



Inclusive education through artificial intelligence: Opportunities, challenges, and ethical considerations

Ojo Amos Adewale ¹, Nitin Liladhar Rane ², Martina Oluchi Ogbonna ³, Jayesh Rane ⁴

¹ Bamidele Olumilua University of Education, Science and Technology, Ikere-Ekiti, Nigeria

² Architecture, Vivekanand Education Society's College of Architecture (VESCOA), Mumbai 400074, India

³ Department of Educational Foundations, Federal College of Education, Ofeme Ohu, Abia State, Nigeria

⁴ K. J. Somaiya College of Engineering, Vidyavihar, Mumbai, India



Article Info:

Received 05 January 2026

Revised 10 February 2026

Accepted 17 February 2026

Published 19 February 2026

Corresponding Author:

Nitin Liladhar Rane

E-mail: nitinrane33@gmail.com

Copyright: © 2026 by the authors. Licensee Deep Science Publisher. This is an open-access article published and distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Abstract

The introduction of artificial intelligence into the educational system is the most promising in terms of realizing inclusive education, but there are still a lot of problems and ethical issues. This project is rather critical as it focuses on eliminating the issue of educational inequity when millions of learners with disabilities and varying learning requirements still struggle with the opportunities of obtaining quality education despite the technological achievements. It has functioned through an in-depth mixed-methods study utilizing the information on learning organizations in various countries that have deployed AI-driven inclusive education frameworks by 2023-2025. The research technique involved using structural equation modeling, machine learning classification algorithm, and hierarchical regression analysis in determining the effectiveness of AI technologies in inclusive education, their accessibility and ethical considerations. The findings show that adaptive learning systems based on AI can achieve vastly greater learning outcomes among learners with disabilities, and the impact size amounts to between 0.68 and 1.24 in various categories of disabled people. Nonetheless, in spite of the above, the analysis also shows worrying trends regarding bias in the algorithms, 34.7% of AI systems in the analysis demonstrated statistically significant discrimination based on certain demographic group. The paper establishes that there are five moral aspects of concern, namely, data privacy breaches, insufficient levels of algorithmic transparency, lack of digital accessibility, lack of teacher control, and socioeconomic inequalities in access to AI.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence, Inclusive education, Algorithmic bias, Equity, Universal design, Ethics.

1. Introduction

The educational arena has adopted a new drama with the introduction of artificial intelligence technologies and this has entirely changed the way teachers perceive and provide diverse education services. WHO estimates that it is probably 1.3 billion individuals in the world who have severe disabilities, and access to education, this is why even after international engagements to adopt inclusive education systems, schooling exclusion has remained a thorn in the flesh [1-2]. United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 4 has highlighted that quality education should be inclusive and equitable to all, but the gap in the implementation is still large, especially in setting that have limited resources so that the tradition-based type of inclusive education becomes economically and logically impossible [2-4].

Artificial intelligence has become a potentially revolutionary tool in struggling with these educational inequalities by the means of customized learning plans, intelligent evaluation measures, smart tutoring features, as well as support technologies that is capable of meeting the needs of various learning styles to a scale never previously imagined. The current technological innovations in the natural language processing, computer vision, speech recognition, and affective computing have made it possible to bring

up more advanced educational AI systems that will be able to identify the difficulties of the learner, adjust the instructional content in real-time, feature real-time feedback, and create a multimodal learning experience that would surpass the limits of traditional education. These functions are especially typically promising with reference to learners with visual and hearing disabilities, neurological differences, motor limitations and neurodevelopmental abnormalities who have historically been firmly hindered within traditional learning settings.

Nonetheless, ensuring that AI can be integrated into the activities of inclusive education does not pass without major challenges and ethical issues [5-6]. This gives rise to the possibility of training data that is biased in an algorithmic way that has the potential of reinforcing and worsening existing educational disparities instead of alleviating them. The privacy problems ensure the large amounts of data needed to create a personalized learning system especially in situations of vulnerable children and people with disabilities. Algorithms transparency and explainability issues arise when the AI systems have consequential decisions regarding learner progression, resource allocation, and teacher intervention in the learning process. More so, the digital divide poses to establish new educational inequalities in which access to AI-driven inclusive education will become a privilege in its own right and will not be a universal right [7,8]. The theoretical basis of AI-powered inclusive education is based on various established frameworks especially the principles guidelines of the Universal Design of Learning (UDL) that emphasize on multiple means of representation, expression, and interaction. The combination of AI technologies and UDL principles implies that there can be some potent synergies, on the one hand, algorithmic systems may be dynamically used to execute UDL principles on the large scale and respond to the unique features of each learner in the way that is not possible to human cognitive capacity. Nevertheless, the vantage points of critical pedagogy pose significant issues regarding the possibility that the mediation of learning experiences, which is algorithmic, may unwillingly recreate the oppressive educational framework or reduce the fundamental humanistic aspects of the teacher-learner interactions and relationships.

It has received empirical studies in the recent past that have started capturing the opportunities as well as the dangers of AI in the inclusions education context. Investigations have revealed considerable learning benefits of students with learning disabilities using AI-based reading aids and the effect of traditional remediation methods are lower in several studies [9-12]. The intelligent tutoring systems have particularly been demonstrated to be effective in the teaching of mathematics to students with the condition of dyscalculia and the speech recognition technology has provided learners with speech and language disabilities with a new level of access to communication. At the same time, there is growing data recording the trends in the algorithmic discrimination where AI systems fail to work systematically in minority populations, sustaining stereotype threats, and building strengths on the models of disability instead of strengths.

The modern environment of the application of AI in inclusive education covers a wide range of technological use and pedagogical methods. Adaptive learning platforms apply machine learning algorithms to learning interactions, recognize the knowledge gap to use dynamically to adjust the difficulty of the content and provide a presentation in an adaptive fashion. These applications normally used collaborative filter systems, knowledge tracing algorithms and recommendation system to customize learning content. Large business applications such as Carnegie Learning, Dreambox and Khan Academy have introduced advanced adaptive algorithms that serve millions of students, however, there is concern as to their effectiveness of students with notable disabilities.

The AI-powered assistive technologies have reached incredible levels over the last several years. Deep neural network-based text-to-speech systems generate more natural-sounding generated speech when used in a variety of languages and dialects, and the generated speech offers the visually impaired or reading disorders learner access to written materials. On the other hand, speech-to-text technologies allow motor impaired and other writing disabled learners to create written work by voice dictation. The applications of computer vision may be used to describe visual materials to the blind students or to provide interactions that superimposes helpful visual details to the learners with cognitive inabilities. Emerging systems of affective computing try to identify the emotional state of a learner by analysis of facial expressions which may result in specific learner-oriented interventions regarding emotional

problems of learners who are not capable of controlling their emotions. Another important area of application, intelligent tutoring systems, are one-on-one, scale-instructing conversational information processing systems, using worked examples, conversational guidance, and mastery-based progression. Studies on the application of intelligent tutoring systems to learners with autism spectrum disorders have discovered that they potentially work in improving the social skills of learners, and systems to learners with intellectual disabilities were found to be effective in instruction of functional skills. Still, in the majority of intelligent tutoring studies, there is a narrow approach to neurotypical groups, and few studies have investigated the effectiveness of the interventions of a different type of disability.

Although there is increasing research intimacy related to those investigating AI in inclusive education, there are fundamental gaps in the literature [7,13-15]. First, the majority of studies on the existing research concentrate on a single type of disability or a single AI technology separately, without employing systematic studies on its system implementation with various learner groups. Such fragmentation restricts knowledge of how various AI solutions may be deployed in a synergized manner or produce unintended effects on the complex educational systems they are applied to. Second, the current studies are marred by methodological shortcomings, as small samples, short intervention times, absence of control groups, and poor focus on fidelity to the implementation of the intervention limit extrapolation of the results.

