



Analysis of Institutional Practices for Inclusive Education in Public Primary Schools in Nyeri County, Kenya

***John Wanyeki Munyi**

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-0015-7814>

Department of Psychology, Special Needs and Education Foundation, Karatina University, Kenya

E-mail: munyijohn17@gmail.com

Jared Motanya

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0000-9851-0794>

Department of Psychology, Special Needs and Education Foundation, Karatina University, Kenya

E-mail: jaredmotanya@gmail.com

Joyce Kinyua

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0002-6340-6940>

Department of Psychology, Special Needs and Education Foundation, Karatina University, Kenya

E-mail: kijojnjeri@gmail.com

***Corresponding Email:** munyijohn17@gmail.com

Copyright resides with the author(s) in terms of the Creative Commons Attribution CC BY-NC 4.0.
The users may copy, distribute, transmit and adapt the work, but must recognize the author(s) and the
East African Journal of Education and Social Sciences

Abstract

Inclusive education remains a global priority, yet its implementation in many developing countries continues to face significant challenges. This study examined institutional practices supporting inclusive education in public primary schools in Nyeri County, Kenya, with a focus on teacher preparedness, resource availability and implementation barriers. The study employed the descriptive survey design with a questionnaire as data source from 113 school stakeholders. Based on the findings, the study concludes that although a majority of teachers had received some form of training, a significant proportion had not undergone any formal preparation in inclusive education. Although teachers showed relative strength in the use of assistive devices and reported some level of training exposure, challenges remain in critical areas such as adapting lesson plans, identifying learners with special needs and collaborating effectively with colleagues. The study shows a need to strengthen teacher training in inclusive education. The Ministry of Education, Teacher Service Commission and teacher training institutions should therefore ensure that inclusive education is fully integrated into both pre-service and in-service training programs. Finally, school leadership should take a more active role in promoting inclusive practices by ensuring effective implementation of policies, encouraging collaboration among teachers and creating supportive school environments.

Keywords: Inclusive education; institutional practices; teacher preparedness; special needs education; Nyeri County.

How to cite: Munyi, J. W., Motanya, J. and Kinyua, J. (2026). Analysis of Institutional Practices for Inclusive Education in Public Primary Schools in Nyeri County, Kenya. East African Journal of Education and Social Sciences 7(3), 27-37. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.46606/eajess2026v07i03.0497>.

Introduction

Inclusive education has emerged as a central global priority, aimed at ensuring equitable access to quality education for all learners, regardless of their abilities or backgrounds (UNESCO, 2023). Since the

mid-20th century, international efforts have increasingly emphasized the need to eliminate discrimination in education systems and promote the inclusion of learners with disabilities (UNESCO, 2020). Early initiatives, such as the 1960 Convention against Discrimination in Education, underscored

the right of every individual to access education without prejudice (Paulsrud & Nilholm, 2023). These efforts laid the foundation for a broader global movement toward inclusive education, which recognizes diversity as a fundamental characteristic of learning environments.

The global momentum toward inclusive education was significantly advanced by the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, which reaffirmed education as a basic human right and highlighted the need to meet the learning needs of all children, including those with disabilities (UNESCO, 1990). This commitment was further strengthened by the Salamanca Statement of 1994, which called for schools to accommodate all learners regardless of physical, intellectual, social, emotional or linguistic differences (UNESCO, 1994). The Salamanca Statement emphasized that inclusive schools are the most effective means of combating discrimination, promoting social integration and achieving education for all. These global frameworks have influenced national education systems while encouraging governments to adopt inclusive policies and institutional reforms.

Despite international commitments to promote inclusive education, implementation remains uneven across many regions. In Central and Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia, segregated schooling for learners with special educational needs is still common despite inclusive policies (UNESCO, 2021). Likewise, many low- and lower-middle-income countries continue to face barriers, such as inadequate funding, insufficient teacher training, weak monitoring systems and limited support for vulnerable learners, with UNESCO reporting that nearly 40 % of these countries failed to provide targeted educational support during the COVID-19 pandemic (UNESCO, 2020). In sub-Saharan Africa, inclusive education is further constrained by shortages of trained teachers, inaccessible infrastructure and inadequate learning resources, while in Kenya, disparities in marginalized and rural regions continue to limit equitable access to quality inclusive education (Republic of Kenya & UNESCO, 2021).

