

PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS TOWARD INCLUSIVE EDUCATION WITH A
FOCUS ON HEARING IMPAIRMENT: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY

Kiran Chalise

A Thesis

Submitted to
School of Education

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education (Development Studies)

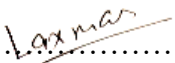
Kathmandu University
Dhulikhel, Nepal

March 2024

AN ABSTRACT

of the thesis of *Kiran Chalise* for the degree of *Doctor of Philosophy in Education* presented on *27 March 2024* entitled *Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education with a Focus on Hearing Impairment: A Quantitative Study*.

APPROVED BY

.....


Prof. Laxman Gnawali, PhD

Thesis Supervisor

Inclusive education ensures that all children can obtain a quality education in a child-friendly, bias-free environment and fairly address their various needs. With this assumption, this study was carried out to determine teachers' perceptions of children with hearing impairments (CWHI) and their education. The study was based on the perceptions of teachers teaching CWHI at special schools, resource classes, and integrated schools in Nepal. Since Nepal has both integration and segregation models of inclusive education, the study captured the perceptions of teachers teaching special schools in terms of self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude, and thematic areas of inclusive education.

The quantitative method was applied to describe teachers' perceptions of inclusive education practices and teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude. The study explored the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices and the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the different factors/themes of inclusive education practices through correlation and binary logistic regression analysis. Data for the study were collected through an individual survey with Nepalese school teachers and head teachers where children with hearing impairments were enrolled. The questionnaire, in statement format on a five-scale response, was designed by 182 respondents (87 males, 95 females) from the schools of seven provincial 20 districts of Nepal in the study. The Likert scale-based analysis, in terms of mean, weighted mean, and standard deviation, was used for descriptive analysis to identify the level of perceptions of teachers toward inclusive education practices. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education

practices was investigated using correlation analysis, ensuring responses from resource classes and integrated schools. Similarly, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the various factors/themes of inclusive education practices was predicted using binary logistic regression analysis.

The result shows that teachers' perceptions toward inclusive education appears to be high (in most cases) when considering their self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude, along with inclusive education in the schools. Teachers' self-efficacy seems more consistent with the special schools than the other categories of schools, but the self-efficacy appears to be high in resource classes. The study indicates some problematic areas also.

The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices is positive and significant, but it is not strong enough. A relatively moderate and positive correlation was found between the teachers' self-efficacy and 'important knowledge' and 'learning environment' in the schools. This result suggests that teachers who have good self-efficacy can contribute effectively to enriching the inclusive education practices in the schools.

The study projected that teachers' self-efficacy contributed the most to the themes of 'availability of rights,' 'roles and responsibilities of educational authorities,' and 'learning environment' of inclusive education practices. It is established that teachers' self-efficacy is the main predictor of ensuring the availability of rights, roles, and responsibilities and a learning environment in schools. The study indicated that if there are programs and approaches for enhancing teachers' self-efficacy along with their knowledge and attitude, they can effectively contribute to improving the quality of CWHI-focused inclusive education in schools.

.....


Kiran Chalise

Degree Candidate

27 March 2024

शोध सार

शिक्षा संकाय ९म्भखभयिऊभलत क्तगमभक० मा विद्यावारिधि उपाधिका लागि किरण चालिसेको श्रवण कमजोरीमा ध्यान केन्द्रित गरी सग वेशी शिक्षाप्रति शिक्षकहरूको धारणा: एक मात्रात्मक अध्ययनभन्ने शिर्षकमा शोधपत्र सारांश शिक्षा संकाय, काठमाण्डौं विश्वविद्यालयमा वि. स. २०८० चैत १४ गते प्रस्तुत गरियो।

Laxman

प्राध्यापक लक्ष्मण ज्ञवाली, विद्यावारिधि

शोधपत्र अनुमोदनकर्ता

समावेशी शिक्षाले सबै बालबालिकाले बालअनुकूल, पक्षपातरहित वातावरणमा शिक्षा पाउन सक्छन् भन्ने कुराको सुनिश्चित गर्नुका साथै उनीहरूको विभिन्न आवश्यकताहरूको उचित सम्बोधन गर्नुपर्छ। यस मान्यताका आधारमा, श्रवण क्षमता कम भएका बालबालिका र उनीहरूको शिक्षाको बारेमा शिक्षकहरूको धारणा ९उभचअभउतष्यल० बुझ्न यो अध्ययन गरिएको थियो। यो अध्ययन नेपालमा विशेष विद्यालय, स्रोत कक्षा र एकीकृत विद्यालयहरूमा श्रवण क्षमता कम भएका बालबालिकालाई पढाइरहेका शिक्षकहरूको धारणामा आधारित छ। नेपालमा समावेशी शिक्षाको एकीकृत र छुट्टाछुट्टै स्वरूप रहेकाले यस अध्ययनले आत्मप्रभावकारिता ९कभी(भाषाअबअथ०, ज्ञान, मनोवृत्ति ९वततप्तगमभ० र समावेशी शिक्षाका विषयगत क्षेत्रहरूलाई सन्दर्भ बनाएर विशेष विद्यालयहरूमा पनि पढाइरहेका शिक्षकहरूको धारणालाई समेटेको थियो।