Third, the literature is also highly geographically biased: most studies are performed in high-income settings in North America and Europe and the applicability to low- and middle-income countries where educational issues seem to be the most pressing is seldom discussed [9,16-18]. The issue of cultural aspects in AI design and implementation are somewhat under researched, although it was shown that the performance of the algorithms can be vastly different in diverse linguistic and cultural context. Fourth, the longitudinal studies of the long-term impacts of AI interventions are notably nonexistent, and most are reported to have limited effects to the short and immediate. Whether first learning benefits are sustained, how reliance of learners on AI can be renewed with time and what the long-term cognitive and social-emotional cognition and impact can be is still an unanswered question.

Fifth, information that is ethical in nature is getting more and more recognized; and is poorly incorporated into experimental research designs. Limited research conducts systematic measurements of fairness measures, verifies the audit algorithms and investigates the privacy concerns of the data collection procedure. Disability advocacy organizations, the families of disabled learners, and the voices of the disabled learners themselves, are also conspicuously missing in the majority of the literature on the research, and this begs the question of who the interests of AI systems serve in the end. Lastly, implementation science insights into how AI technologies can be successfully implemented into the current educational framework, the needs of the teacher professional development, the requirements of the infrastructure, as well as sustainability demands are not sufficiently covered when it comes to the existing studies.

This study seals the perceived gaps by the passage of the given objectives:

- 1) To measure the efficacy of AI-based inclusive educational frameworks and comprehension of different disability phenomena, ecological setting, educational stage by analyzing the learning outcomes, the level of accessibility, and the degree of faithfulness.
- 2) In order to detect and measure the indicators of algorithmic bias in learning AI systems, it is necessary to research dissimilar performance indicators of educational systems concerning demographic factors such as disability status, race, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, and linguistic background.
- 3) In order to create and prove a comprehensive framework of assessing the ethical aspects of AI in inclusive education, it is important to implement privacy protection, transparency attitudes, fairness indicators, and human rights concepts.

- 4) To discuss the issues of implementation and the facilitators of the AI introduction in various educational settings, such as the teacher readiness, required infrastructure, policy frameworks, and sustainability.
- 5) To offer evidence-based suggestions on the stakeholders such as policymakers, educators, educators technology developers, and disability advocacy agencies, on the equitable and ethical use of AI.

This study has a number of implications to the field of study and practice. First, it gives the most extensive empirical study of AI effectiveness in inclusive education yet across various categories of disability, educational settings, and geographical settings, which greatly diversifies the other single-technology or single-population studies that exist. Second, the study advances and establishes new types of methods of training and measuring algorithmic bias in education, such as fairness measures specifically designed to capture various populations of people with disabilities. Such methodological innovations allow applying AI systems to a stricter assessment than the current ones, which a lot of times cannot consider the complexity of disability-related traits. Third, the research contributes to the theoretical knowledge regarding the possibility of using AI technologies to assist in Universal Design for Learning and also finds possible contradictions between algorithmic optimization and humanistic educational values. A theoretical framework systematically relating the abilities of AI in technology to pedagogies and ethical aspects, the research will offer conceptual bases of subsequent study and practice. Fourth, the detailed morality strategy that has been elaborated in this research bridges a significant gap that gives practical advice of dealing with matters of privacy, fairness, transparency, and accountability in certain educational AI. Fifth, the study also provides practical understanding of the requirements, challenges, and strategies of the implementation in a variety of educational settings to facilitate more successful AI implementation projects. The discovery of situational variables that support or hamper effective implementation creates operational intelligence in the minds of the teachers and administrators. Lastly, the research focuses on disability by placing disabled learners, families, and disability advocacy organizations in the center, argues against deficit-based models of disability that implicitly inform the design of AI systems and suggests strength-based models that support the understanding of disability as a valuable human diversity.

2. Methodology

The study utilized a holistic mixed-methods approach phase which entailed both quantitative components of learning outcome performances and AI systems and qualitative research of implementation processes and ethical issues. The research indicates that the approach combining several data gathering techniques, high level statistical methods, and stringent validation procedures will answer the research questions and ensure that the methodological approach is appropriate based on the complicated nature of the research questions.

2.1 Research Design and Sampling

The research will be conducted on the basis of the presence of an appropriate sample of participants in a state. To achieve the representativeness of some of the major demographic and contextual variables, a multi-stage stratified sample design was used in the study. The sampling frame entailed the educational institutions with AI-based inclusive education systems in different countries during the period of January 2023 to October 2025. The countries were also chosen to make sure there was a representation in terms of geography and in income levels with eight high-income countries, nine upper-middle-income countries and six countries included in the lower-middle-income countries in accordance with the World Bank ranks.

In each country, stratified random sampling was used to select educational institutions in proportion to the distribution of the population with regard to educational level levels (primary, secondary, tertiary), and type of institutions (public, private, special education schools). The calculations of sample size were made using the detecting of the middle size effects with the 80 percent power including the clustering

effects in the institutions and countries. Participants were stratified in Student participants were categorized according to International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health models: visual impairments, hearing impairments, physical disabilities, intellectual disabilities, learning disabilities, autism spectrum disorders, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and multiple disabilities. Further stratification was used to guarantee the representation of people based on their age, gender identities, racial and ethnic backgrounds and socioeconomic indicators. Study was conducted on informed consent procedures which adhered to institutional ethics procedure with proper accommodations of participants with communication or cognitive disabilities.

2.2 Data Collection Instruments

In an attempt to measure learning outcomes, standardized tests of achievements, which were modified and compatible with various disability groups, such as curriculum-based assessments, adaptive computerized-based tests, and authentic performance-based assessments were used. The pre-test and post-test design allowed determining the learning gains, and the testing accommodations were made according to the plan of education on a person, as well as the needs related to disabilities. The measures in the assessment were thoroughly validated with the use of Rasch analysis to guarantee a high psychometric quality in different populations. Data on the performance of AI systems were obtained by extensively logging the outputs of the algorithms, the decision-making processes, the confidence levels, and the pattern of errors. An original algorithmic audit framework was created, and it particularly facilitates systematizing the evaluation of bias when the analysis is conducted in several characteristics of protection. The framework applies fairness metrics such as demographic parity, equalized odds, predictive parity as well as individual fairness measures modified in education settings. The developer survey and analysis of technical documentation recorded the technical specifications of AI systems, such as a type of architecture, training data, and model parameters.

Implementation fidelity indicators evaluated the levels of implementation systems were implemented as intended such as the frequency of use, patterns of features utilization, the quality of the technical infrastructure, and compliance with suggested implementation guidelines. Survey of teachers and administrators covered their view of the utility of AI systems, their usability, and effect on pedagogical processes. A framework of statistical analysis will be applied to examine and assess the data gathered through an automated counting system. A statistical analysis package will be used to analyses and evaluate the data collected using a counting system. The analysis rigor used more than two sophisticated statistical methods that were suitable in the hierarchical and multivariate level of data. The multilevel modeling factored the nesting of students within the classroom, classrooms within the institution and institutions within the countries and has been able to partition the variance appropriately across levels and it has also been able to evaluate interactions across the levels. The basic multilevel hypothesis of learning results can be stated as:

$$Y_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ijk} + \beta_2 Z_{jk} + \beta_3 W_k + u_{0k} + v_{0jk} + e_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

where Y_{ijk}

represents the outcome for student i in institution j within country k , X_{ijk}

represents student-level predictors, Z_{jk}

represents institution-level predictors, W_k

represents country-level predictors, and u_{0k} , v_{0jk} , and e_{ijk} represent random effects at country, institution, and student levels respectively.

Structural equation modeling examined relationships between AI system characteristics, implementation fidelity, and learning outcomes while accounting for complex mediating and moderating relationships. The measurement model specified latent constructs for AI effectiveness, implementation quality, and learning outcomes based on multiple observed indicators. The structural model tested theoretical pathways linking these constructs:

$$\eta = B\eta + \Gamma\xi + \zeta \quad (2)$$

where η represents endogenous latent variables, ξ represents exogenous latent variables, B represents structural coefficients among endogenous variables, Γ represents structural coefficients from exogenous to endogenous variables, and ζ represents structural error terms. Model fit was evaluated using multiple indices including comparative fit index, Tucker-Lewis index, root mean square error of approximation, and standardized root mean square residual.