Research indicates that while policies promoting inclusion exist, their effectiveness largely depends on the capacity of institutions and the preparedness of teachers to address diverse learning needs (Wambage & Muthee, 2023). Teachers play a critical role in translating policy into practice; however,

inadequate training, limited exposure to special needs pedagogy and insufficient instructional resources continue to hinder effective implementation (Mucherah et al., 2023). Consequently, the gap between policy and practice remains a significant challenge in many education systems.

In the African context, the implementation of inclusive education is further constrained by structural and socio-economic factors. Hornby and Kauffman et al. (2022) observed that inclusive education data across the region remains inconsistent, with many schools lacking the necessary infrastructure, assistive devices, and institutional support systems. Additionally, negative societal attitudes and cultural perceptions toward learners with disabilities often exacerbate exclusion. Similar challenges have been reported in countries such as Nigeria and Uganda, where inadequate funding, limited teacher training and insufficient policy enforcement hinder the realization of inclusive education (Onywany & Odongo, 2020). These challenges highlight the need for context-specific strategies that address both institutional and socio-cultural barriers.

Kenya has made notable progress in promoting inclusive education through the adoption of international frameworks and the development of supportive national policies. The country's commitment is reflected in legislative instruments, such as the Constitution of Kenya (2010), the Basic Education Act and the Special Needs Education Policy Framework (2010), which collectively emphasize equitable access to education and the integration of learners with special needs into mainstream schools (Ileri et al., 2020). Additionally, the Persons with Disabilities Act (amended in 2025) reinforces the right to non-discriminatory education and mandates the provision of accessible learning environments. These policies demonstrate Kenya's alignment with global inclusive education goals.

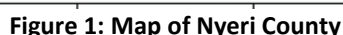
Historical education reforms in Kenya, including the Ngala Mwendwa Committee (1964), the Kamunge Report (1988), the Koech Report (1999) and the Kochung Report (2003), have also contributed to shaping inclusive education by advocating for equity, flexible curricula and teacher preparedness (Adero, 2024). These reforms laid the groundwork for integrating learners with disabilities into regular schools and highlighted the importance of institutional adjustments in supporting inclusion.

In Nyeri County, although the county has achieved relatively high enrolment and retention rates in primary education, there is limited empirical

This study, therefore, sought to examine institutional practices for inclusive education in public primary schools in Nyeri County, Kenya. By providing context-specific evidence, the study contributes to bridging the gap between policy and practice and offers insights for improving inclusive education in Kenya and similar contexts.

This section presents the research methodology that guided the study. Specifically, the section describes the design, population and sampling techniques, data collection procedures, validity, reliability, data analysis and ethical considerations.

This study employed the descriptive survey design, which enabled the measurement of variables using a structured a questionnaire in a short, cost-effective way.



As seen in figure 1, the study was conducted in Nyeri County, Central Kenya, which has a well-

developed education system with high enrolment and retention rates in public primary schools (Ministry of Education, Kenya, 2022). However,

challenges remain in the effective implementation of inclusive education, making the county appropriate for this study (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2019).

Population and Sampling

The study targeted public primary schools in Nyeri County that offer inclusive education. The respondents in the study were head teachers, teachers and special needs Education (SNE) teachers. According to the Ministry of Education (2025) records, the county had 28 public primary schools offering inclusive education. The total population of head teachers, teachers and SNE

teachers in these schools was 254, comprising 28 head teachers, 198 teachers and 28 SNE teachers. Since the population of schools offering inclusive education in the county was small ($n=28$), the researcher included all the schools in the study. Slovin's formula was then used to calculate a sample size of the respondents. Therefore, the study had a sample of 94 respondents drawn from all 28 public primary schools. Stratified random sampling was then used to allocate the sample size across the respondent groups (head teachers, teachers, and SNE teachers) (Table 1). Stratified random sampling ensured that the respondents were representative.

