Unicef and the World Bank* (Issue November).
- Kaur, H. (2020). A STUDY ON ATTITUDE OF TEACHERS TOWARDS. 8(2), 212–216.
- Kavua, M. M. (2022). *Challenging Inclusive Education Policy and Practice in Africa* (Issue May).
- Keating, P. (2016). *An exploratory mixed-methods study of student incivility in higher education classrooms*.

https://repository.edgehill.ac.uk/7763/2/_c1staffhome1_STAFFHOME1_Bellh_Desktop_Thesis to add_Keating Paula - Thesis - Final - 2016.04.21.pdf

- Kebede, A. T., & Phasha, T. N. (2024). Developing teachers' competency for inclusive education in Ethiopia. *African Journal of Disability, 13*, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.4102/AJOD.V13I0.1383>
- Kefallinou, A., Symeonidou, S., & Meijer, C. J. W. (2020). Understanding the value of inclusive education and its implementation: A review of the literature. *Prospects, 49*(3–4), 135–152. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-020-09500-2>
- Kelly, N. A., Kanuch, C., Lancaster, J., Grigsby, R., & Macnairn, E. (2013). *HANDICAP INTERNATIONAL ANNUAL REPORT 2013*.
- Kene, D., Kedir, H., Basha, G., & Dinsa, F. (2021). Effectiveness of Principals' Leadership Styles in School Improvement and Students' Academic Achievement in Government Secondary Schools of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. In *Creative Education* (Vol. 12, Issue 11). <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2021.1211190>
- Kennedy, D. M., & Kennedy, D. M. (. (2016). *he Qualitative Report Is it any Clearer? Generic Qualitative Inquiry and the VSAIEEDC Model of Data Analysis Recommended APA Citation. 21*(8), 8–9.
- Kenny, M., & Fourie, R. (2015). Contrasting classic, straussian, and constructivist grounded theory: Methodological and philosophical conflicts. *Qualitative Report, 20*(8), 1270–1289. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2015.2251>
- Kern, M. L., & Wehmeyer, M. L. (2021). The Palgrave handbook of positive education. In *The Palgrave Handbook of Positive Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-64537-3>
- Khan & Intakhab. (2023). Electronic copy available at : Electronic copy available at : *Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies, 49*(2), 113–120. <https://doi.org/10.9734/AJESS/2023/v49i21124>
- Khanna, S., Assi, M., Lee, C., Yoho, D., Louie, T., Knapple, W., Aguilar, H., Garcia-Diaz, J., Wang, G. P., Berry, S. M., Marion, J., Su, X., Braun, T., Bancke, L., & Feuerstadt, P. (2022). Efficacy and Safety of RBX2660 in PUNCH CD3, a Phase III, Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Trial with a Bayesian Primary Analysis for the Prevention of Recurrent Clostridioides difficile Infection. *Drugs, 82*(15), 1527–1538. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40265-022-01797-x>
- Kimber, L. R., & Maertens, L. (2023). Participant Observation. *International Organizations and Research Methods: An Introduction, 33–41*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019263658106544710>
- Kirac, N. İ., Altınay, F., Dagli, G., Altınay, Z., Sharma, R., Shadiey, R., & Celebi, M. (2022). Multicultural Education Policies and Connected Ways of Living during COVID-19: Role of Educators as Cultural Transformers. *Sustainability (Switzerland), 14*(19). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su141912038>
- Kiuppis, F. (2014). Why (not) associate the principle of inclusion with disability? Tracing

- connections from the start of the Salamanca Process. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(7), 746–761. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2013.826289>
- Kiyuba, J., & Tukur, S. Y. (2014). *Challenges of Providing Special Education To Children With Disabilities*.
- Kocha, F., & Senapathy, M. (2022). Practice and Challenges of the Implementation of Inclusive Education Strategy in Secondary Schools: The Case of Gofa Zone, Southern Ethiopia. *Shanlax International Journal of Education*, 11(1), 94–111. <https://doi.org/10.34293/education.v11i1.5177>
- Kocoğlu, F., Gülsecen, Ö., Erol, S., & Kocoğlu, S. (2016). 277-293 Inclusive Schools 2015. *World Journal on Educational Technology*, 8(3), 277–293. <http://sproc.org/ojs/index.php/wjet>
- Kothari. (2004). *Research Methodology methods and Techeniques* (2nd ed.). New Age International (P) Ltd., Publishers.
- Krauss, S. (2015). Research Paradigms and Meaning Making: A Primer. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4), 758–770. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2005.1831>
- Krtkova, R., Krtek, A., Pesoutova, M., Meier, Z., Tavel, P., & Trnka, R. (2023). School functioning and experience of the school environment by students with ADHD. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 38(5), 614–628. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856257.2022.2145687>
- Kuo, N.-C. (2012). Achieving Education for All –Together. *Learning and Doing Policy Analysis in Education*, 93–115. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6091-933-6_5
- Kuppusamy, E., Dhamodharan, K. I., & Jayakumar, S. (2016). Journal of {Coastal} {Life} {Medicine}. *Journal of Coastal Life Medicine*, 4(11), 902–917.
- Kurz, N., & Paul, P. V. (2005). *Toward an Inclusive Teacher Education Program*. 3(2).
- Lambe, J., & Bones, R. (2006). *Student teachers ' perceptions about inclusive classroom teaching in Northern Ireland prior to teaching practice experience*. 21, 167–186. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856250600600828>
- Landsberg, G., & Araujo, J. A. (2005). Behavior problems in geriatric pets. *Veterinary Clinics of North America - Small Animal Practice*, 35(3), 675–698. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvsm.2004.12.008>
- Lane, J. M., Kinnison, Q. P., Ellard, A., Lane, J. M., Kinnison, Q. P., Ellard, A., Inclusive, C., Lane, J. M., Kinnison, Q. P., & Ellard, A. (2019). Creating Inclusive and Hospitable Christian Schools : Three Case Studies Creating Inclusive and Hospitable Christian Schools : Three Case Studies. *Journal of Disability & Religion*, 23(1), 37–58. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23312521.2019.1570832>
- Leech, N. L., Dellinger, A. B., Brannagan, K. B., & Tanaka, H. (2010). Evaluating mixed research studies: A mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 4(1), 17–31. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689809345262>

- Leider, C. M., Colombo, M. W., & Nerlino, E. (2021). Decentralization, teacher quality, and the education of english learners: Do state education agencies effectively prepare teachers of els? *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 29, 1–44. <https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.29.5279>
- Lenzer, S., Pannullo, L., Nehring, A., & Stinken-Roesner, L. (2024). Towards Scientific Literacy in Inclusive Science Education. *A Self-Study Manual to Support Pre- and In-Service Teachers*, 40–49. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2411.03020v2>
- Lewin, K. (2008). Why some Education for All and Millennium Development Goals will not be met: difficulties with goals and targets. *Chisholm*, 13(2), 41–60. http://www.research4development.info/PDF/Outputs/ImpAccess_RPC/SAREarticle.pdf%5Cnpapers://33432778-ef7b-4391-ae67-220f9c46620d/Paper/p3429
- Lewis. (2021). *Inclusive Education Training Manual*.
- Lindner, K. T., & Schwab, S. (2020). Differentiation and individualisation in inclusive education: a systematic review and narrative synthesis. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 0(0), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2020.1813450>
- Lipinski, R., Rogger, D., & Schuster, C. (2022). *Designing Survey Questionnaires (II): What Types of Survey Questions Do Public Officials Not Respond To?* 471–496.
- Lodge, J. M., Kennedy, G., Lockyer, L., Arguel, A., & Pachman, M. (2018). Understanding Difficulties and Resulting Confusion in Learning: An Integrative Review. *Frontiers in Education*, 3(June), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/educ.2018.00049>
- Lombard, B. J. J. K., & Kloppers, M. (2015). Undergraduate student teachers' views and experiences of a compulsory course in research methods. *South African Journal of Education*, 35(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.15700/201503070032>
- Loria, T. (2010). *Learning to Teach at Inclusive Schools Student Special Educators' Perspectives at Ilia State University in Georgia*.
- Luciani, M., Campbell, K., Tschirhart, H., Ausili, D., & Jack, S. M. (2019). How to Design a Qualitative Health Research Study. Part 1: Design and Purposeful Sampling Considerations. *Professioni Infermieristiche*, 72(2), 152–161. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31550432>
- Ludago, T. B. (2020). Practices, Challenges and Opportunities of Inclusive Education Implementation in Kambata Tambaro Zone, Ethiopia. *OALib*, 07(02), 1–29. <https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1105989>
- Lynch, P., McCall, S., Douglas, G., McLinden, M., Mogesa, B., Mwaura, M., Muga, J., & Njoroge, M. (2011). Inclusive educational practices in Kenya: Evidencing practice of itinerant teachers who work with children with visual impairment in local mainstream schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 31(5), 478–488. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2010.08.006>
- Mackey, M. (2014). Inclusive education in the united states: Middle school general education teachers' approaches to inclusion. *International Journal of Instruction*, 7(2), 5–20.