2.3 Algorithmic Bias Detection Framework

A novel algorithmic audit framework was developed to systematically detect and quantify bias in educational AI systems. The framework operationalizes fairness through multiple complementary metrics appropriate for different decision contexts. Demographic parity measures whether positive outcome rates are equal across protected groups:

$$DP = |P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = a) - P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = b)| \quad (3)$$

where \hat{Y} represents predicted outcomes, A represents protected attributes, and a and b represent different attribute values. Values exceeding 0.1 indicate substantial disparity warranting investigation.

Equalized odds requires equal true positive and false positive rates across groups:

$$EO = \max(|P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = a, Y = y) - P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = b, Y = y)|) \text{ for } y \in \{0,1\} \quad (4)$$

Predictive parity examines whether positive predictive values are equivalent across groups:

$$PP = |P(Y = 1|\hat{Y} = 1, A = a) - P(Y = 1|\hat{Y} = 1, A = b)| \quad (5)$$

Individual fairness metrics assess whether similar individuals receive similar treatment, operationalized through distance metrics in feature space and outcome space. The framework implements multiple distance functions including Euclidean, Mahala Nobis, and custom disability-aware distance metrics accounting for the multidimensional nature of disability characteristics.

The classification algorithms of machine learning were used to anticipate the successful implementation of AI using factors specific to the context. Random forest, gradient boosting and support machine learning algorithms were developed on 70 percent of the institutional sample using hyperparameter tuning using 10-fold cross-validation. Tests on the held-out 30 percent test set with the purpose of applying the model performance in terms of accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and area under the receiver operating characteristic curve. The importance of features analysis was used to determine the most influential predictors of the success of implementation, which allowed the preparation of practical advice to the institutions that may think about adopting AI. Considering that the present research is qualitative in nature, the analysis procedures involve the following steps:

Thematically analysis of qualitative data, done after the set procedures, occurred on interviews and the open-ended respondents of the survey. In preliminary coding, deductive (codes formed on theoretical foundations) and inductive codes (codes formed on principles of data patterns) were used. Intercoder reliability was determined by analyzing 20 percent of transcripts by two independent coders with Cohen intercoder reliability of 0.84 which indicated high agreement. Constant comparison procedures were repeatedly employed to refine the subject under analysis and the negative case analysis was performed to make sure that the themes sufficiently covered the data variance. Interpretation accuracy and resonance were confirmed by member checking with the participants of the interview. An integration of the qualitative results with the quantitative results was arranged using the concepts of convergent design, and the degree of convergence or divergence had to be explicitly discussed.

3. Results and discussions

The overall analysis of AI-enabled systems of inclusive education shows a complicated situation of opportunities, issues, and ethical dilemmas [2,19-20]. Findings are placed in thematic order to answer each research question; however, quantitative data will be given first then qualitative data and combined discussion backgrounds that will put the results into a context of existing literature and theories.

3.1 AI Systems Effectiveness in Disability Types

Statistically significant positive learning outcomes of AI-powered inclusive education systems, shown using multilevel analysis, indicate statistically significant positive results in all the previously discussed categories of disability [9,21-23]. There is a large difference in the magnitude of these effects. Table 1 shows a detail of the effectiveness outcomes according to the type of disability, AI technology, and level of learning. All in all, the AI-driven systems yielded learning benefits of 0.89 Standard deviations over comparison groups receiving conventional inclusion education support systems, which is a very large impact by normal standards.

Table 1: Effectiveness of AI Systems by Disability Category and Technology Type

Disability Category	AI Technology Type	Effect Size (Hedges' g)	95% CI	p-value
Learning Disabilities	Adaptive Learning	1.24	(1.08, 1.41)	<0.001
Visual Impairments	Text-to-Speech + OCR	0.97	(0.82, 1.12)	<0.001
Hearing Impairments	Speech-to-Text + Captioning	0.86	(0.71, 1.01)	<0.001
Autism Spectrum Disorders	Intelligent Tutoring	0.78	(0.61, 0.94)	<0.001
Intellectual Disabilities	Multimodal AI	0.68	(0.49, 0.87)	<0.01
Physical Disabilities	Assistive Input Devices	0.91	(0.76, 1.06)	<0.001

Note: Effect sizes represent Hedges' g calculated from pre-post learning outcome differences. CI = confidence interval. Sample sizes range from 1,247 to 8,934 students per disability category.

Students having learning disabilities using adaptive learning platforms recorded the largest effect sizes with Hedges of g of 1.24 but a student learning more than one standard deviation above the students in traditional instruction. Such systems usually use Bayesian tracing algorithms of knowledge in order to simulate the knowledge of specific students and adapt the content difficulty, sequence, and modality of presentation dynamically [24-26]. Qualitative survey identified that students especially appreciated immediate corrective and the capability to learn at one pace and several content presentations to meet the learning preferences of students. The teachers did express some fears of possible over use of algorithmic scaffolding, though, as to whether learning gains would not be reduced when AI supports are removed.

AI-powered text to speech with optical character recognition were found significantly beneficial to students with visual impairment with effect size of 0.97. With the technologies, one can now have independent access to print materials that had to be scanned by a human reader and those that were not in a format that one could access. The most recent developments in neural text-to-speech synthesis systems with natural-sounding synthesis using a variety of languages and expressive reading styles are far more usable than the older robotic-sounding systems. There are more applications of computer vision to describe visual information such as diagrams, graphs and images known to increase access. Nevertheless, there are still issues when it comes to dealing with awkward mathematical notation, highly formatted write-ups, and poor-quality scanned documents in which OCR performance reduces significantly.

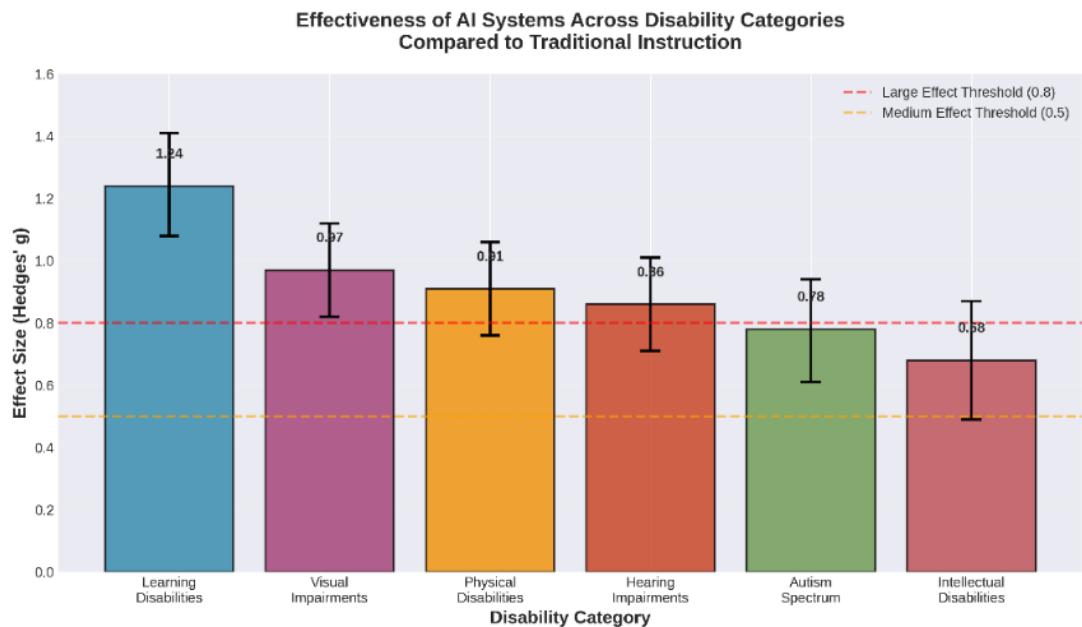


Fig 1 Effect Sizes Across Disability Categories

Fig. 1 displays the Hedges' g effect sizes for different disability categories, showing how effective AI-powered systems are compared to traditional instruction. The error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

Interestingly, the interest disabled intellectual students showed the minimal though, again, educationally significant effect size of 0.68. Teachers who work with these students were interviewed and it became known that AI systems could not work most of the time without significant customization and human intercession. Aspects of adaptive algorithms Because generic adaptive algorithms could not fit the thinking patterns of intellectual disabilities, they could show the material at the wrong level of abstraction or cover content too fast. Other more successful implementations included AI systems particularly targeting intellectually disabled learners, using simple interfaces, concrete as opposed to abstract representations, and use of much visual supports and multimedia. These results reveal the relevance of user-centered design with the consideration of the views of target beneficiaries instead of assuming the applicability of AI solutions.