Table 1: Sample Size Distribution

Group	Population	Sample
Head teachers	28	28
Teachers	198	57
SNE teachers	28	28
Total	254	113

Simple random sampling was used to recruit individual respondents. This was done by obtaining a complete list of staff for each school and then selecting the required sample size at random using a random number generator. This ensured that the sample size was random, enhancing the representativeness and generalizability of the results.

Data Collection Procedures

This study employed a questionnaire as the primary data collection instrument. The questionnaire was customized and administered to teachers to collect data on their training, capacity, and institutional practices supporting inclusive education.

Validity and Reliability

The questionnaire was piloted in two public primary schools in Murang'a County that had characteristics similar to those of the target population to assess its suitability. While content validity was established through expert review, face validity was ensured based on feedback from pilot respondents regarding the clarity and relevance of the questionnaire items. Reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha, with a coefficient of 0.70 or higher considered acceptable. A coefficient of 0.83 was obtained, indicating acceptable reliability.

Data Analysis

Data generated through the closed-ended questionnaire was coded and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive

statistics, including frequencies, percentages and means, were used to summarize institutional practices, levels of teacher preparedness and challenges associated with the implementation of inclusive education. These statistics provided a clear overview of the general trends and patterns in the data.

Inferential statistical analysis was conducted using the chi-square test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with Minitab Version 17.0. The chi-square test was used to examine associations between categorical variables while ANOVA was employed to determine whether statistically significant differences existed across relevant groups. These analyses facilitated an examination of the relationships and differences associated with institutional practices, teacher preparedness, and the implementation of inclusive education.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical standards were carefully followed throughout the study. All participants gave informed consent before taking part and their involvement was voluntary. Confidentiality was upheld by anonymizing all responses and securely handling the collected data to protect participants' identities. Prior to the study, approval and necessary permissions were obtained from the Ministry of Education, the county government of Nyeri and the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (Ref 246259).

Results and Discussion

This section presents findings of the study, guided by research questions.

Response Rate

The study obtained 90 completed questionnaires, representing a response rate of 95.7%. According to Mugambi et al. (2022), a response rate above 70% is considered adequate for research purposes. Therefore, the response rate achieved in this study was considered sufficient for data analysis. The high response rate also indicates strong participation

among the respondents, enhancing the representativeness of the findings regarding teachers' and school leaders' perceptions of inclusive education.

Demographics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents included gender, age, professional qualifications, and teaching experience, which may influence their attitudes toward and implementation of inclusive education. A summary of these characteristics is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	38	42.2
Female	52	57.8
Total	90	100
Age (years)		
Below 25	6	7
25-34	24	27
35-44	32	36
45-54	20	22
Above 55	8	8
Total	90	100
Personal Qualification		
P1 Certificate	28	31
Diploma	30	33
Bachelor's Degree	26	29
Master's Degree	6	7
Total	90	100
Teaching Experience (years)		
Less than 5	12	13
5-10	28	31
11-15	22	24
16-20	18	20
Above 20	10	11
Total	90	100

The findings indicate that female teachers constituted the majority (57.8%) of the respondents while male teachers accounted for 42.2%. This distribution is consistent with trends reported in some Kenyan education studies, where female teachers have been found to outnumber their male counterparts (Karanja & Chege, 2021).

Regarding age, the largest proportion of respondents (36%) were aged 35–44 years, suggesting that a substantial number were likely to have accumulated considerable teaching experience. This age distribution is consistent with national teacher demographic patterns reported by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS, 2023). Teachers within this age group may also have

had greater exposure to professional development opportunities, potentially enhancing their preparedness to implement inclusive education practices (Choge, 2025).

In addition to age, the respondents varied in their professional qualifications. As shown in Table 2, 31% held a P1 certificate, 33% held a diploma while 29% possessed a bachelor's degree. These findings indicate that the respondents represented diverse levels of professional training, which may have implications for their preparedness to implement inclusive education practices.