- Maclachlan, M., Mji, G., Chataika, T., Wazakili, M., Dube, A. K., Mulumba, M., Massah, B., Wakene, D., Kallon, F., & Maughan, M. (2014). Facilitating Disability Inclusion in Poverty Reduction Processes: Group Consensus Perspectives from Disability Stakeholders in Uganda, Malawi, Ethiopia, and Sierra Leone. *Open Access, 1*(1), 107–127. www.dgsjournal.org
- Majoko, T., Phasha, N., Brown, A., Devi, S., Duku, N., Febana, Z., & Ndlovu, S. (2018). The state of inclusive education in South Africa and the implications for teacher training programmes. *Teaching for All Research Report. Roodepoort: British Council., March 2022*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.30210.56009>
- Malahlela, K. M. (2017). *EDUCATORS ' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN MAINSTREAM the degree of SUPERVISOR : PROFESSOR REGIS CHIRESHE* (Issue November).
- Malle, A., & Yehualawork, A. (2015). *This is an electronic reprint of the original article . This reprint may differ from the original in pagination and typographic detail .*
- MAMBO, J. A. (2011). *EXPLORING TEACHERS ' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN A REGULAR PRIMARY SCHOOL : A PAPUA NEW GUINEA STUDY* by JENNY APUREL MAMBO A thesis submitted to the Victoria University of Wellington in partial fulfilment of the requirement.
- Maria, U. E. (2013). Teachers' Perception, Knowledge and Behaviour in Inclusive Education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 84*, 1237–1241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.736>
- Mariga, L., Mc Conkey, R., & Myezwa, H. (2014). Inclusive education in low-income countries: A resource book for teacher educators, parent trainers and community development workers. *Inclusive Education in Low-Income Countries: A Resource Book for Teacher Educators, Parent Trainers and Community Development Workers, January*, 1–138. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1034912x.2015.1074391>
- Mashiya, N. (2014). Becoming a (male) foundation phase teacher : A need in South African schools ? *South African Journal of Childhood Education, 4*(3), 24–36.
- Masongsong, J., R. Lopres, J., M. Aguirre, M., M. Lopres, G., M. Enriquez, D., B. Bautista, F., Y. Niadas, G., & T. Virtusio, J. D. (2023). Level of Teachers' Training in Inclusive Education and Their Sense of Efficacy. In *International Journal of Science and Management Studies (IJSMS)* (Issue October). <https://doi.org/10.51386/25815946/ijms-v6i5p108>
- Maulidina, H. (2019). A Case Study Analysis of Instructors' Perspectives about the Inclusion of Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder in the College Classrooms. In *Northcentral University ProQuest Dissertations Publishing, (Issue 2)*. Northcentral University.
- Mcconkey, R. (2021). *Inclusive Education in Low-Income Countries A Resource for Teacher Educators , Parent Trainers and* (Issue January 2014).
- McCrorie, P. (2018). Learning in small groups. In *Understanding Medical Education: Evidence, Theory, and Practice*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119373780.ch9>

- McDonald, K. E., Balcazar, F. E., & Keys, C. B. (2012). Youth with Disabilities. *Handbook of Youth Mentoring*, 29(2011), 493–507. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412976664.n33>
- McGregor, K. K., Ohlmann, N., Eden, N., Arbisi-Kelm, T., & Young, A. (2023). Abilities and Disabilities Among Children With Developmental Language Disorder. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 54(3), 927–951. https://doi.org/10.1044/2023_LSHSS-22-00070
- McKay, L. (2016). Beginning teachers and inclusive education : frustrations , dilemmas and growth Author Beginning teachers and Inclusive Education : Frustrations , Dilemmas and Growth. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2015.1081635>
- McLaren, S. J. (2013). Is Inclusive Education Right for Every Child ? An Account by the Parent of a Child with High and Complex Needs Due to Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Kairaranga*, 14(2), 26–34.
- McLeod, S. (2018). Communication rights: Fundamental human rights for all. *International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 20(1), 3–11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17549507.2018.1428687>
- Meidrina, T., Mawaddah, S. N., Maryam, F., Siahaan, M., & Widyasari, P. (2017). The relationship between teacher efficacy and attitude towards inclusive education in private elementary school: A study based on teaching experiences. *Journal of Advances in Humanities and Social Sciences*, 3(3), 124–134. <https://doi.org/10.20474/jahss-3.3.1>
- Melaku, Y. (2018). *Assessing Academic Practices for Students with Hearing Impairments in Integrated Classes of Bakel Primary School Infernot Selam Town: Challenges and Opportunities*.
- Mendoza, M., & Heymann, J. (2024). Implementation of Inclusive Education: A Systematic Review of Studies of Inclusive Education Interventions in Low- and Lower-Middle-Income Countries. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 71(3), 299–316. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1034912X.2022.2095359>
- Meremikwu, A. N., & Ibok, E. E. (2020). Influence of classroom environment on senior secondary school students academic achievement in mathematics in Calabar Nigeria. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 15(8), 495–503. <https://doi.org/10.5897/err2020.3983>
- Mergia, A. T. (2020a). *Education of Children and Youth with Disabilities in the Ethiopian School System*. 10(4), 732–742. <https://doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.10.04.2020.p10079>
- Mergia, A. T. (2020b). The practice of inclusive education in Ethiopia. *Programme and Meeting Document*, 1–25.
- Mertens, D. M. (2010). Transformative mixed methods research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(6), 469–474. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800410364612>
- Mintesinot, F. (2018). Assessing Inclusive Education Implementation Practice , Diffusion and Policy Assessing Inclusive Education Implementation Practice , Diffusion and Policy Issues in Benchi Maji Zone , South West Ethiopia. *Journal of Education and Practice*,

9(31), 12.

https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mintesnot_Fentahun/publication/344069272_Assessing_Inclusive_Education_Implementation_Practice_Diffusion_and_Policy_Issues_in_Benchi_Maji_Zone_South_West_Ethiopia/links/5f5094cfa6fdcc9879c41feb/Assessing-Inclusive-Educ

Mirhosseini, S.-A. (2020). Collecting Data Through Observation. *Doing Qualitative Research in Language Education, January 2012*, 61–84. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56492-6_4

Mitchell, R. (2017). *Inclusive education in sub-Saharan Africa 1 Part 1 . The case for inclusive education. April.*

Mitiku, W., Alemu, Y., & Mengsitu, S. (2014). *Challenges and Opportunities to Implement Inclusive Education. 1(2)*, 118–136.

MoE. (2011). *Esa 2003 Ec.* www.moe.gov.et

MoE. (2015). *Education Sector Development Program V (2015-2020) (ESDP V). Esdp V, 2008–2012.*

MoE. (2016). A Master Plan for Special Needs Education / Inclusive Education in Ethiopia Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian Ministry of Education October 2016. In *A Master Plan for Special Needs Education/Inclusive Education in Ethiopia 2016-2025 Federal* (Issue October).

MOE, M. of E. (2012). *Special Needs / Inclusive Education Strategy. Special Needs/ Inclusive Education Strategy*, 1–22.

Moh. Rif'attullah, & Ciptaningrum, D. S. (2024). Exploring Pre-Service Teacher Professional Learning on Their Preparedness for Teaching Practicum. *Formosa Journal of Sustainable Research*, 3(8), 1779–1798. <https://doi.org/10.55927/fjsr.v3i8.10969>

Mokaleng, M., & Möwes, A. D. (2020). Issues Affecting the Implementation of Inclusive Education Practices in Selected Secondary Schools in the Omaheke Region of Namibia. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 9(2), 78. <https://doi.org/10.5430/jct.v9n2p78>

Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms Lost and Pragmatism Regained. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48–76. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2345678906292462>

Morgan, D. L. (2017). Mixed methods research. In *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociology* (Vol. 1, Issue February). <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316418376.015>

Morris, A. (2015). Advancing Urban Educational Policy: Insights from Research on Dunbar High School. *Journal of Case Studies in Education*, 8, 1–33. [https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1182142%0Afiles/20943/Morris - 2015 - Advancing Urban Educational Policy Insights from .pdf](https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1182142%0Afiles/20943/Morris-2015-Advancing%20Urban%20Educational%20Policy%20Insights%20from.pdf)

Moses, K., & Kiprop, D. (2020). *Influence of Pre-School Teachers ' Early Identification of Learners With Special Needs in Public Ecde Centres in Keiyo South Sub-County , Kenya. 57–70.* <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3726280>