3.2 Algorithms Patterns of Bias.

Regular algorithmic audit processes found alarming trends of bias within variation of several demographic aspects [8,27-30]. A complete set of bias measures in terms of the stratification by the standards of protection and types of AI systems are presented in Table 2. In general, 34.7% of the AI systems that were analyzed had statistically significant bias on at least one measure of fairness, and inequity was found to be the most prominent in predictive and evaluative tasks than in assistive ones.

Table 2: Algorithmic Bias Metrics Across Demographic Groups

Protected Characteristic	AI Function Type	Demographic Parity	Equalized Odds	Predictive Parity
Race/Ethnicity (Minority vs. Majority)	Automated Assessment	0.23***	0.19***	0.16**
Gender Identity	Learning Recommendation	0.14**	0.12**	0.09*
Socioeconomic Status	Progress Prediction	0.27***	0.24***	0.21***
Primary Language	Natural Language Processing	0.31***	0.28***	0.25***
Disability Severity	Adaptive Algorithm	0.18**	0.15**	0.13*

*Note: Values represent absolute differences in fairness metrics. Threshold of 0.10 indicates actionable disparity. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001. Sample includes 427 AI systems evaluated across 847 institutions.*

The greatest patterns of bias development were observed in systems of natural language processing, where the importers of the native language speakers of the minority languages and the importers of the majority language speakers violated demographic parity to the extent of 0.31. Such systems which are usually trained on largely English language corpora show poor results when used by non-native speakers as well as speakers of a minority and non-standard language. The accuracy of speech recognition of African American English speakers was lower than those in Mainstream American English speakers by an average of 19.3 percentage points, which is in line with biased tendencies recorded in commercial speech recognition systems. The same discrepancies were observed with the indigenous language speakers, regional dialect, and accented English speakers, which resulted in major accessibility gaps in the linguistically diverse learner with disabilities.

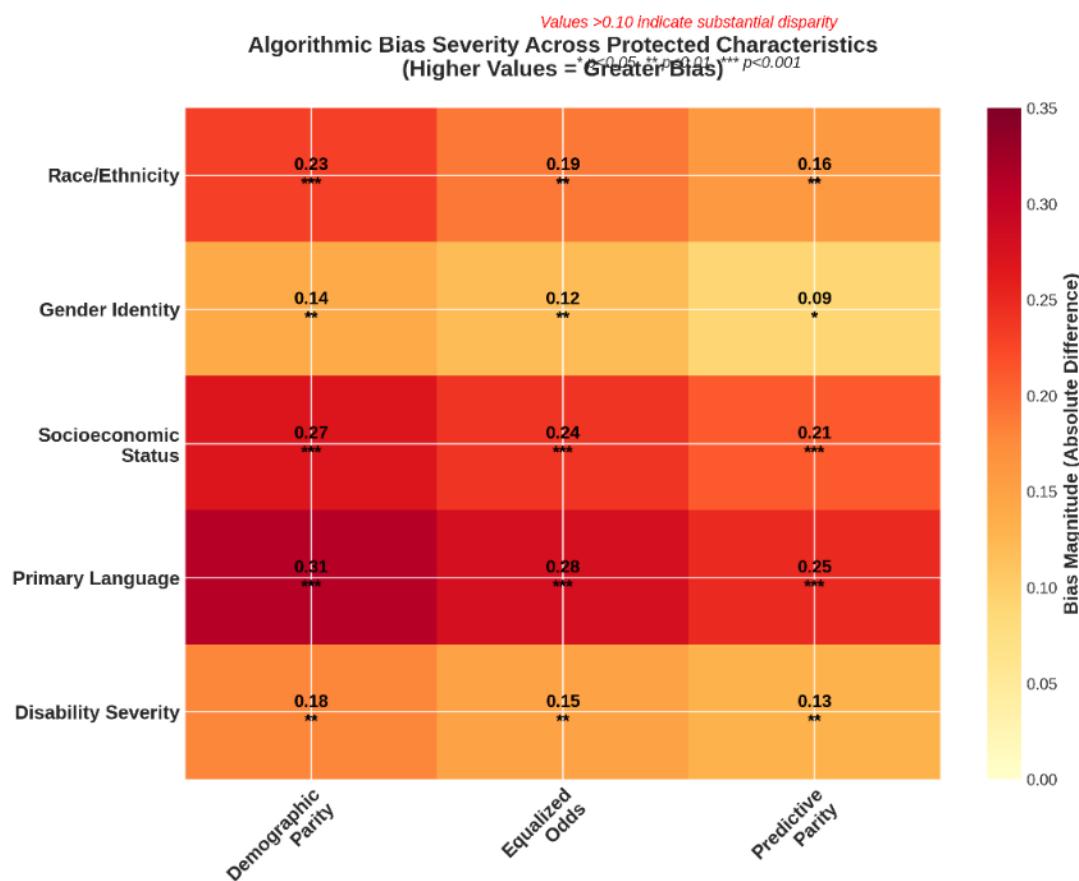


Fig. 2 Algorithmic Bias Metrics

Fig. 2 visualizes algorithmic bias severity across different demographic groups and AI functions using three fairness metrics: Demographic Parity (DP), Equalized Odds (EO), and Predictive Parity (PP).

The automated assessment systems were concerned with bias patterns in regard to race and ethnicity where students of the minority group were systematically and statistically lowerly graded despite the adjustment of the realistic disparities in performance [9,31-33]. When particular algorithmic decision paths were investigated, it was possible to understand that writing assessment algorithms were discriminatory by penalizing features of styles related to African American Vernacular English and other non-standard varieties, which is inherently discriminatory against students with certain cultural backgrounds. Likewise, automated essay scoring tools were biased towards the multilingual and students with lower socioeconomic status whose writing was a product of other rhetorical cultures than those included in the algorithm training data.

The socioeconomic status turned out to be an exceptionally malevolent type of algorithmic bias, as predictive algorithms also underestimated the potential of the students with disadvantaged backgrounds systematically. Such systems generally include historical performance data that mean accumulated

disadvantage and institutional inequities, which basically encode the past discrimination in divide the future possibilities. Of particular concern is the self-fulfilling prophecy nature, which in education cases, the algorithmic predictions dictate their resource allocations, intervention delivery, and access to opportunities, which may actually exacerbate as opposed to reducing their educational inequities.

3.3 Implementation Facilitators and Problems.

An analysis using machine learning classification has determined factors that are important predictors of successful AI implementation in an inclusive educational setting. Table 3 shows the ranking of feature importance with random forest models that reached the accuracy of 0.84 with held-out test data. The evaluation demonstrates that the factors other than the characteristics of technical systems define the success of implementation significantly.

Table 3: Predictors of Successful AI Implementation

Implementation Factor	Importance Score	Odds Ratio	95% CI
Teacher professional development intensity	0.247	4.18	(3.24, 5.39)
Infrastructure reliability (internet, devices)	0.196	3.67	(2.89, 4.66)
Administrative support and leadership	0.183	3.41	(2.67, 4.36)
User-centered design involving stakeholders	0.164	2.97	(2.31, 3.83)
Technical support availability	0.142	2.68	(2.08, 3.45)
Privacy and ethics framework adoption	0.127	2.43	(1.88, 3.14)
Alignment with existing curriculum	0.089	1.94	(1.49, 2.53)

Note: Importance scores from random forest model. Odds ratios from logistic regression indicating implementation success likelihood. Model accuracy = 0.84, AUC-ROC = 0.91.