Alongside their professional qualifications, the respondents generally had substantial teaching experience. As shown in Table 2, 86% had more

than five years of teaching experience, indicating considerable familiarity with classroom teaching environments. According to Perera (2021), teaching experience may enhance teachers' confidence in pedagogy and classroom management. However, teaching experience alone may not adequately prepare teachers for inclusive education without specific training in inclusive practices (Choge, 2025).

Research Question 1: To what extent have teachers been trained in inclusive education?

This section presents findings on teachers' training in inclusive education, which is an important factor in their preparedness, confidence, and ability to

effectively support learners with diverse educational needs.

Table 3 shows that 62% of the respondents had received training in inclusive education while 38% had not received any training. This suggests that, although many teachers had some exposure to inclusive education, a considerable proportion lacked formal preparation, which may limit their capacity to implement inclusive practices effectively. This finding by Forlin (2010) reported that appropriate training in inclusive education can enhance teachers' confidence and capacity to address the diverse needs of learners.

Table 3: Teacher Training in Inclusive Education

Training	Frequency	Percent
Yes	56	62
No	34	38

Table 4: Institutional Practices

Statement	Mean	Interpretation
Availability of learning resources	3.8	High
School policies supporting inclusion	3.1	Moderate
Adapted classrooms	3.9	High
Leadership support	2.9	Moderate
Collaboration among teachers	2.7	Moderate
Overall mean	3.28	Moderate

Research Question 2: What institutional practices are in place to support the implementation of inclusive education?

The study examined specific institutional practices supporting the implementation of inclusive education, particularly the availability of relevant learning resources and the extent of teacher collaboration. To facilitate the interpretation of mean scores, the study used an equal-interval interpretation scheme. The interval width was determined by subtracting the minimum Likert-scale value from the maximum value and dividing the resulting range by the five interpretive categories: $(5 - 1) \div 5 = 0.80$. Accordingly, mean scores were interpreted as follows: 1.00–1.80 (Very Low), 1.81–2.60 (Low), 2.61–3.40 (Moderate), 3.41–4.20 (High), and 4.21–5.00 (Very High). The results are presented in Table 4.

The findings in Table 4 indicate that institutional practices supporting the implementation of inclusive education were evident to a moderate extent, as reflected by an overall mean score of 3.28. This suggests that although schools had made some efforts to promote inclusive education, the existing institutional practices were not sufficiently

developed to provide comprehensive support for its effective implementation.

The availability of learning resources recorded a mean score of 3.8, indicating a high level of implementation while adapted classrooms recorded a slightly higher mean score of 3.9, also falling within the high category. These findings suggest that schools had made considerable efforts to provide appropriate learning resources and adapt classroom environments to accommodate learners with diverse educational needs.

However, school policies supporting inclusion recorded a mean score of 3.1, indicating moderate implementation and suggesting that although policies existed, their practical implementation was limited. Similarly, leadership support ($M = 2.9$) and collaboration among teachers ($M = 2.7$) were both moderately implemented, indicating that institutional and professional support systems for inclusive education were present but not sufficiently strengthened. Limited teacher collaboration and moderate administrative support may constrain the effective implementation of inclusive education in schools. These findings are consistent with UNESCO (2018), which reported that many developing

countries continue to experience challenges in translating inclusive education policies into effective practice. Similarly, Mugambi et al. (2022) observed that although inclusive education was recognized at the policy level in Kenyan schools, its translation into everyday classroom practices remained limited. Together, these findings highlight a persistent gap between policy intentions and the practical implementation of inclusive education at the school level.

Research question 3: What is the level of teacher preparedness to implement inclusive education in Kenya?

Teacher preparedness to implement inclusive education was assessed using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very Low) to 5 (Very High). The interval width was determined by subtracting the

minimum Likert-scale value from the maximum value and dividing the resulting range by the five interpretive categories: $(5 - 1) \div 5 = 0.80$. Accordingly, mean scores were interpreted as follows: 1.00–1.80 (Very Low), 1.81–2.60 (Low), 2.61–3.40 (Moderate), 3.41–4.20 (High), and 4.21–5.00 (Very High). The results are presented in Table 4.