- Mosia, P. A. (2014). Threats to inclusive education in Lesotho: An overview of policy and implementation challenges. *Africa Education Review*, 11(3), 292–310.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2014.934989>
- Muhammad, K. (2016). Basic guidelines for research: an introductory approach for all disciplines. *Book Zone Publication*, May, 1–557.
- Muhammed, A. (2022). Parents' Involvement in Early Childhood Education Curriculum Development: A Case of Kaskazini 'A' District in Zanzibar. *East African Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 3(5), 9–17.
<https://doi.org/10.46606/https://doi.org/10.46606/eajess2022v03i05.0214>
- Muliati. (2016). Conceptualizations and Impacts of Multiculturalism in the Ethiopian Education System. In *Revista CENIC. Ciencias Biológicas* (Vol. 152, Issue 3).
 file:///Users/andreataquez/Downloads/guia-plan-de-mejora-institucional.pdf%0Ahttp://salud.tabasco.gob.mx/content/revista%0Ahttp://www.revistaalad.com/pdfs/Guias_ALAD_11_Nov_2013.pdf%0Ahttp://dx.doi.org/10.15446/revfacmed.v66n3.60060.%0Ahttp://www.cenetec.
- Munna, A. S., & Kalam, M. A. (2021). Teaching and learning process to enhance teaching effectiveness: literature review. *International Journal of Humanities and Innovation (IJHI)*, 4(1), 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.33750/ijhi.v4i1.102>
- Mupa, P., & Chinooneka, T. I. (2015). Factors contributing to ineffective teaching and learning in primary schools: Why are schools in decadence? *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(19), 125–132. www.iiste.org
- Murphy, L., Eduljee, N. B., & Croteau, K. (2021). Teacher-Centered versus Student-Centered Teaching. *Journal of Effective Teaching in Higher Education*, 4(1), 18–39.
<https://doi.org/10.36021/jethe.v4i1.156>
- Musa, A. M. (2019). *Abdulfettah Muzemil Musa I*. 6(1), 55–75.
- Musyoka, M. (2018). Play and Preschool Children Who Are Deaf: A Review of the Literature. In *Creative Education* (Vol. 09, Issue 12). <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2018.912130>
- Mwajabu, K. P., & Joseph, R. M. (2017). Learner Diversity in Inclusive Classrooms: The Interplay of Language of Instruction, Gender and Disability. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 5(3), 28–42.
- N'jie, S. (2014). 'I'm here for the children' : an exploration of the viewpoints of teaching assistants (TAs) and primary-aged pupils regarding the TA role and an illumination of the importance of TA gender.
<https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsble&AN=edsble.630923&site=eds-live>
- National Council for Special Education. (2006). *Guidelines on the Individual Education Plan Process*.
- NCSE. (2011). Inclusive Education Framework. *National Council for Special Education*, November, 148. <http://ncse.ie/wp->

content/uploads/2014/10/InclusiveEducationFramework_InteractiveVersion.pdf

- Negash, K. H. (2020). *Pre-service Teachers ' Attitude towards the Inclusion of. February*, 8–12. <https://doi.org/10.24940/ijird/2019/v8/i12/DEC19003>
- Neilson, W., & Brink, A. (2008). The importance of educating student teachers in inclusive education. A disability perspective. *Kairaranga*, 9(2), 16–21. <https://doi.org/10.54322/kairaranga.v9i2.122>
- Nel, N. M., Tlale, L. D. N., Engelbrecht, P., & Nel, M. (2016). Teachers' perceptions of education support structures in the implementation of inclusive education in South Africa. *Koers*, 81(3), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.19108/KOERS.81.3.2249>
- Ní Bhroin, Ó., & King, F. (2020). Teacher education for inclusive education: a framework for developing collaboration for the inclusion of students with support plans. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(1), 38–63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2019.1691993>
- Niland, N., Pearce, A. P., Naumann, D. N., O'Reilly, D., Series, P. B., Sataloff, R. T., Johns, M. M., Kost, K. M., Orsini, R. J., Medicine, T., Kalkman, J. P., Sataloff, R. T., Johns, M. M., Kost, K. M., Maiti, Bidinger, Assistance, H., Mitigate, T. O., Eroukhmanoff, C., & Licina, D. (2020). No 主観的健康感を中心とした在宅高齢者における健康関連指標に関する共分散構造分析Title. *Global Health*, 167(1), 1–5. <https://www.e-ir.info/2018/01/14/securitisation-theory-an-introduction/>
- Njui, H. W. (2017). Teacher Education in Contemporary Society : Transforming Teacher Education Through. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 3(10), 228–251. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1002147>
- Nugroho, M. B. (2018). Criteria for Evaluating Qualitative Research Valerie. *Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling*, 53(9), 1689–1699.
- Nuttall, A. (2016). The 'curriculum challenge': Moving towards the 'Storyline' approach in a case study urban primary school. *Improving Schools*, 19(2), 154–166. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1365480216651522>
- O'Leary, Z. (2017). *The essential Guid to Doing Your Research Project* (SAGE (ed.)). Sage publications Ltd.
- Odom, S. L., Buysse, V., Soukakou, E., & Odom, S. L. (2012). *Inclusion for Young Children*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1053815111430094>
- OECD. (2013). Education at a Glance 2013. In *Education at a Giance*. <http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/download/4213201e.pdf?expires=1395222439&id=id&accname=guest&checksum=F9C6674E09CE56B8C66B5B09314145B0>
- Okech, J. B., Yuwono, I., & Abdu, W. J. (2021). Implementation of inclusive education practices for children with disabilities and other special needs in Uganda. *Journal of Education and E-Learning Research*, 8(1), 97–102. <https://doi.org/10.20448/journal.509.2021.81.97.102>

- Okongo, R. B., Ngao, G., Rop, N. K., & Nyongesa, W. J. (2015). Effect of Availability of Teaching and Learning Resources on the Implementation of Inclusive Education in Pre-School Centers in Nyamira North Sub-County, Nyamira County, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(35), 132–141.
<http://ezproxy.library.yorku.ca/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1773227117?accountid=15182>
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bustamante, R. M., & Nelson, J. A. (2010). Mixed research as a tool for developing quantitative instruments. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 4(1), 56–78.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689809355805>
- Onwuegbuzie, A., & Leech, N. (2015). Linking Research Questions to Mixed Methods Data Analysis Procedures 1. *The Qualitative Report*, 11(3), 474–498.
<https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2006.1663>
- Onwumehili, C. (2018). Scholarly research. *Sport Communication*, 19(2), 332–346.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315270920-25>
- Onyesom, M., & Igberaharha, C. O. (2021). Inclusive values and pedagogies needed by business studies' teachers for effective inclusive education in secondary schools. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 9(1), 220–229.
<https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.61.2021.91.220.229>
- Osamwonyi, E. F. (2016). In-Service Education of Teachers: Overview, Problems and the Way Forward. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(26), 83–87. www.iiste.org
- Owino, O. C., Omoke, C., & Mwebi, B. (2018). Influence Of Teacher Factors On Mathematics Performance Among Learners With Hearing Impairment In Special Secondary Schools. *International Journal of Novel Research in Education and Learning*, 5(4), 42–59.
[http://62.24.102.115/bitstream/handle/123456789/8900/Owino_Influence Of Teacher Factors On Mathematics Performance Among Learners With Hearing Impairment In Special Secondary Schools.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y](http://62.24.102.115/bitstream/handle/123456789/8900/Owino_Influence%20Of%20Teacher%20Factors%20On%20Mathematics%20Performance%20Among%20Learners%20With%20Hearing%20Impairment%20In%20Special%20Secondary%20Schools.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y)
- Paju, B., Kajamaa, A., Pirttimaa, R., & Kontu, E. (2022). Collaboration for Inclusive Practices: Teaching Staff Perspectives from Finland. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 66(3), 427–440. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2020.1869087>
- Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2015). Purposeful Sampling for Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis in Mixed Method Implementation Research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*, 42(5), 533–544. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y>
- Pansiri, J. (2005). Pragmatism: A methodological approach to researching strategic alliances in tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality, Planning and Development*, 2(3), 191–206.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790530500399333>
- Papadakaki, M., Maraki, A., Bitsakos, N., & Chliaoutakis, J. (2022). Perceived Knowledge and Attitudes of Faculty Members towards Inclusive Education for Students with Disabilities : Evidence from a Greek University. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(4), 16. <https://doi.org/>; <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042151>