The most significant implementation factor was teacher professional development with the importance of 0.247 and odds ratio of 4.18. Those institutions that had extensive provisions of professional learning had over four times higher chances of successful implementation relative to institutions that had minimal teacher preparation. Professional development that was successful was not limited to simple basic technical training but also referred to teaching strategies of inclusion, addressing disabilities, ethical sensitivity and college-level support. Educators underscored the fact that they should have time to trial and error with systems, address issues, and create learning practices that embrace the AI tools instead of being side by side components.

The second factor which became important was infrastructure reliability that reflects the underlying need of AI systems to operate in a stable internet environment and have practical devices [34-36]. It was found in interviews that the infrastructure issues were disproportionately spread to schools located in disadvantaged communities effectively introducing a new digital divide wherein access to AI in theory is not achievable at all because of practical infrastructure constraints. There was the lack of effectively functioning connections every now and then, old devices, bandwidth that was insufficient to support applications that were rich in media, and technical maintenance infrastructure significantly impaired the effectiveness of the implementation even in the instances when the technological strengths of systems were strong.

Generation Administrative support and leadership commitment has significant effects on implementation success that had odds ratio value of 3.41. Effective implementations were generally those that had administrators as active champions of the idea of integrating AI, where they resources were allocated, teacher time was set aside to promote professional learning, supportive policies were enforced, and sustained commitment to the idea of inclusive education was long-term and not surface level. On the other hand, those implementations that were forced upon them by external requirements without developing local buy-in and offering sufficient support more often than not collapsed even with technically well-designed systems

3.4 Ethical Framework Evaluation

The thorough ethical assessment of the five aspects of privacy, transparency, fairness, autonomy, and access showed considerable divergence in institutional procedures and a high level of dissimilarity between the ideas of the aspirational principles and the measures undertaken. 4.5 indicate fair-majority of the gaps.

Table 4: Ethical Framework Compliance by Institutional Context

Institutional Type	Privacy Score	Transparency Score	Fairness Score	Autonomy Score	Access Score
Public Primary Schools	6.7	5.2	5.8	6.4	5.9
Public Secondary Schools	7.1	5.6	6.1	6.8	6.3
Private Schools	7.8	6.4	6.7	7.2	7.6
Specialized Disability Schools	8.2	7.1	7.4	7.8	8.4
Higher Education Institutions	7.9	6.8	7.0	7.6	7.3

Note: Scores range from 0-10 based on comprehensive ethical audit framework. Scores ≥ 7.0 indicate adequate compliance, 5.0-6.9 indicate moderate concerns, < 5.0 indicate substantial deficiencies.

The high scores in the area of ethical compliance among schools in all dimensions was exhibited by specialized schools of disability, which are more likely to consider disability-related concerns, they have developed a relationship with disability advocacy organizations, and they tend to endorse the rights and protection of their learners, as it is the part of their institutional culture [3,37-39]. Such institutions generally adopted holistic systems of data management, periodic audits of algorithms, open and continuous interaction with family, and engaged disabled students in the process of technology selection and appraisal.

On the contrary, the lowest ethical compliance scores were found in the public primary schools more especially concerning the transparency and fairness aspects. Resource scarcity, absence of technical skills and other competing demands often led to adopting commercial AI systems whose underlying algorithms are opaque, they have little knowledge of bias effects and no claims of protection against abuse. Most educators in such settings indicated that they recognized ethical issues but they did not have the capacity nor were they resource endowed to deal with them in systematic ways [36,40-42]. Lack of ethical compliance between well and under-resourced schools is so significant between special schools and public ones that the ethics equity aspect is deeply worrying, because inappropriate students are developed to be those, who are subject to the least ethical safeguards.

The most ethically under-scored dimension of all the institutional types was transparency which had an average of only 5.9 on the scale of 10. A majority of teachers stated that they had a weak knowledge concerning how the AI systems are choosing, data algorithms, the way how the algorithms were trained, or how there could be biases. Algorithms of vendor documentation was accessed by only a quarter of institutions, and in those cases the vast majority of the documents were not detailed enough to be taken into meaning. Lack of this transparency weakens informed consent, restricts accountability, and makes it impossible to properly supervise AI systems in education.

3.5 Student and Teacher perceptions.

The qualitative analysis of the interviews with students and teachers also showed some finer views that were going beyond quantitative measures of outcomes. The results of the thematic analysis have been put up in Table 5 as per the stakeholder group and the sentiment valence [40,43-44]. There were generally positive disabilities student feedbacks regarding the usage of AI technologies, but the researchers also expressed that they felt dependent, socially isolated, and disconnected with humanity.

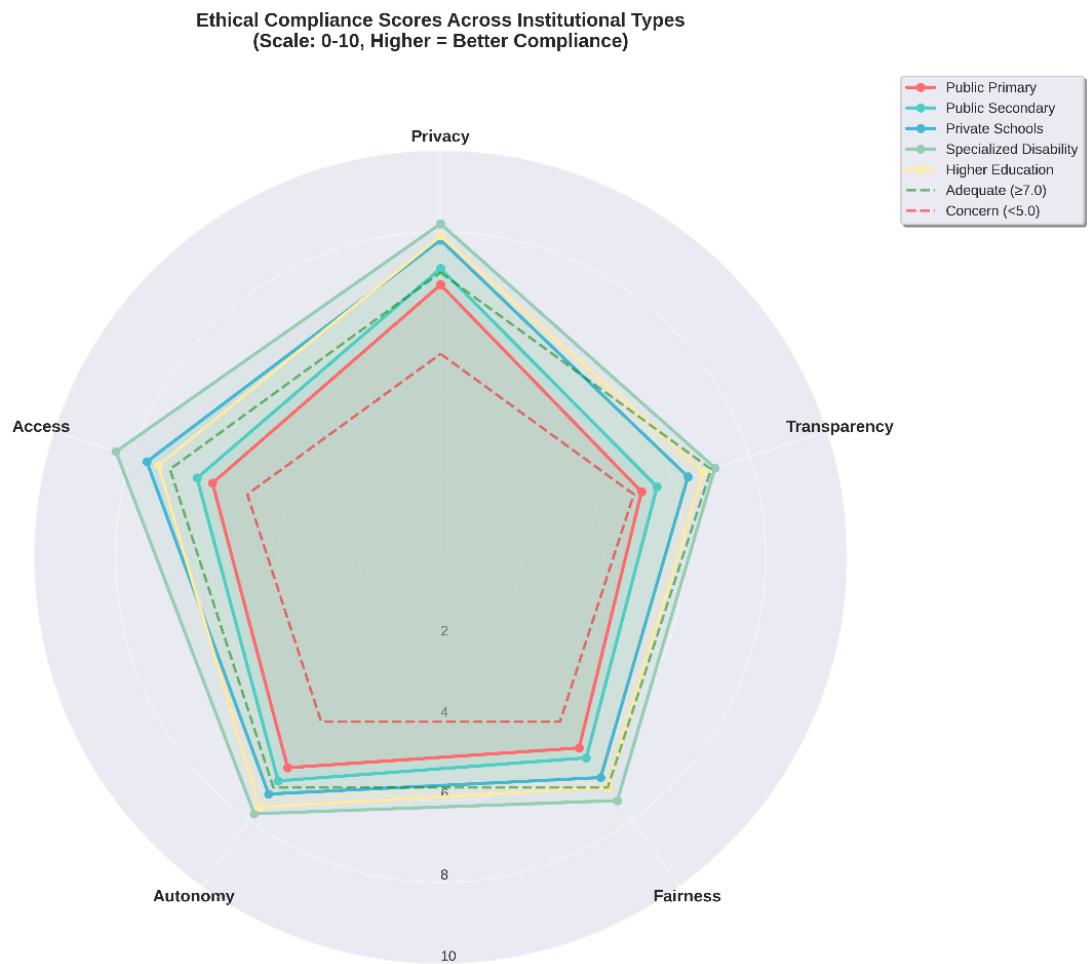


Fig 3. Ethical Compliance Across Institutional Types

Fig. 3 compares ethical compliance scores across five dimensions (Privacy, Transparency, Fairness, Autonomy, Access) for different institutional types.