The assessment focused on key dimensions of preparedness, including adequacy of training in inclusive education, ability to adapt lesson plans to accommodate learners with diverse needs, competence in identifying learners with special needs, ability to use assistive devices, and collaboration among teachers in supporting inclusive practices. The findings are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Teacher Preparedness

Statement	Mean	Interpretation
Adequate training	3.6	High
Ability to adapt to lesson plans	3.2	Moderate
Identification of special needs	3.4	Moderate
Use of assistive devices	3.9	High
Collaboration with colleagues	2.8	Moderate
Overall mean score	3.38	Moderate

The findings in Table 5 indicate that teachers demonstrated a moderate level of overall preparedness to implement inclusive education as proven by the overall mean score of 3.38. However, variations existed across specific areas of preparedness. Adequate training recorded a mean score of 3.6, indicating a high level of preparedness and suggesting that teachers had received sufficient training in inclusive education. Similarly, the use of assistive devices had a mean score of 3.9, which falls within the high category, implying that teachers reported a relatively strong level of utilization of assistive technologies in instructional practices. Teachers' ability to adapt lesson plans for learners with diverse needs recorded a mean score of 3.2, while identification of learners with special needs had a mean score of 3.4. Both were interpreted as moderate, indicating that although teachers possessed some competencies in inclusive instructional practices, additional professional development may still be necessary. Collaboration with colleagues recorded a mean score of 2.8, also indicating a moderate level of preparedness. This suggests that teamwork and professional collaboration among teachers in support of inclusive education were present but insufficiently

strengthened. Overall, the findings suggest that although teachers are reasonably prepared to implement inclusive education, gaps remain in collaborative practices and specialized instructional competencies. These findings align with Rasugu et al. (2022), who observed that assistive technology and inclusive practices in Kenyan classrooms are often constrained by inadequate training and limited resources. The findings also support Carew et al. (2019), who established that teachers frequently feel insufficiently prepared for specialized inclusive practices without continuous professional development.

Research Question 4: What challenges hinder the effective implementation of inclusive education in schools?

The study examined key challenges affecting the implementation of inclusive education, including large class sizes, inadequate teaching resources, limited teacher training, inadequate infrastructure, and negative attitudes among stakeholders. Challenges were assessed using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very Low) to 5 (Very High). The interval width was determined by subtracting the minimum Likert-scale value from the maximum

value and dividing the resulting range by the five interpretive categories: $(5 - 1) \div 5 = 0.80$. Accordingly, mean scores were interpreted as follows: 1.00–1.80 (Very Low), 1.81–2.60 (Low),

2.61–3.40 (Moderate), 3.41–4.20 (High), and 4.21–5.00 (Very High). The findings are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Challenges Affect the Implementation of Inclusive Education

Challenge	Mean	Interpretation
Lack of teaching resources	4.1	High
Large class sizes	4.3	High
Limited teacher training	3.9	High
Inadequate infrastructure	4.0	High
Negative attitudes	3.2	Moderate

Table 7: Effect of Teacher Training and Inclusive Education

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.32	1	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	11.61	1	0.016
Linear-by-Linear Association	.199	1	.656
N of Valid Cases	90		

The findings presented in Table 6 indicate that lack of teaching resources ($M = 4.1$) and large class sizes ($M = 4.3$) were the most significant challenges facing the implementation of inclusive education. Inadequate infrastructure also emerged as a major challenge, with a mean score of 4.0 while limited teacher training recorded the mean score of 3.9. Negative attitudes among stakeholders were moderately experienced, with a mean score of 3.2. These findings suggest that both structural and professional barriers continue to hinder the effective implementation of inclusive education in schools under investigation. The findings are consistent with Salim (2012), who reported that overcrowded classrooms in Nairobi limited teachers' ability to address diverse learner needs. Similarly, UNESCO (2018) noted that many schools in Sub-Saharan Africa remain physically inaccessible to learners with disabilities. On the other hand, Luvanga et al. (2020) reported that inadequate teacher training and negative attitudes continue to undermine inclusive education practices.