- Park, M., Dimitrov, D. M., Das, A., & Gichuru, M. (2016). *The teacher efficacy for inclusive practices (TEIP) scale : dimensionality and factor structure. 16.* <https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-3802.12047>
- Park, Y. S., Konge, L., & Artino, A. R. (2020). The Positivism Paradigm of Research. *Academic Medicine, 95*(5), 690–694. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000003093>
- Parveen, A. T. Q. (2018). Inclusive education and the arts. *Inclusive Education and the Challenges, 3*(3), 64–68. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203978399-16>
- Patrick, N. A. (2013). *Inclusive Education in Public Primary Schools in.*
- Peck, C. (2017). *Outcomes of Interactions with Peers with Moderate or Severe Disabilities : A Statewide Survey of High School Students. December 1994.* <https://doi.org/10.1177/154079699401900403>
- Pedder, D. (2006). Are small classes better? Understanding relationships between class size, classroom processes and pupils' learning. *Oxford Review of Education, 32*(2), 213–234. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980600645396>
- Perkins, N. (2020). The Effects of Societal and Structural Barriers on Participation among Individuals with Physical Disabilities. *Sports and Exercise Medicine – Open Journal, 6*(2), 51–55. <https://doi.org/10.17140/semoj-6-181>
- Plano Clark, V. L., & Ivankova, N. V. (2018). Mixed Methods Research: A Guide to the Field. In *Mixed Methods Research: A Guide to the Field.* <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483398341>
- Pluralism, L., Charamba, K., Evers, M., Stead, J., Shay, S., & Schoen, W. (2018). *Oecd i. May.*
- Polit, D. F. (2018). *Essentials of Nursing Research* (9th ed.). LIPPINCOTT WILLIAMS & WILKINS, a WOLTERS KLUWER business. <https://lccn.loc.gov/2016043994>
- Ponce, O. A., Gómez-Galán, J., & Pagán-Maldonado, N. (2022). Qualitative research in education. In *IJERI: International Journal of Educational Research and Innovation* (Issue 18). <https://doi.org/10.46661/ijeri.5917>
- Porter, G. L., & Canada, I. E. (2016). *Disability and Education : Toward an Inclusive Approach. January 2001.*
- Porter, P., Abeyratne, U., Swarnkar, V., Tan, J., Ng, T. W., Brisbane, J. M., Speldewinde, D., Choveaux, J., Sharan, R., Kosasih, K., & Della, P. (2019). A prospective multicentre study testing the diagnostic accuracy of an automated cough sound centred analytic system for the identification of common respiratory disorders in children. *Respiratory Research, 20*(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12931-019-1046-6>
- Price, R. (2018). *Inclusive and special education approaches in developing countries.*
- Punch, R., & Hyde, M. (2011). Social participation of children and adolescents with cochlear implants: A qualitative analysis of parent, teacher, and child interviews. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 16*(4), 474–493. <https://doi.org/10.1093/deafed/enr001>

- Quennerstedt, A. (2013). Children's rights research moving into the future-Challenges on the way forward. *International Journal of Children's Rights*, 21(2), 233–247. <https://doi.org/10.1163/15718182-02102006>
- Rae, D. (2019). BG Research Online. *International Journal of Work Innovation*, 2(1), 128–143.
- Rahaman, M., & Sutherland, D. (2011). Inclusive Education Practice for Secondary School Students With Disabilities in Bangladesh. *2011 4Th International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (Iceri), November 2011*, 785–799. <https://doi.org/10.26021/9869>
- Rajendra Dhoj Joshi & Adriaan Verspoor. (2012). Secondary Education in ethiopia. In *World bank* (Issue 121). © 2013 International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank.
- Ralejoe, M. (2021). A study to understand the inclusion of learners with and without visual impairment in a secondary school in lesotho. *South African Journal of Education*, 41(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.15700/saje.v41n1a1746>
- Rapp, A. C., & Corral-Granados, A. (2021). Understanding inclusive education – a theoretical contribution from system theory and the constructionist perspective. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 0(0), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2021.1946725>
- Redet Mesfin & Tirusew Teferra. (2021). Perceived Support Services for Undergraduate Students with Disabilities at Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia Rediet Mesfin 1 * and Tirussew Teferra 2 **. *Ethiopian Journal of Behavioural Studies*, 4(2), 52–81.
- Reyes, C. D., Valmorida, F. M. S., Alayon, M. F., Tantog, A. J. D., & Jean, D. (2023). *Teachers' Strategies, Challenges and Coping Mechanisms in Helping Struggling Readers during the Pandemic. March.*
- Richards, K. A. R., & Hemphill, M. A. (2018). A practical guide to collaborative qualitative data analysis. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 37(2), 225–231. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jtpe.2017-0084>
- Roberts, R. E. (2020). Qualitative interview questions: Guidance for novice researchers. *Qualitative Report*, 25(9), 3185–3203. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2020.4640>
- RODRÍGUEZ, C. I. H. (2019). *PUEBLA* (Issue April).
- Rogahang, S. S. N., Paramansyah, A., Zaelani, K., Iqbal, M., & Judijanto, L. (2024). Inclusive Education Practices: Fostering Diversity and Equity in the Classroom. *Global International Journal of Innovative Research*, 1(3), 260–266. <https://doi.org/10.59613/global.v1i3.46>
- Rossmann, I. G. B. (2013). *ED 793L – Qualitative Research Methods*. 17, 1–5.
- Roy, L. N., Paul, D. N. R., & Majumder, U. K. (2020). The Relative Performance of Different Types of Primary Schools in Bangladesh: A Multilevel Modeling Approach. *Creative Education*, 11(11), 2354–2374. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2020.1111173>
- Ruhela, V. S. (2023). " Inclusive Education and Addressing Diversity in the Classroom : A

- Comprehensive Review of Literature ". *International Journal of Novel Research and Development*, 8(10), 78–101.
- Rutberg, S., & Bouikidis, C. D. (2018). Focusing on the Fundamentals: A Simplistic Differentiation Between Qualitative and Quantitative Research. *Nephrology Nursing Journal : Journal of the American Nephrology Nurses' Association*, 45(2), 209–212.
- Sabates, R., Singal, N., Teferra, T., & Tiruneh, D. T. (2024). Disability and learning in Ethiopia: what changed as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 3116, 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2024.2342362>
- Salend, S. J. (2004). Fostering Inclusive Values in Children: What Families Can Do. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 37(1), 64–69. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004005990403700108>
- Saminder Singh, G. K., Ahmad, I. Y. B., Baharudin, S. N. A., & Ngadni, I. (2023). Challenges Faced by Teachers in Inclusive Classrooms in Early Childhood Education (ECE) Setting. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 12(2). <https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarped/v12-i2/17267>
- Sanga, E. S., Mukumbang, F. C., Mushi, A. K., Lerebo, W., & Zarowsky, C. (2019). Understanding factors influencing linkage to HIV care in a rural setting, Mbeya, Tanzania: qualitative findings of a mixed methods study. *BMC Public Health*, 19(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-6691-7>
- Sanger, C. S., & Gleason, N. W. (n.d.). *Diversity and Inclusion in Global Higher Education*.
- Santiago, P. (2020). Strength through diversity: Education for inclusive societies design and implementation plan. In *Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development* (Issue November). <https://www.oecd.org/education/strength-through-diversity/Design-and-Implementation-Plan.pdf>
- Save the Children. (2016). *Inclusive Education : What, Why , and How a Handbook for Program Implementers*.
- Schiemer, M. (2017). Education for Children with Disabilities in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. In *Education for Children with Disabilities in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-60768-9>
- Scholtz, S. E., de Klerk, W., & de Beer, L. T. (2020). The Use of Research Methods in Psychological Research: A Systematised Review. *Frontiers in Research Metrics and Analytics*, 5(March), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.3389/frma.2020.00001>
- Scholz, V., Amy, K., & Nigel, S. (2016). Shedding light on causal recipes for development research uptake. *Applying Qualitative Comparative Analysis to Understand Reasons for Research Uptake*, May.
- Schuelka, M. J. (2012). Implementing Inclusive Education. *Implementing Inclusive Education*, August. <https://doi.org/10.14217/9781848591271-en>
- Schuelka, M. J., Braun, A. M. B., & Johnstone, C. J. (2020). Beyond Access and Barriers: Inclusive Education and Systems Change. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in*