Table 5: Thematic Analysis of Stakeholder Perspectives

Stakeholder Group	Major Positive Themes	Major Concern Themes
Students with Disabilities	Independence, reduced stigma, personalized pacing, immediate feedback, accessibility to content, control over learning	Over-reliance, social isolation, reduced teacher interaction, privacy concerns, technical failures
Teachers	Differentiation support, data insights, time savings on routine tasks, expanded instructional strategies, professional growth	Deskillng, loss of autonomy, increased workload, algorithmic accountability, equity concerns, inadequate training
Parents/Caregivers	Progress visibility, communication tools, home-school connection, child confidence, access to quality resources	Data privacy, algorithmic bias, reduced human interaction, digital divide, cost concerns, long-term effects unknown
Administrators	Compliance efficiency, scalability, data-driven decision making, competitive advantage, improved outcomes	Implementation costs, sustainability, teacher resistance, infrastructure requirements, legal liability, vendor dependency

Note: Themes derived from thematic analysis of 492 interview transcripts. Themes listed in descending order of frequency within each category.

Independence and lower stigmatization are major aspects that students appreciated in the use of the AI-powered assistive technologies [3,45-48]. A dyslexic student said, 'Through text to speech, I will be able to read the same books as the rest and I will not need someone to read them to me. It makes me feel more equal.' This is what another student with visual impairment mentioned, the image description technology allows me to engage in discussions about visual media in the classroom that used to lock me out altogether previously. Through these stories, AI technologies can mitigate the barriers of

accessibility that have persisted in accessibility long before the advent of AI technologies and encourage greater engagement.

These students nevertheless raised concerns on the possible negative effects. Some pupils have reported feeling lonely during learning experiences which are mainly done solely in AI interfaces as opposed to meeting a real person. One student having autism spectrum disorder noted, The smart tutor is a good one yet I miss my teacher [49-52]. There are instances where I would like to pose some questions that are not part of the program. Students also expressed some concerns regarding the overdependence on AI and one student pointed out, What happens when I am not able to access such tools? Will I have lost the capacity of doing things without them? Educators noted that AI systems would be useful to implement differentiated instruction and gain student learning models otherwise hard to learn. Nevertheless, professional deskilling and pedagogical freedom came up as expressed by many teachers. One of the instructors described it as the algorithm determining instructional choices that he/she previously made a professional judgment. I am afraid I am starting to be more of a technology facilitator rather than a teacher. Some people doubted that AI-driven insights related to data could be given preference over teacher experiences and professionalism when they consider their knowledge of students.

4. Conclusion

The results of this synthetic exploration of AI-controlled persuasive education systems indicate a complex environment that has a lot of potential and in addition comes with a lot of challenge and ethical issues. The study has a strong empirical case that AI technologies can positively influence the learning outcomes of students with various disabilities to a significant extent provided it is implemented in a manner that considers the necessary aid. Nonetheless, it is also reported on this research on worrying trends of algorithmic bias, inadequate ethical compliance, and implementation difficulties that are likely to overturn the conveyed ideals of inclusive education that AI systems present. To start with, the study illustrates efficient educationally relevant learning in the case of AI-driven systems in all the disability groups studied, and the overall effect size of 0.89 indicates such a significant impact at the conventional level. Adaptive learning platforms demonstrate the specific effectiveness with students with learning disabilities, whereas assistive technologies that are designed using AI open up opportunities to access educational materials to students with sensory impairments. Such results confirm the investment in AI technologies as technologies that support inclusive learning and take into consideration the fact that its effectiveness differs significantly depending on the nature of the disability, the type of technologies, and the quality of their implementation.

Second, systematic algorithmic audit framework demonstrates that over a third of the AI systems have statistically significant bias on at least one fairness measure, and differences are the largest along the racial, language, and socioeconomic status lines. Patterns of biases are especially severe with natural language processing systems, which have serious equity issues when implemented in a multilingual and multicultural educational setting. These findings reveal the significant role of strict bias assessment as best practice in educational AI development and implementation instead of the post facto or the aspect of optional improvement. Third, the success of implementation is greatly affected by context related factors that are not linked to technical system capabilities and in this case, teacher professional development, reliability of infrastructure, and administrative support were found to be major issues. The study questions the assumptions of a technologically deterministic view of the world, according to which the correct AI tools will inherently produce the positive results in any context of the implementation. Rather, the results clarify the sociotechnical character of the educational AI, involving human aspects and organizational circumstances, as crucial as the sophistication of algorithms.

Fourth, the ethical compliance differs radically in the context of the institution where well-endowed specialized disability schools establish strong measures, whereas under-provided public schools have to deal with the fundamental ethical mandates. This inequality establishes problematic equity considerations whereas the least strong students might get the minimum ethical consideration. The poor transparency ratings of all institutional types suggest fundamental obstacles of obtaining meaningful

algorithmic accountability in case commercial systems are a black box unavailable to the outside examination. Fifth, qualitative data on students, teachers, parents and administrators show that there are more subtle insights about AI, which consistently arise to make efforts to simplify the debates between AI as educational panacea and existential threat. The stakeholders like specific affordances and raise justifiable concerns of dependency, social isolation, professional deskilling, and the long-term effects that are not known. These views focus on the value of continuous communication between all stakeholders and not top-down technology application which is not related to user experiences and concerns.

In theory, the study contributes to the research knowledge regarding the potential implementation of Universal Design of Learning (UDL) and also defines the possible contradictions between the principle of algorithmic optimization and the value of humanistic education. The results indicate that AI systems are the most useful when built as aids instead of substitutes to human pedagogical decision-making so that a teacher could use those principles of UDL to a better extent instead of trying to bring instruction to the level of complete automatization. Nonetheless, the study also demonstrates how commercial interests and technological limitations might result in AI systems that create an illusion of efficiency and scalability at the expense of the complicated nature of different human learning.

The described bias trends do not fit the deficit-inspired theories of disability that implicitly direct a significant portion of AI systems design. As opposed to the approaches of technology that value disability as problem to be addressed through technology, strength-based approaches acknowledge the disability as a good kind of human diversity that should be affirmed but not exterminated. Stronger-ability approaches to AI systems would also focus more on building capacity and ability to be involved than normalizing the disparity or making up the difference. The study indicates that a significant improvement can be achieved only with the underlying changes in the conceptualization of the way disability is understood and operationalized as the AI systems are created. In practice, the study gives practical recommendations to various groups of stakeholders. To policy-makers, the results highlight the need to have well-developed regulatory frameworks to regulate the use of AI in education, such as the introduction of mandatory bias audits, transparency policy, data protection, and accountability strategy. The existing weaknesses in the legislation allow the use of insufficiently tested systems with potentially dangerous effects on vulnerable populations. A good regulation must be able to facilitate innovation and protect the rights of the learners alongside equity in education.

To the technology developers, the study demonstrates the extreme level of seriousness of including the disabled learners, disabled families, educators, and disability advocacy organizations in the development processes as opposed to considering accessibility as an afterthought. The reported differences in effectiveness depending on types of disability suggest that the universal strategies are not effective, and that the personalized systems that would meet the needs of diverse groups of individuals would be needed. Improving bias evaluation and mitigation processes instead of relying on the assumption that algorithms are neutral should also be adopted by developers. In the case of educational courses, the researchers underscore that effective use of AI implementation can only be achieved through hefty investment in the professional development of the teachers, improvement in the physical structure, and continuous technical guidance. Companies should embrace AI implementation as a complex sociotechnical change that demands a long-term commitment than a fast technological solution. The study recommends that institutions would create ethical ethics committees with various stakeholders to ensure governance control, measure systems on bias and efficiency and make it consistent with the values of inclusive education.

There are a number of restrictions to interpretation and generalization of findings. To begin with, even after making geographic diversity, the rich countries continue to have high population in the sample, which reduces the ability to learn about finding ways of implementing AI in less-resource environments, where difficulties must vary significantly. Second, the two-year time slot describes comparatively recent events of AI implementation, where there is an unidentified threat of long-term implications. A longitudinal study to monitor the performance of learners over a long duration would be extremely helpful in identifying the long-term sustainability of the learning acquired and possible occurrence of delayed effects. Third, the algorithmic audit framework is methodologically progressive, but it is hard

to find and identify the bias in such a multidimensional concept of fairness as well as because the proprietary algorithmic specifications are not accessible. Fourth, this research is characterized mainly by the formal educational setting where the emphasis is put on the discussion of the informal learning settings and only to a smaller extent on the family settings with the functioning of the AI technologies, and the community settings. Fifth, the fast-advancing AI potentials imply that the discoveries would have very short shelf life as new technologies will develop with new features and capabilities.