Research Question 5: Is there a significant difference in confidence levels between trained and untrained teachers in implementing inclusive education for learners with disabilities?

A chi-square test of independence was conducted to determine whether there was a significant association between teachers' training in inclusive education and their confidence in implementing inclusive education. The test was appropriate

because both variables were categorical. The results are presented in Table 7.

The Pearson chi-square test revealed a statistically significant association between training in inclusive education and teachers' confidence in implementing inclusive education, $\chi^2(1, N = 90) = 11.32, p = .001$. Since the p-value was less than the significance level of .05, the null hypothesis of no association was rejected. This finding indicates that teachers' training in inclusive education was significantly associated with their level of confidence in implementing inclusive education practices. The findings are consistent with those by Luvanga et al. (2020) that teacher training positively influences confidence and effectiveness in inclusive classroom practices.

Research question 6: Does teacher preparedness in implementing inclusive education differ significantly based on years of teaching experience?

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether teacher preparedness for implementing inclusive education differed significantly across years of teaching experience. The analysis compared mean preparedness scores across five experience categories: less than 5 years, 5–10 years, 11–15 years, 16–20 years, and above 20 years. The results are presented in the Minitab-style ANOVA summary in table 8 and 9. Table 8 indicates that the level of teacher preparedness increases with teaching experience.

Table 8: Preparedness by Experience

Experience	Mean preparedness
Less than 5 years	3.02
5-10 years	3.34
11-15 years	3.66
16-20 years	3.71
Above 20 years	3.89

Table 9: Effect of Teacher Preparedness and Inclusive Education

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-value	P-value
Between Groups	3	18.742	6.247	4.56	0.005
Within Groups	86	117.580	1.368		
Total	89	136.322			

The results in table 9 indicate a statistically significant difference in teacher preparedness across experience levels, as shown by an F-value of 4.56 and a p-value of 0.005, which is less than the 0.05 significance level. This suggests that years of teaching experience significantly influence teachers' preparedness to implement inclusive education. In particular, the findings indicate that teachers with more years of experience tend to report higher levels of preparedness in implementing inclusive education practices. This pattern aligns with the view that prolonged exposure to classroom environments enhances pedagogical confidence and competence in inclusive settings. Similar conclusions have been reported in studies by Perera (2021) and Choge (2025), which also found that teaching experience is positively associated with preparedness for inclusive education.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The study concludes that although a majority of teachers had received some form of training, a significant proportion had not undergone any formal preparation in inclusive education. This indicates that teacher training coverage is still inconsistent. While there are relatively good provision of learning resources and some level of classroom adaptation, key institutional factors, such as leadership support, teacher collaboration and effective implementation of inclusive policies remain weak. This suggests that inclusive education practices are not yet fully embedded within school systems and largely depend on limited institutional efforts.

The study concludes that schools generally demonstrated a moderate level of preparedness to implement inclusive education. Although teachers showed relative strength in the use of assistive devices and reported some level of training

exposure, challenges remain in critical areas such as adapting lesson plans, identifying learners with special needs and collaborating effectively with colleagues. The study also concludes that structural and professional barriers constrain the inclusive education implementation. The most prominent challenges include large class sizes, inadequate teaching and learning resources, insufficient infrastructure and limited teacher training.

The study suggests that there is a need to strengthen teacher training in inclusive education. The Ministry of Education, Teacher Service Commission and teacher training institutions should therefore ensure that inclusive education is fully integrated into both pre-service and in-service training programs. School leadership should take a more active role in promoting inclusive practices by ensuring effective implementation of policies, encouraging collaboration among teachers and creating supportive school environments. It is also recommended that the government and relevant stakeholders should work towards reducing class sizes, improving school infrastructure and ensuring adequate provision of teaching and learning resources.