- and teacher educators. *Diversity in the Classroom: A Casebook for Teachers and Teacher Educators*, 4, 1–117. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315044781>
- SIDA. (2014). *Disability Rights in Ethiopia*. September. <http://www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/crpd/pages/crpd>
- Siegle, D., Rubenstein, L. D. V., & Mitchell, M. S. (2014). Honors Students' Perceptions of Their High School Experiences: The Influence of Teachers on Student Motivation. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 58(1), 35–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0016986213513496>
- Singh, S., Kumar, S., & Singh, R. K. (2020). A Study of Attitude of Teachers towards Inclusive Education. *Shanlax International Journal of Education*, 9(1), 189–197. <https://doi.org/10.34293/education.v9i1.3511>
- Siolou, E., & Angelov, B. (2023). *FACTORS WHICH AFFECT TEACHERS ATTITUDES TOWARDS INCLUSION : A*. February.
- Skovdal, M., & Cornish, F. (2015a). Qualitative Research for Development. In *Qualitative Research for Development* (Issue July). <https://doi.org/10.3362/9781780448534>
- Skovdal, M., & Cornish, F. (2015b). Qualitative Research for Development. In *Qualitative Research for Development*. <https://doi.org/10.3362/9781780448534>
- Slamanca statment. (1994). THE SALAMANCA STATEMENT AND FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION ON SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION WORLD CONFERENCEON SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION : ACCESS AND QUALITY. In *ACTION ON SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION WORLD CONFERENCEON SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION : ACCESS AND QUALITY*.
- Sniukas, M. (2020). Research design and methodology. *Contributions to Management Science*, 45–65. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-50100-6_3
- Sobsey, R. (2007). Implementing the rights of children with disabilities. In *A Question of Commitment: Children's Rights in Canada* (Issue 13).
- Sowell, H. K. (2013). *Classroom Management Strategies: The Impact on Schools*. Liberty University.
- Speidel, S. (2018). The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Analysis. In *The Routledge Companion to Adaptation*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315690254>
- Srivastava, M., de Boer, A., & Pijl, S. J. (2015). Inclusive education in developing countries: a closer look at its implementation in the last 10 years. *Educational Review*, 67(2), 179–195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013.847061>
- Stake, J. E., & Eisele, H. (2010). Handbook of Gender Research in Psychology. *Handbook of Gender Research in Psychology*, May. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1467-5>
- Stentiford, L., & Koutsouris, G. (2022). Critically considering the 'inclusive curriculum' in higher education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 43(8), 1250–1272. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01425692.2022.2122937>

- Stephenson, M. (2021). Northumbria Research Link (www.northumbria.ac.uk/nrl). *Academy of Management*, 51(September), 1–51.
- Subban, P., Bradford, B., Sharma, U., Loreman, T., Avramidis, E., Kullmann, H., Sahli Lozano, C., Romano, A., & Woodcock, S. (2023). Does it really take a village to raise a child? Reflections on the need for collective responsibility in inclusive education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 38(2), 291–302. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856257.2022.2059632>
- Suha Yassin and Sharon Hague. (2013). Diversity and. In *2013 Diversity and Inclusion Report* (Vol. 92). http://www.rbc.com/diversity/docs/RBC_2013_Diversity_Progress_Report_EN.pdf
- Surucu, L., & Maslakci, A. (2020). Business & Management Studies : *Business & Management Studies: An International Journal*, 8(3), 2694–2726.
- Swart, E., Engelbrecht, P., Eloff, I., & Pettipher, R. (2002). *Implementing inclusive education in South Africa: teachers' attitudes and experiences*. 34(1), 175–189.
- Tadesse, A., & Kenea, A. (2022). The practice of learning post-1994 instructional reforms in Ethiopia: Looking a case primary school through the lens of organizational learning theory. *Cogent Education*, 9(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2022.2074343>
- Taherdoost, H. (2018). Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, January 2016. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3205035>
- Taherdoost, H. (2021). Data Collection Methods and Tools for Research; A Step-by-Step Guide to Choose Data Collection Technique for Academic and Business Research Projects Hamed Taherdoost. Data Collection Methods and Tools for Research; A Step-by-Step Guide to Choose Data Coll. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management (IJARM)*, 2021(1), 10–38. <https://hal.science/hal-03741847>
- Taherdoost, H. (2022). Designing a Questionnaire for a Research Paper: A Comprehensive Guide to Design and Develop an Effective Questionnaire. *Asian Journal of Managerial Science*, 11(1), 8–16. <https://doi.org/10.51983/ajms-2022.11.1.3087>
- Tamar. (2008). *Regular teachers' attitudes towards inclusion of students with special needs into ordinary schools in Tbilisi*.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2010). SAGE handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural. In *SAGE publications* (Vol. 42, Issue 5).
- Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C., & Sines, M. C. (2012). Utilizing Mixed Methods in Psychological Research. In *Handbook of Psychology, Second Edition* (Issue 2008, p. 23). <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118133880.hop202015>
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2012). Common 'Core' Characteristics of Mixed Methods Research: A Review of Critical Issues and Call for Greater Convergence. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 56(6), 774–788. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764211433795>
- Tefera. (2014). ASSESSMENT OF THE SITUATION OF STUDENTS WITH

DISABILITIES IN THE ETHIOPIAN Department of Special Needs Education College of Education and Behavioral Studies Addis Ababa University Addis Ababa , Ethiopia October , 2014. In *Department of Special Needs Education College of Education and Behavioral Studies Addis Ababa University Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*.

Tefera. (2018). Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) in Ethiopia: Developments, Research, and Implications. *Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review*, 34(1), 171–206. <https://doi.org/10.1353/eas.2018.0005>

Tefera, B., & Van Engen, M. (2016). The Disability Paradox: Better Opportunities Versus the Hardships of High-Achieving Disabled Women of Ethiopia. *Canadian Journal of Disability Studies*, 5(1), 107. <https://doi.org/10.15353/cjds.v5i1.254>

Teklemariam, A. (2020). Inclusiveness: A Course for Higher Education of all Disciplines. *Inclusiveness, January*, 1–182. <http://hdl.handle.net/123456789/1005%0Ahttp://localhost:8080/xmlui/handle/123456789/1005>

Temesgen, Z. (2014). The Journey of Special Needs Education in Ethiopia : An overview. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(27), 83–86.

Temesgen, Z. (2018). Exploring Governmental Commitment To Execute Inclusive Education in Ethiopia. *Research in Pedagogy*, 8(2), 226–239. <https://doi.org/10.17810/2015.86>

Temesgen, Z. (2021). *Teacher Preparation to Implement Inclusive Education in Ethiopia*. 12(1), 49–60.

Tesemma, S. T. (2011). Educating children with disabilities in Africa: Towards a policy of inclusion. *The African Child Policy Forum (ACPF)*, 21. https://www.africanchildforum.org/index.php/en/componet/com_sobipro/Itemid,158/pid,2/sid.152/

Tesfaye, E. K., & Hailu, B. H. (2024). Factors affecting teachers' practices of inclusive instructional strategies in teaching students with visual impairments in schools of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Bahir Dar Journal of Education*, 24(3), 42–56. <https://doi.org/10.4314/10.4314/bdje.v24i3.4>

Tewoderos, W. (2014). *College of Education and Behavioral Studies School of Psychology Addis Ababa University College of Education and Behavioral Studies School of psychology* (Issue May).

The Global Fund for Emergencies. (2021). *2020 Annual Results Report: Winning the Human Race*. <https://www.educationcannotwait.org/annual-report-2020/>

Thuranira, M., Ikiara, L., & Thuba, E. (2022). *Influence of Teaching-Learning Resources on Academic Performance among Public Primary Schools in Laikipia West Sub-County 1* Josphine Muthoni Thuranira, 2 Lucy Ikiara and 3 Esther Thuba 123 Education in Leadership and Management, Kenya Methodist Universit*. 2(3), 1–9.

Tilahun, S. (2023). *1 / Page* (Issue June).

Tiruneh, M. B. (2019). Ethiopian Inclusive Education Strategy As To Responsive Learning

- Environmnet for Inclusive. *International Journal of Development in Social Sciences and Humanities*, 8(8), 125–164.
https://www.ijdssh.com/images/short_pdf/1576519769_08_MELESE_BIRHANU_TIRU_NEH.pdf
- Tonegawa, Y. (2019). Policy and Practice of " Inclusive Education ' ' in Addis Ababa , Ethiopia : An Analysis from the Perspectives of Teachers and Parents of Children with Disabilities. *Nilo-Ethiopian Studies*, 45(24), 31–45.
- Tosoni, S., & Zuccalà, E. (2020). The Research: Methods and Methodology. *Palgrave Studies in the History of Subcultures and Popular Music*, 7(3), 13–40.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-39811-8_2
- Trang Thu, D. N., Thi Thu Thuy, L., Blackburn, C., & Puttick, M.-R. (2022). Towards an ecological model of inclusive practice for children with special educational needs in Vietnam: perceptions of primary school teachers. *Practice*, 4(3), 239–260.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/25783858.2022.2147017>
- Triviño-amigo, N., Barrios-fernandez, S., Mañanas-iglesias, C., Carlos-vivas, J., Adsuar, J. C., Acevedo-duque, Á., & Rojo-ramos, J. (2022). Differences among Male and Female Spanish Teachers on Their Self-Perceived Preparation for Inclusive Education. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(6).
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063647>
- Triviño-Amigo, N., Barrios-Fernandez, S., Mañanas-Iglesias, C., Carlos-Vivas, J., Mendoza-Muñoz, M., Adsuar, J. C., Acevedo-Duque, Á., & Rojo-Ramos, J. (2022). Spanish Teachers' Perceptions of Their Preparation for Inclusive Education: The Relationship between Age and Years of Teaching Experience. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(9). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19095750>
- Tshifura. (2012). *MANAGING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF* by.
- Turner, S. F., Cardinal, L. B., & Burton, R. M. (2017). Research Design for Mixed Methods: A Triangulation-based Framework and Roadmap. *Organizational Research Methods*, 20(2), 243–267. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428115610808>
- Turyahikayo, E. (2014). Resolving the qualitative-quantitative debate in healthcare research. *Medical Practice and Reviews*, 5(1), 6–15. <https://doi.org/10.5897/mpr.2013.0107>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2000). *A guide to the Individualized Education Program*.
- Uchem, R. N., Ngwa, E. S., & Asogwa, U. D. (2014). *Inclusive Education and Sustainable Peace in Africa*. 19(2009), 48–54.
- Uka, E. (2024). Exploring differences in Primary School Teachers ' Attitudes Towards Inclusive Education in Kosovo Exploring differences in Primary School Teachers ' Attitudes Towards Inclusive Education in Kosovo ABSTRACT. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 00(00), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08856257.2024.2334537>
- UN. (2009). Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Korean). In *Asia-Pacific Journal on Human Rights and the Law* (Vol. 10, Issue 1).