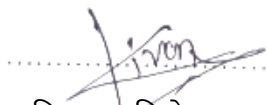
समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासका सम्बन्धमा शिक्षकहरूको दृष्टिकोण र उनीहरूको आत्मप्रभावकारिता, ज्ञान र मनोवृत्तिबारे वर्णन गर्न परिमाणात्मक विधि प्रयोग गरिएको थियो। यस अध्ययनले शिक्षाको आत्मप्रभावकारिता र समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासबीच रहेको सम्बन्धका साथै शिक्षकको आत्मप्रभावकारिताले समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासका विभिन्न तत्व/विषयमा पुर्याएको योगदानको खोजी गरेको छ। यसका लागि अध्ययनले सहसम्बन्ध ९अयचचभवितष्यल० र बाइनरी लजिस्टिक रिग्रेसन ९दप्लवचथ यिनष्कतष चभनचभकष्यल० विश्लेषणका माध्यम अपनाएको थियो। श्रवण क्षमता कम भएका बालबालिका भर्ना भएका नेपाली विद्यालयका शिक्षा र प्रधानाध्यापकहरूसँग व्यक्तिगत सर्वेक्षण गरी यस अध्ययनका लागि चाहिने तथ्यांक संकलन गरिएको थियो। प्रश्नावली कथन शैलीमा थियो र उत्तर दिँदा एकदेखि पाँचसम्मको मापन स्केलमा दिनुपर्नेथियो। उक्त प्रश्नावली सातवटै प्रदेशका २० जिल्लामा रहेका विद्यालयहरूका १८२ (८७ पुरुष, ९५ महिला) उत्तरदाताहरूले तयार गरेका थिए। समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासप्रति शिक्षकहरूको धारणाको स्तर पहिचानका लागि लिकर्ट स्केलमा आधारित विश्लेषण गरिएको थियो। यो एउटा वर्णनात्मक विश्लेषण हो र यसमा मध्यक ९भबल०, भारत मध्यक ९धभजतभम ९भबल० र प्रमाप विचलन ९कतबलमवचम मभखष्वतष्यल० अध्ययन गरिएको थियो। शिक्षकको आत्मप्रभावकारिता र समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासबीचको सम्बन्ध हेर्नका लागि सहसम्बन्ध

विश्लेषण ९अयचचभवितष्यल बलबधिकषक० प्रयोग गरिएको थियो, यसका लागि स्रोत कक्षा र एकीकृत विद्यालयहरूबाट आवश्यक उत्तरहरू लिइएको थियो । त्यसै गरी, वाइनरी लजिस्टिक रिग्रेसन विश्लेषण प्रयोग गरी शिक्षकको आत्मप्रभावकारिताले समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासका विभिन्न तत्व/विषयमा पुर्याएको योगदानको अनुमान गरिएको थियो ।

विद्यालयमा रहेका समावेशी शिक्षासँगै शिक्षकहरूको आत्मप्रभावकारिता, ज्ञान र मनोवृत्तिलाई विचार गर्दा नतिजाले समावेशी शिक्षाप्रति शिक्षकहरूको धारणा (धेरैजसो अवस्थामा) उच्च रहेको देखाउँछ । शिक्षकहरूको आत्मप्रभावकारिता अन्त वर्गका विद्यालयहरूको तुलनामा विशेष विद्यालयहरूमा अधिक सुसंगत देखिन्छ भने स्रोत कक्षाहरूमा यो आत्मप्रभावकारिता उच्च रहेको पाइन्छ । यस अध्ययनले समस्या भएका केही क्षेत्रहरूलाई पनि संकेत गरेको छ ।

शिक्षाको आत्मप्रभावकारिता र समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासबीचको सम्बन्ध सकारात्मक र उल्लेखनीय छ, तर धेरै बलियो छैन । शिक्षकहरूको आत्मप्रभावकारिता एवम् महत्वपूर्ण ज्ञान र विद्यालयमा रहेको सिकाइ वातावरणबीच तुलनात्मक रूपमा मध्यम र सकारात्मक सहसम्बन्ध पाइयो । यस नतिजाले राम्रो आत्मप्रभावकारिता भएका शिक्षकले विद्यालयमा हुने समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासलाई प्रभावकारी रूपमा योगदान गर्न सक्छन् ।