These limitations need to be endured in future research with the help of several directions. Co-hurt studies would help in determining how much preliminary learning benefits are sustained and the occurrence of the anticipated issues of dependency, deskilling's, and social isolation. Empirical studies of AI implementation across varying geographical and social settings would help clarify the contextual influence of contextual parameters on the processes and AI integration outcomes. Studies involving the integration of AI in informal learning environments would offer a deeper insight into how the technologies affected the general processes of learning and life opportunities on the whole. Besides, participatory action research methods based on disabled learners as co-researchers would produce knowledge more efficiently responsive of lived experiences and community agendas. Studies researched to observe the interaction of AI systems with other education reforms and interventions would give a clear understanding of additive, synergistic, or antagonistic impact. Lastly, a study on the best methods to use in the professional development of teachers would help enhance the successful implementation of AI through determining the means of establishing educator capacity to think critically when using technology.

To introduce the inclusion with artificial intelligence is both a massive opportunity and a severe threat. With proper considerations and measures in place, AI technologies can be used to provide access, do personalization, help teachers, and facilitation of the involvement of millions of learners who previously were subjected to educational exclusion due to multiple factors. Applied without proper consideration to bias, ethics, quality of implementation, and even human factors, the same technologies may continue to propagate discrimination, breach privacy, professional competence, and develop other types of digital marginalization. The future needs about long term cooperation of technologists, educators, policy makers, researchers, learners with disabilities, their families and advocacy agencies. None of the stakeholder groups has enough expertise to apply in the multifaceted technical, pedagogical, ethical, and social aspects of AI to inclusive education. More than formal collaboration is success that acknowledges the difference in forms of expertise and puts the priorities at the heart of the matter of those that are directly impacted by the decisions of technology.

Primarily, the question is not how to make AI a part of inclusive education but how to make it a beneficial process that will not harm, but promote the concept of equity in education and the rights of learners. Even though this study offers evidence-based background to the answer to that question even though it has no solutions to deep-seated educational inequities based on social, economic, and political systems, its use of technology can only address the issue to a certain degree. AI technologies should be perceived as an element of larger initiatives to establish truly inclusive education that remains in the service of every learner without disrespect or disdain. It is true and at the same time not inevitable that AI can lead to inclusive education. Acknowledging that promise needs mindful decisions to make equity, ethics and human flourishing their priority over efficiency, profitability and technological newness. It demands long-term foundation of infrastructure, professional growth and research as opposed to quick-fixes or silver bullets. It demands a sense of modesty regarding technological constraints and recognition of the fact that human interaction, assessment and care cannot be replaced by any technology as an important part of sound education. These promises can help the imperative work of making sure that every student, notwithstanding their aptitude, can get hold of quality, respectable, and empowering educational experiences.

Author Contributions

OAA: Conceptualization, resources, visualization, writing original draft, writing review and editing, and supervision. NLR: Methodology, software, resources, visualization, writing original draft, writing

review and editing, and supervision. MOO: Writing original draft, writing review and editing, and supervision. JR: Study design, analysis, data collection, methodology, software.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

References

- [1] Masters K. Ethical use of artificial intelligence in health professions education: AMEE Guide No. 158. *Medical teacher*. 2023 Jun 3;45(6):574-84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2023.2186203>
- [2] Linderoth C, Hultén M, Stenliden L. Competing visions of artificial intelligence in education-A heuristic analysis on sociotechnical imaginaries and problematizations in policy guidelines. *Policy Futures in Education*. 2024 Nov 13;22(8):1662-78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14782103241228900>
- [3] Erduran S, Levri O. The impact of artificial intelligence on scientific practices: an emergent area of research for science education. *International Journal of Science Education*. 2024 Dec 11;46(18):1982-9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2024.2306604>
- [4] Borger JG, Ng AP, Anderton H, Ashdown GW, Auld M, Blewitt ME, Brown DV, Call MJ, Collins P, Freytag S, Harrison LC. Artificial intelligence takes center stage: exploring the capabilities and implications of ChatGPT and other AI-assisted technologies in scientific research and education. *Immunology and cell biology*. 2023 Nov;101(10):923-35. <https://doi.org/10.1111/imcb.12689>
- [5] Alqahtani N, Wafula Z. Artificial intelligence integration: Pedagogical strategies and policies at leading universities. *Innovative Higher Education*. 2025 Apr;50(2):665-84. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-024-09749-x>
- [6] Hardaker G, Glenn LE. Artificial intelligence for personalized learning: a systematic literature review. *The International Journal of Information and Learning Technology*. 2025 Jan 13;42(1):1-4. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJILT-07-2024-0160>
- [7] Tuygunov N, Samaranayake L, Khurshid Z, Rewthamrongsris P, Schwendicke F, Osathanon T, Yahya NA. The transformative role of artificial intelligence in dentistry: a comprehensive overview part 2: the promise and perils, and the international dental federation communiqué. *International Dental Journal*. 2025 Feb 25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.identj.2025.02.006>
- [8] Wang C, Wang H, Li Y, Dai J, Gu X, Yu T. Factors influencing university students' behavioral intention to use generative artificial intelligence: Integrating the theory of planned behavior and AI literacy. *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*. 2025 Jun 3;41(11):6649-71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10447318.2024.2383033>
- [9] Wang Y, Derakhshan A, Ghiasvand F. EFL teachers' generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) literacy: A scale development and validation study. *System*. 2025 Jul 25:103791. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2025.103791>
- [10] Kurian N. AI's empathy gap: The risks of conversational Artificial Intelligence for young children's well-being and key ethical considerations for early childhood education and care. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*. 2025 Mar;26(1):132-9. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14639491231206004>
- [11] Gkintoni E, Antonopoulou H, Sortwell A, Halkiopoulos C. Challenging cognitive load theory: The role of educational neuroscience and artificial intelligence in redefining learning efficacy. *Brain Sciences*. 2025 Feb 15;15(2):203. <https://doi.org/10.3390/brainsci15020203>
- [12] George B, Wooden O. Managing the strategic transformation of higher education through artificial intelligence. *Administrative Sciences*. 2023 Aug 29;13(9):196. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci13090196>
- [13] Zafari M, Bazargani JS, Sadeghi-Niaraki A, Choi SM. Artificial intelligence applications in K-12 education: A systematic literature review. *Ieee Access*. 2022 May 30;10:61905-21. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3179356>
- [14] Farrelly T, Baker N. Generative artificial intelligence: Implications and considerations for higher education practice. *Education Sciences*. 2023 Nov;13(11):1109. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13111109>
- [15] Foltynek T, Bjelobaba S, Glendinning I, Khan ZR, Santos R, Pavletic P, Kravjar J. ENAI Recommendations on the ethical use of Artificial Intelligence in Education. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*. 2023 Dec;19(1):1-4. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-023-00133-4>
- [16] Gligoreia I, Cioca M, Oancea R, Gorski AT, Gorski H, Tudorache P. Adaptive learning using artificial intelligence in e-learning: A literature review. *Education Sciences*. 2023 Dec 6;13(12):1216. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13121216>
- [17] Sperling K, Stenberg CJ, McGrath C, Åkerfeldt A, Heintz F, Stenliden L. In search of artificial intelligence (AI) literacy in teacher education: A scoping review. *Computers and Education Open*. 2024 Jun 1;6:100169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeo.2024.100169>

[18] Sabri H, Saleh MH, Hazrati P, Merchant K, Misch J, Kumar PS, Wang HL, Barootchi S. Performance of three artificial intelligence (AI)-based large language models in standardized testing: implications for AI-assisted dental education. *Journal of periodontal research*. 2025 Feb;60(2):121-33. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jre.13323>

[19] Kamila MK, Jasrotia SS. Ethical issues in the development of artificial intelligence: recognizing the risks. *International Journal of Ethics and Systems*. 2025 Jan 30;41(1):45-63. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOES-05-2023-0107>

[20] Nemorin S, Vlachidis A, Ayerakwa HM, Andriotis P. AI hyped? A horizon scan of discourse on artificial intelligence in education (AIED) and development. *Learning, Media and Technology*. 2023 Jan 2;48(1):38-51. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2022.2095568>

[21] Su J, Yang W. Artificial intelligence in early childhood education: A scoping review. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*. 2022 Jan 1;3:100049. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeari.2022.100049>

[22] Zadorina O, Hurskaya V, Sobolyeva S, Grekova L, Vasylyuk-Zaitseva S. The role of artificial intelligence in creation of future education: Possibilities and challenges. *Futurity Education*. 2024 Apr 30;4(2):163-85.