<https://doi.org/10.1163/138819009x12589762582745>

UNCRPD. (2006). 10 Years of Convention on the Rights of Persons With Disabilities. In *Netherlands Quarterly of Human Rights* (Vol. 35, Issue 3).
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0924051917722294>

UNESCO. (2005). Inclusion UNESCO. In *Unesco*.

UNESCO. (2008). *rOgramMEs in 2008 | aDULt EDUCatiOn | l EraCY | liFElOng | lEarning | POLiCY aDVOC Y , CaPaCitY-BUilDing and nEtWOrKing | PrO raMMES in 2008 | aDULt EDUCatiOn | litEraC liFElOng | lEarning | POLiCY aDVOCaCY , CaP itY-BUilDing and nEtWOrKing | PrOgramME n.*

UNESCO. (2015a). Guidelines for education sector plan preparation. In *International Institute for Educational Plannin*. https://www.iiep.unesco.org/sites/default/files/iiep-unesco_review.pdf

UNESCO. (2015b). Teaching Children with Disabilities in Inclusive Settings. In *Inclusive Learning-Friendly Environments*. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000182975>

UNICEF. (2003). the State of the World ' S Children 2003. In *Childrens fund*.

UNICEF. (2013). Unicef Anual Report 2013. In *Unicef*.
https://www.unicef.org/publications/index_73682.html

UNICEF. (2015). *Global Out-of-School Children Initiative*. www.unicef.org/education/

UNICEF. (2023). *Global report on children with developmental disabilities*.
<https://www.unicef.org/media/145016/file/Global-report-on-children-with-developmental-disabilities-2023.pdf>

UNISCO. (2005). The UNESCO convention on the protection and promotion of the diversity of cultural expressions. In *The UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-25995-1>

UNISCO. (2010). *Données mondiales de l'éducation. VII éd, Lomé, Togo*.

UNISCO. (2020). *Policy Paper 43* (Issue October).

UNISCO, W. B. U. (2018). *BACKGROUND*.

United Nations. (2014). *The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities: Training Guide* (Issue 19).

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Division for Social Policy and Development. (2013). *Promoting Empowerment of People in achieving poverty eradication , social integration and full employment integration and full employment and decent work for all*.

Uromi, S. M., & Iboku Mazagwa, M. (2014). Challenges Facing People with Disabilities and Possible Solutions in Tanzania. *Journal of Educational Policy and Entrepreneurial Research*, 1(2), 158–165. <http://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEPER/index>

- Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H., & Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 6(5). <https://doi.org/10.5430/jnep.v6n5p100>
- Van Der Plas, A., De Jonge, S., De Vos, R. J., Van Der Heide, H. J. L., Verhaar, J. A. N., Weir, A., & Tol, J. L. (2012). A 5-year follow-up study of Alfredson's heel-drop exercise programme in chronic midportion Achilles tendinopathy. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 46(3), 214–218. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports-2011-090035>
- van der Velden, N. C. A., van Laarhoven, H. W. M., Burgers, S. A., Hendriks, L. E. L., de Vos, F. Y. F. L., Dingemans, A. M. C., Jansen, J., van Haarst, J. M. W., Dits, J., Smets, E. M., & Henselmans, I. (2022). Characteristics of patients with advanced cancer preferring not to know prognosis: a multicenter survey study. *BMC Cancer*, 22(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12885-022-09911-8>
- Van der Westhuizen, S. J., Toit, D. du, & van der Merwe, N. (2023). The effect of an in-service PE teacher training programme on the fitness levels of learners. *South African Journal of Education*, 43(2), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.15700/saje.v43n2a2165>
- Van Lancker, W., & Parolin, Z. (2020). COVID-19, school closures, and child poverty: a social crisis in the making. *The Lancet Public Health*, 5(5), e243–e244. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(20\)30084-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(20)30084-0)
- Version, D., & Boer, D. (2015). *Inclusive education in developing countries* Srivastava , Meenakshi ; de Boer , Anke ; Pijl , Sip-Jan *Inclusive education in developing countries : a closer look at its implementation in the last 10 years*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013.847061>
- Viennet, R., & Pont, B. (2017). (Viennet and Pont, 2017). *OECD Education Working Papers*, 162(December), 63. www.oecd.org/edu/workingpapers
- Vogelzang, J., Stoffelen, A., Verhoef, A., & Figa-Saldaña, J. (2011). On the quality of high-resolution scatterometer winds. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 116(10), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010JC006640>
- Vogl, S., Schmidt, E. M., & Zartler, U. (2019). Triangulating perspectives: ontology and epistemology in the analysis of qualitative multiple perspective interviews. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 22(6), 611–624. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2019.1630901>
- VRĂȘMAȘ, T. (2018). Categorical Curriculum or Individual Educational Plan for Pupils With Disabilities? *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Brasov. Series VII: Social Sciences. Law*, 11(2), 45–58. <https://proxy.library.kent.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=135254068&site=ehost-live>
- Vyas, D. P. (2021). *Diversity and Inclusive Education*. 1(1), 28–31.
- Walker, C. (2021). *No Title*.
- Wals, A. E. J. (2014). Sustainability in higher education in the context of the un DESD: A

- review of learning and institutionalization processes. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 62(May), 8–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2013.06.007>
- Walton, E. (2017). Inclusive Education in African Contexts. *Inclusive Education in African Contexts*, April, 85–100. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-803-7>
- Wangio, M. A. (2014a). *Mwaimba Alfred Wangio A Project Report Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Education in Curriculum Studies University of Nairobi.*
- Wangio, M. A. (2014b). *Mwaimba Alfred Wangio A Project Report Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Education in Curriculum Studies University of Nairobi.*
- Wanjiru, N. J. (2020). *Teachers' knowledge on the Implementation of Inclusive Education in Early Childhood Centres in Mwea East Sub- County, Kirinyaga County, KENYA.* July, 1–23.
- Watkinson, A. (2013). Professional Values and Practice. In *Professional Values and Practice*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203822517>
- Webb-Williams, J. L. (2021). Teachers' Use of Within-Class Ability Groups in the Primary Classroom: A Mixed Methods Study of Social Comparison. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12(December), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.728104>
- Wehbi, S. (2006). The challenges of inclusive education in Lebanon. *Disability and Society*, 21(4), 331–343. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09687590600679980>
- WHO. (2013). *Transforming and scaling up health professionals' education and training.*
- Wicks, D. (2017). The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers (3rd edition). In *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal* (Vol. 12, Issue 2). <https://doi.org/10.1108/qrom-08-2016-1408>
- Williams, T. T., & Sánchez, B. (2013). Identifying and Decreasing Barriers to Parent Involvement for Inner-City Parents. *Youth and Society*, 45(1), 54–74. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X11409066>
- Winter, E., & O'Raw, P. (2010). Literature review on the principles and practices relating to inclusive education for children with special needs education. *PLoS Currents*, 1(3), 9–16.
- Winthrop, R. (2022). *Improving access to quality public education in Africa*. Brookings Institution. <https://policycommons.net/artifacts/4142112/improving-access-to-quality-public-education-in-africa/>
- Wondim, M. G., Asrat Getahun, D., & Golga, D. N. (2021). Parental involvement in the education of their children with disabilities in primary schools of Bahir Dar, Ethiopia: Do education, income and employment status matter? *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 21(2), 86–97. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-3802.12502>
- Woodcock, S., Hemmings, B., Kay, R., & Woodcock, S. (2012). *Does Study of an Inclusive Education Subject Influence Pre-Service teachers' Concerns and Self- Efficacy about*

Inclusion ? 37(6).