References

- Adero, N. (2024). Historical development of inclusive education in Kenya and its implications for policy and practice. Nairobi: Educational Research Press.
- Carew, M. T., Deluca, M., Groce, N. and Kett, M. (2019). The impact of an inclusive education intervention on teacher preparedness in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 23(7–8), 780–797.

- Choge, J. R. (2025). Teacher preparedness and inclusive education practices in Kenyan primary schools. Kenyatta University.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M. E. and Gardner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development. Learning Policy Institute.
- Florian, L. and Black-Hawkins, K. (2011). Exploring inclusive pedagogy. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 41(4), 463–477.
- Forlin, C. (2010). Teacher education for inclusion: Changing paradigms and innovative approaches. Routledge.
- Hornby, G. and Kauffman, J. M. (2022). Inclusive education and its challenges: Perspectives from Sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 26 (5), 457–472.
- Ireri, A. M., Wanjohi, M. W. and Ndirangu, M. (2020). Implementation of inclusive education in Kenya: Policy frameworks and challenges. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 11(18), 45–56.
- Karanja, P. and Chege, F. (2021). Gender disparities in Kenya's teaching profession. *African Journal of Education Studies*, 8(2), 45–59.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS). (2019). Kenya population and housing census 2019: Volume IV—Distribution of population by socio-economic characteristics. Nairobi: KNBS.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS). (2023). Economic survey 2023. Government Printer.
- Kiarie, M. and Ngugi, R. (2020). Challenges facing implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Nyeri County, Kenya. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 8(4), 45–60.
- Luvanga, M. E., Wanyama, M. N. and Nyaga, V. K. (2020). Influence of teacher training on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 11(18), 34–42.
- Ministry of Education, Kenya (2022). Basic education statistical booklet. Nairobi: Government of Kenya.
- Ministry of Education. (2025). Education sector report: For the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework budget cycle. The National Treasury.
- Moreso, L., Kabwos, M. and Bitok, J. (2022). Infrastructure readiness and inclusive education in Kenyan preschools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 89, 102545.
- Mucherah, W., Finch, H. and White, T. (2023). Teacher preparedness and inclusive education practices in developing countries. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 121, 103938.
- Mugambi, M. M., Mutua, F. and Karanja, D. (2022). Institutional factors influencing implementation of inclusive education in Kenyan schools. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 10(3), 115–130.
- Mugo, J. K. (2019). Factors influencing implementation of special needs education in primary schools in Kenya: A case of Nyeri County. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 10(12), 112–120.
- Onywany, B. O. and Odongo, G. (2020). Challenges affecting implementation of inclusive education in Uganda. *African Educational Research Journal*, 8(3), 456–463.
- Paulsrud, D. and Nilholm, C. (2023). The evolution of inclusive education: A global perspective. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 38(2), 145–160.
- Perera, B. (2021). Teacher experience and inclusive education: A global perspective. *Journal of Inclusive Education Research*, 5(2), 90–105.
- Rasugu, S., Ndirangu, M. and Oduor, A. (2022). Use of assistive technology in inclusive classrooms in Kenya. *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 7(1), 22–37.
- Republic of Kenya and UNESCO. (2021). Draft report on the right to education in Kenya. UNESCO. Retrieved from UNESCO Kenya Report.
- Salim, A. (2012). Challenges facing implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Nairobi County. University of Nairobi.
- UNESCO (2017). A guide for ensuring inclusion and equity in education. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- UNESCO (2018). A guide for ensuring inclusion and equity in education. UNESCO Publishing.
- UNESCO (2021). Education inequalities persist in Europe and Central Asia. UNESCO. Retrieved from UNESCO Europe and Central Asia Report.
- UNESCO (2020). Global education monitoring report: Inclusion and education—All means all. UNESCO Publishing.

UNESCO (2023). Global Education Monitoring Report 2023: Technology in education – A tool on whose terms? Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (1994). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (1990). World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs. Paris: UNESCO.

Wambage, M. N. and Muthee, J. N. (2023). Effectiveness of inclusive education practices in developing countries: A review of evidence. *Journal of Educational Policy and Practice*, 15(2), 78–92.