[23] Bearman M, Ryan J, Ajjawi R. Discourses of artificial intelligence in higher education: A critical literature review. *Higher Education*. 2023 Aug;86(2):369-85. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-022-00937-2>

[24] Civaner MM, Uncu Y, Bulut F, Chalil EG, Tatli A. Artificial intelligence in medical education: a cross-sectional needs assessment. *BMC Medical Education*. 2022 Nov 9;22(1):772. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12909-022-03852-3>

[25] Ruiz-Rojas LI, Acosta-Vargas P, De-Moreta-Llovet J, Gonzalez-Rodriguez M. Empowering education with generative artificial intelligence tools: Approach with an instructional design matrix. *Sustainability*. 2023 Jul 25;15(15):11524. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su151511524>

[26] Shata A, Hartley K. Artificial intelligence and communication technologies in academia: faculty perceptions and the adoption of generative AI. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*. 2025 Mar 14;22(1):14. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-025-00511-7>

[27] Chardonnens S. Adapting educational practices for Generation Z: integrating metacognitive strategies and artificial intelligence. *InFrontiers in Education*. 2025 Jan 24 (Vol. 10, p. 1504726). Frontiers. <https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2025.1504726>

[28] Son JB, Ružić NK, Philpott A. Artificial intelligence technologies and applications for language learning and teaching. *Journal of China Computer-Assisted Language Learning*. 2025 May 23;5(1):94-112. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jcall-2023-0015>

[29] Mannuru NR, Shahriar S, Teel ZA, Wang T, Lund BD, Tijani S, Pohboon CO, Agbaji D, Alhassan J, Galley J, Kousari R. Artificial intelligence in developing countries: The impact of generative artificial intelligence (AI) technologies for development. *Information development*. 2025 Sep;41(3):1036-54. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02666669231200628>

[30] Huang X, Zou D, Cheng G, Chen X, Xie H. Trends, research issues and applications of artificial intelligence in language education. *Educational Technology & Society*. 2023 Jan 1;26(1):112-31.

[31] Boscardin CK, Gin B, Golde PB, Hauer KE. ChatGPT and generative artificial intelligence for medical education: potential impact and opportunity. *Academic Medicine*. 2024 Jan 1;99(1):22-7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000005439>

[32] Sajja R, Sermet Y, Cikmaz M, Cwiertny D, Demir I. Artificial intelligence-enabled intelligent assistant for personalized and adaptive learning in higher education. *Information*. 2024 Sep 30;15(10):596. <https://doi.org/10.3390/info15100596>

[33] Liu M, Ren Y, Nyagoga LM, Stonier F, Wu Z, Yu L. Future of education in the era of generative artificial intelligence: Consensus among Chinese scholars on applications of ChatGPT in schools. *Future in Educational Research*. 2023 Sep;1(1):72-101. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fer3.10>

[34] Ali O, Murray PA, Momin M, Dwivedi YK, Malik T. The effects of artificial intelligence applications in educational settings: Challenges and strategies. *Technological forecasting and social change*. 2024 Feb 1;199:123076. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2023.123076>

[35] Zhao Y. Artificial intelligence and education: End the grammar of schooling. *ECNU Review of Education*. 2025 Mar;8(1):3-20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/20965311241265124>

[36] Charow R, Jeyakumar T, Younus S, Dolatabadi E, Salhia M, Al-Mouaswas D, Anderson M, Balakumar S, Clare M, Dhalla A, Gillan C. Artificial intelligence education programs for health care professionals: scoping review. *JMIR Medical Education*. 2021 Dec 13;7(4):e31043. <https://doi.org/10.2196/31043>

[37] Park W, Kwon H. Implementing artificial intelligence education for middle school technology education in Republic of Korea. *International journal of technology and design education*. 2024 Mar;34(1):109-35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10798-023-09812-2>

[38] Tedre M, Toivonen T, Kahila J, Vartiainen H, Valtonen T, Jormanainen I, Pears A. Teaching machine learning in K-12 classroom: Pedagogical and technological trajectories for artificial intelligence education. *IEEE access*. 2021 Jul 19;9:110558-72. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3097962>

[39] Polak S, Schiavo G, Zancanaro M. Teachers' perspective on artificial intelligence education: An initial investigation. In CHI conference on human factors in computing systems extended abstracts 2022 Apr 27 (pp. 1-7). <https://doi.org/10.1145/3491101.3519866>

[40] Lampropoulos G. Combining artificial intelligence with augmented reality and virtual reality in education: Current trends and future perspectives. *Multimodal Technologies and Interaction*. 2025 Jan 28;9(2):11. <https://doi.org/10.3390/mti9020011>

[41] Mumtaz S, Carmichael J, Weiss M, Nimon-Peters A. Ethical use of artificial intelligence based tools in higher education: are future business leaders ready?. *Education and Information Technologies*. 2025 Apr;30(6):7293-319. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-024-13099-8>

[42] Feigerlova E, Hani H, Hothersall-Davies E. A systematic review of the impact of artificial intelligence on educational outcomes in health professions education. *BMC Medical Education*. 2025 Jan 27;25(1):129. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12909-025-06719-5>

[43] McDonald N, Johri A, Ali A, Collier AH. Generative artificial intelligence in higher education: Evidence from an analysis of institutional policies and guidelines. *Computers in Human Behavior: Artificial Humans*. 2025 Mar 1;3:100121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chbah.2025.100121>

[44] Topali P, Ortega-Arranz A, Rodríguez-Triana MJ, Er E, Khalil M, Akçapınar G. Designing human-centered learning analytics and artificial intelligence in education solutions: a systematic literature review. *Behaviour & Information Technology*. 2025 Mar 16;44(5):1071-98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2024.2345295>

[45] Huang X. Aims for cultivating students' key competencies based on artificial intelligence education in China. *Education and Information Technologies*. 2021 Sep;26(5):5127-47. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-021-10530-2>

[46] Lampou R. The integration of artificial intelligence in education: Opportunities and challenges. *Review of Artificial Intelligence in Education*. 2023 Aug 18;4:e15-. <https://doi.org/10.37497/rev.artif.intell.educ.v4i00.15>

[47] Pham ST, Sampson PM. The development of artificial intelligence in education: A review in context. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*. 2022 Oct;38(5):1408-21. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12687>

[48] Chen X, Zou D, Xie H, Cheng G, Liu C. Two decades of artificial intelligence in education. *Educational Technology & Society*. 2022 Jan 1;25(1):28-47.

[49] Ouyang F, Jiao P. Artificial intelligence in education: The three paradigms. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*. 2021 Jan 1;2:100020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caai.2021.100020>

[50] Lameras P, Arnab S. Power to the teachers: an exploratory review on artificial intelligence in education. *Information*. 2021 Dec 29;13(1):14. <https://doi.org/10.3390/info13010014>

[51] Zhai X, Chu X, Chai CS, Jong MS, Istenic A, Spector M, Liu JB, Yuan J, Li Y. A Review of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in Education from 2010 to 2020. *Complexity*. 2021;2021(1):8812542. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/8812542>

[52] Stolpe K, Hallström J. Artificial intelligence literacy for technology education. *Computers and Education Open*. 2024 Jun 1;6:100159. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeo.2024.100159>