- Woodcock, S., Sharma, U., Subban, P., & Hitches, E. (2022). Teacher self-efficacy and inclusive education practices: Rethinking teachers' engagement with inclusive practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 117*(October), 103802. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2022.103802>
- World Education Forum. (2000). World Education Forum Kofi Annan. In *Review of 3D printing and potential red meat applications* (Vol. 2019, Issue 23 February 2021).
- Yorke, L., Hailu, B. H., & Tefera, T. (2022). *October 2022 The Pathway to Inclusive Education in Ethiopia : Perspectives of System- and School-Level Stakeholders. October.*
- Zambwa, J., State, A., & Model, I. (2022). *ISSN : 2900 - 2275 International Journal of Educational Research. 10(2), 17–28.*
- Zaveri, A., Rula, A., Maurino, A., Pietrobon, R., Lehmann, J., & Auer, S. (2016). Quality assessment for Linked Data: A Survey. *Semantic Web, 7(1), 63–93.* <https://doi.org/10.3233/SW-150175>
- Zegeye, T. G. (2022). Perception of Readiness for Implementing Inclusive Education among Primary School Subject Teachers: Implications for Teacher Education in Ethiopia. *International Journal of Special Education, 37(2), 82–91.* <https://doi.org/10.52291/ijse.2022.37.42>
- Zelina, M. (2020). Interviews with Teachers about Inclusive Education. *Acta Educationis Generalis, 10(2), 95–111.* <https://doi.org/10.2478/atd-2020-0012>
- Zwicky, C. (2018). Culturally responsive teaching: theory, research, and practice. *Choice Reviews Online, 48(05), 48-2812-48–2812.* <https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.48-2812>

Appendixes

Appendix A: Cover Letter for the Students' Questionnaire

University of South Africa
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education

Title: Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice: in the Awi Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia

Dear respondent,

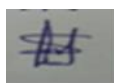
My name is Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress from Injibara University College Education and Behavioural science in the department of Special Needs and Inclusive Education. This questionnaire form is part of my doctoral research entitled “Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice : in the Awi Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia” for a PhD degree at the University of South Africa. This study aims to assess secondary school inclusive education practice about knowledge, attitudes and policy implementation of inclusive education. Therefore, you have been selected by random sampling techniques from a population; I warmly invite you to participate in this survey.

This study aims to assess secondary school inclusive education implementation practice s in Awi Administrative Zone. You are requested to complete this survey questionnaire as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experiences. No foreseeable risks are associated with the completion of the questionnaire, which is only for research purposes. The questionnaire will take approximately 30 min to complete.

Do not indicate your name or identity number, and your anonymity will be ensured; however, an indication of your age, gender, residence, etc. will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only and will be kept confidential. Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary, and you have the right to omit any question if so desired, or to withdraw from answering this survey without penalty at any stage. After the completion of the study, an electronic summary of the findings of the research will be made available to you via your best options or other addresses.

Permission to undertake this survey was granted by the Awi Zone Education Office and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. If you have any research-related inquiries, please contact me directly. My contact details are +2519 3654 76 83 or e-mail: 17217288@mylife.unisa.ac.za. The receipt of the questionnaire implies that you have agreed to participate in this research. Please return the completed questionnaire to me prior to the time specified on the questionnaire.

Thank you so much.



Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress

APPENDIX B: Questionnaires to be filled out by Students

University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Questionnaires to be filled out by Students

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the status of “Secondary school Inclusive Education implementation practice in selected high schools of Awi administrative Zone”. Therefore, the information you provide is very important to the success of the study, so we ask you to cooperate with us by responding appropriately to the questions presented.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Part I: Background Information of the Participant

Indicate your answer to the questions below by placing a (✓) in the box and writing in the underlined space.

1. Name of the school: _____
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Age _____
4. Grade level: _____
5. Number of students with special needs (handicapped) who learn with you: _____

Part II: Likert Scale Questions

Express your opinion by choosing your level of agreement with the sentences presented in the table below and writing a ‘✓’ symbol on your choice.

No	Detailed questions	I strongly agree	I agree	I strongly dis-agree	I dis-agree
A. Inclusive Education Knowledge and Culture System in the school					
1.	At the school, all students feel accepted by the school community				
2.	Students help each other				
3.	Teachers and students are respected				
4	There is a joint coordination between the teachers and the parents				
5	Students, principals, parents and government bodies share the philosophy of inclusive education				
6	The school is working to avoid any kind of discrimination (for students with special needs).				
B. Inclusive Education Attitude Application Questions					
1	We learn by considering all students (including those with special needs) when preparing the lesson				
2	The education given to us encourages the participation of all				

	students				
3	The education we learn enhances the understanding of diversity				
4	Students actively participate in their individual studies				
5	Students are learning by supporting each other				
6	Principals plan, teach, and review the school in coordination				
7	All students participate in activities outside the classroom				
8	It has been possible to use the professional knowledge and skills of teachers				
9	Teachers prepare school resources/resources				
10	The schools resources are distributed in a way that is suitable for the proper implementation of Inclusive education				
11	The schools resources are used to meet the needs of students with special needs and to enhance the schools ability to increase diversity.				
12	When students with special needs are assigned to a class, they are given appropriate support from the school				

C. Policy oriented questions

1	The school has made it easy for disabled students to come to school				
2	When I came to the school, I was supported to adapt easily				
3	Instead of forcing students with special needs out of school, teachers try to address their problems.				
4	The teachers work hard to make the school comfortable for students				
5	The buildings / rooms / in the campus are designed for students with disabilities				
6	With the implementation of Inclusive education, the government policy is being implemented properly				
7	They are being given training about inclusive education				

Part III: Open ended questions

Please write and elaborate your feelings regarding the question raised under

1. Is there a teacher or principal in your school who can read sign language or Braille?_____ If any, mention their quantity_____
2. Do you believe that inclusive education is being properly implemented in your school as planned? Yes_____ No_____

APPENDEX C: Cover Letter for Teachers' Questionnaire

University of South Africa

College of Education

Department of Inclusive Education

Title: Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice : in the Awi Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia

Dear respondent,

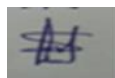
This questionnaire is part of my doctoral research entitled “Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice : in the Awi Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia” for the fulfilment of my PhD degree at the University of South Africa. This study aims to assess secondary school inclusive education practice about knowledge, attitudes and policy implementation of inclusive education. Therefore, you were selected using a purposive sampling strategy from a population. Thus, I would like to ask you to participate in this survey.

Dears, you are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experiences. No foreseeable risks are associated with the completion of the questionnaire, which is only for research purposes. The questionnaire will take approximately 30 min to complete.

You are not required to indicate your name or field of specialisation and your anonymity will be ensured; however, an indication of your age, gender, service year, etc. will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research only and will remain confidential. Your participation in this survey is voluntary, and you have the right to omit any question if desired, or to withdraw from answering this survey without penalty at any stage. After the completion of the study, an electronic summary of the findings will be made available to you via your email or other email address.

If you have any research-related inquiries, you can be addressed directly to me through my contact details: +251 9 36 547 683 or e-mail: 17217288@mylife.unisa.ac.za. The receipt of the questionnaire implies that you have agreed to participate in this research. Please return the completed questionnaire to me prior to the time specified on the questionnaire.

Thank you very much!.



Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress

APPENDIX D: Questionnaires to be filled by Teachers

**University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Questionnaires to be filled by Teachers**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to survey the status of the implementation of inclusive education in selected high schools in the Awi demonstrative zone. Therefore, the information you provide is very important to the success of the study, so we are asking you to cooperate with us by responding appropriately to the questions presented.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Part I: Demographic Information of Participants

Indicate your answer to the questions below by placing (√) in the box and writing in the underlined space.

1. Name of the school _____
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Education level: Certificate Diploma Bachelor degree Master degree
4. Work experience: _____
6. Number of students taught per class (on average): _____
7. The number of students with special needs among the students you teach: _____

Part II: Likert scale questions

Express your opinion by choosing your level of agreement with the sentences presented in the table below and writing a '√' symbol on your choice.

No	Detailed questions	I strongly agree	I agree	I strongly dis-agree	I dis-agree
A. Inclusive Education knowledge and Culture in school Questions					
1	In the school, all students feel that they are accepted by the school community				
2.	Students help each other every time and learn together				
3.	Teachers and students respect each other				

4	There is a co-operation with teachers and parents				
5	Directors and government bodies work together				
6	High estimates are given to all teachers				
7	Students, teachers, parents and government bodies share the philosophy of inclusive education				
8	The school is working to avoid any discrimination (for students with special needs)				
9	I would like to help students with disabilities in the classroom				
10	Teaching students with special needs with the regular ones is a good task				
11	I am ready to help students with special needs if I receive training in inclusive education				
12	Inclusive Education is a cost effective system of education				
13	Acknowledge the child education right to attend in their home environment school.				
14	Enables education structures and systems to meet the needs of diversity				
B. Inclusive Education Attitude and Application Questions					
1	When the course is prepared, it is intended to attract all students (even those with special needs)				
2	Our education encourages the participation of all students				
3	The lesson we learn is to highlight the understanding of diversity				
4	students actively participate in their private education				
5	students are being learning to support each other				
6	Teachers plan, teach, revise the content of the school				
7	All students participate in activities outside the classroom				
8	The use of professional knowledge and skills has been used				
9	Teachers develop school inputs / delivery tools				
10	The school resources have been distributed in a manner that is conducive to the proper implementation of inclusive education				
11	The school resources have been used to enhance the capacity to increase the diversity of the school, in order to meet the needs of students with special needs				
12	I am receiving appropriate support from the school when students with special needs are assigned to my room				

13	I appreciate the philosophy of Inclusive plan and strategies				
C. Policy-Practice based Questions					
1	The school facilitated the possibility of students with disabilities easily coming to school				
2	When I come to the school, I have been supported to adapt easily				
3	Teachers try to address their problems rather than letting students out of the school				
4	The teacher works hard to make the school comfortable for students				
5	Buildings in schools considering students with disabilities				
6	Government policy in the implementation of the Education act is going down to the ground and is being implemented correctly				
7	Teachers are being trained about inclusive education				
8	Teachers use class-wide rules and regulations to support classroom management.				
9	Teachers have experience of using Individualized Educational Program (IEP).				
10	My school has been disseminate Inclusive education policy effectively				

Part III: Open ended questions

Please write and elaborate your feelings regarding the question raised under

1. Is there a teacher or principal in your school who can read sign language or Braille? _____ If any, mention their quantity _____
2. Do you believe that inclusive education is being properly implemented in your school as planned?
Yes _____ no _____
3. If the answer to question no. 1 is yes, then how? Or if it is not being implemented, mention the problems that hinder the implementation of inclusive teaching in the way it is intended.

4. Describe the activities that should be done to teach inclusive better?

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX E: Interview Questions

University of South Africa (UNISA)

College of Education

Department of Inclusive Education

Format of Interview Guide Question for Teachers

1. Do you know the concepts of Inclusive Education?
2. What challenges do you have to implementing inclusive education?
3. Does the class rooms and school environment conducive for all learners?
4. Does the school have inclusive education implementation pillars?
5. Do you have Special Needs Education professionals in this school?
6. What are the biggest challenges to practice facing inclusive education in this school/zone?

APPENDIX F: Observation Check List

University of South Africa (UNISA)
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education

School _____ Grade _____	
Inclusive teaching strategies	Comment
Whole class teaching	
Access to teaching and resources planned, for visibility, lack of background noise, ease of handling	
Classroom clear of obstacles and seating planned	
All students clear about the structure and objectives of the lesson	
Teacher checks for understanding of vocabulary and instructions	
Strategies in place for pupils who need support to remember the task or instructions	
Questions pitched to challenge pupils at all level	
Questions used to ensure pupils are listening	
Time is given (thinking time, partner time etc.) to allow for response	
pupils given time and opportunity to help one another	
Buddying used for seating for paired, partner and group work	
Visual, auditory and tangible aids used	
Evidence of pupils who need it being given pre-tutoring or follow up support	
Group and Independent Work	
Transition from class to independent work clearly signaled and actively managed	
Tasks clearly explained or modeled, checking for understanding	
A variety of materials and resources available and accessible for all pupils	
A distraction free area has been set up for pupils who need it	
Pupils have been taught strategies to enable them to continue when they are stuck	
Tasks linked to earlier or later learning	
Tasks simplified or extended for pupils or groups of pupils	
Tasks made more open or closed according to pupils' needs	
Alternatives to pencil and paper tasks	
Help given to pupils who need support or resources to access text	
Variety of groupings so that pupils use one another's skills	

Appropriate behavior noticed, praised, rewarded	
Effective use of ICT as an access strategy	
assessment is used effectively during the lesson to progress learning	
Pupils are helped to stay on task	
Pupils can explain their work to others	

APPENDIX G: Permission Letter



ቁጥር 7/10/2015/2348/16/23
Ref.No AMLE/2-55/28/16/23
ቀን 7/10/2015
Date 14/6/2023

To: College of Education, Department of Inclusive Education
University of South Africa (UNISA)

Subject: Giving Letter of Consent

Mr M F Aseress (Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress) requested our office to get letter of consent from the participants in his research work. Awi zone education office on behalf of Hidase high school, chagni town; Mengesha Jenbere high school, Dangila town and Agew Midir high school, Injibara town give permission to participate in the study by explain his research thesis and show positive responses. The respondents will be teachers and students who are living in the three high schools. This study is very essential to pin point the inclusive education practices implementations in our Zone schools.

Therefore, we would like to inform you we give him consent that Mr M F Aseress ((Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress) to conduct his PhD thesis "in title Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice: in the Awi Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia"

"Best Regards"



[Signature]
Mengesha Mengesha
Dr. head

CC: //

- To Hidase high school, Chagni Town
- To Mengesha Jenbere high school, Dangila Town
- To Agew Midir high school, Injibara Town

APPENDIX H: Ethical Clearance Certificate



UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2024/02/14

Ref: **2024/02/14/17217288/28/AM**

Name: MF Aseress

Student No.:17217288

Dear MF Aseress

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2024/02/14 to 2029/02/14

Researcher(s): Name: MF Aseress
E-mail address: 17217288@mylife.unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +251 41226972

Supervisor(s): Name: Dr Siva Moodley
E-mail address: siva49moodley@gmail.com
Telephone: 0825781552

Title of research:

**Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice in the AWI
Administrative Zone, Amhara National State, Ethiopia**

Qualification: PhD Inclusive Education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2024/02/14 to 2029/02/14.

*The **medium risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2024/02/14 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.
2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.



University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2029/02/14**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2024/02/14/17217288/28/AM** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,



Prof AT Motlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za



Prof Mpine Makoe
EXECUTIVE DEAN
qakisme@unisa.ac.za



University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX I: Turnitin Report

The screenshot displays a Turnitin report interface. On the left, a document preview shows the title "SECONDARY SCHOOL INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION PRACTICE IN THE AWI ZONE, AMHARA, NATIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA" and author "Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress". The document is submitted for a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education (Inclusive Education) at the University of South Africa. The submission date is January, 2025. On the right, the Turnitin interface shows an overall similarity of 6%. Below this, a list of sources is provided, each with a similarity percentage of less than 1%.

Document Title: SECONDARY SCHOOL INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION PRACTICE IN THE AWI ZONE, AMHARA, NATIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA

Author: Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress

Submitted in Accordance with the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education (Inclusive Education) in the College of Education at the University of South Africa

Supervisors: Dr Siva Moodley

Submission Date: January, 2025

Overall Similarity: 6%

Rank	Source	Similarity
1	etd.aau.edu.et INTERNET	<1%
2	Negash, Kabsay Hailu. "The Inclusion of Vis... PUBLICATION	<1%
3	uir.unisa.ac.za INTERNET	<1%
4	Hadebe, Jabulile Princess. "Teachers' Perspe... PUBLICATION	<1%
5	Kebedeteshome, Ashchalew Teshome. "Effe... PUBLICATION	<1%
6	Alemu, Mengistu Yitayal. "Assessment of th... PUBLICATION	<1%

Page 1 of 270

APPENDIX J: Proof of Language Editing



Ref. No: Eng/543/0/17

Date: 26.08/2025

Letter of Professional Language Editor

To Whom it May Concern

I, the undersigned, Baymot Mekuriaw Wondim (Associate Professor), currently serving as an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language and Literature at Injibar University, have carried out the language editing for Mr. Mintesnot Fentahun Aseress on his Doctoral thesis titled:

"Secondary School Inclusive Education Implementation Practice in the Avi Zone, Amhara National Regional State, Ethiopia"

Accordingly, I hereby confirm that, upon his request, I provided language editing for the aforementioned thesis. Should you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me at Phone: +251 912 848 422 or Email: wondimbaymot@gmail.com.

I wish him every success in his future endeavours!

Kind Regards!

Baymot Mekuriaw Wondim (Associate Professor)

English Language Improvement Center Coordinator



☎ +251 967624049

☐ PoBox 40

☎ Fax: 056 227 0360

መልስ ለስተዳደር ሰጠዎታል የሆነ ደብዳቤ ቀጥሎ ለእኛ ቀን ይጠቀሱ

In replying please quote our Ref no. & date