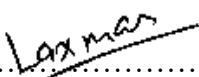
आत्मप्रभावकारिताले अधिकारहरूको उपलब्धता, शिक्षा अधिकारीहरूको भूमिका तथा जिम्मेवारी र समावेशी शिक्षा अभ्यासका सिकाइ वातावरण लगायतका धेरैजसो विषयमा योगदान गर्ने यस अध्ययनले प्रक्षेपण गरेको छ । शिक्षकको आत्मप्रभावकारिता अधिकारको उपलब्धता, भूमिका र जिम्मेवारीहरूका साथै विद्यालयको सिकाइ वातावरण सुनिश्चित गर्ने प्रमुख भविष्यवक्ता हो भन्ने स्थापित भएको छ । यस अध्ययनले शिक्षकको आत्मप्रभावकारिता बढाउने र उनीहरूको ज्ञान एवम् मनोवृत्तिमा सुधार ल्याउने कार्यक्रम र पहलहरू भएमा उनीहरूले श्रवण क्षमता कम भएका बालबालिका लक्षित समावेशी विद्यालय शिक्षाको गुणस्तर सुधारमा प्रभावकारी रूपमा योगदान गर्न सक्ने संकेत गरेको छ ।


किरण चालिसे
उपाधी उम्मेद्वार

वि. स. २०८० चैत १४

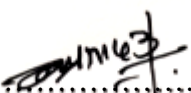
This thesis entitled *Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education with a Focus on Hearing Impairment: A Quantitative Study* was presented by *Kiran Chalise* on 27 March 2024.

APPROVED BY


.....

27 March 2024

Prof. Laxman Gnawali, PhD
Thesis Supervisor


.....

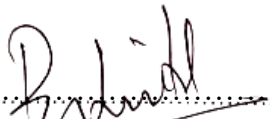
27 March 2024

Dhruva Prasad Niure, PhD
External Examiner


.....

27 March 2024

Asst. Prof. Suresh Gautam, PhD
Head of Department


.....

27 March 2024

Prof. Bal Chandra Luitel, PhD
Dean / Chair of Research Committee

I understand that my thesis will become part of the permanent collection of Kathmandu University Library. My signature below authorizes release of my thesis to my reader upon request for scholarly purposes.


.....

27 March 2024

Kiran Chalise,
Degree Candidate

© Copyright by Kiran Chalise

2024

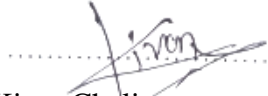
All rights reserved.

DEDICATION

^ This thesis is dedicated to my family members' especially my late father, my mother, wife and son, for their continuous support on my PhD journey.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been submitted for candidature for any other degree.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Kiran Chalise', is written over a horizontal dotted line. The signature is somewhat stylized and includes a vertical stroke that extends upwards.

Kiran Chalise

Degree Candidate

27 March 2024

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In the course of the evolution of the idea of having a thesis on inclusive education, the study theme finally emerged in the form of this research: perceptions of teachers toward inclusive education with a focus on hearing impairment. In the context of a limited number of research on children with disabilities and rare research on children with hearing impairments, this volume is thus a pioneering effort to know the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude, and inclusive education practices in CWHI-focused inclusive education along with the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices and the contribution of self-efficacy to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices in the schools.

First, the challenge before me was to finalize the study theme and set its indicators in the social construct of children with disabilities. I was pleased that I could find together such wonderful professors at my university, especially Dr. Suresh Gautam, and the individuals/faculties who have expertise on the field. Indeed, I got a more prolific Professor and former Associate Dean, Dr. Laxman Gnawali as my thesis supervisor. I started with Dr. Prakash C. Bhattarai, Associate Dean, who helped me a lot in finalizing the indicators and preparing the questionnaire, which was immensely remarkable. Some of the experts like Dr. Basu Dev Kafle (Inclusive Education Expert), Dr. Divya Dawadi (Joint Secretary, Ministry of Education), Mr. Surya Bhakta Prajapati (President, CBR Bhaktapur), Mr. Daya Ram Maharjan (Adarsha Saul M.V, Resource Class Teacher) and Ms. Salpha Shrestha (Researchers of Inclusive Education) including my friends and the university professors were always there beside me. The 182 teachers (respondents) from the selected schools in seven provinces of 20 districts of Nepal constitute a key to the success of this undertaking. Ms. Shova Dangol (Sign Language Teacher), Mr. Mandip Mahat (Child with Hearing Impairment), Mr. Yaman Thapa Mahat (Child with Visual Impairment); Mr. Buddhi Kumar Gho (Principal, Adarsha M.V) and Mr. Narad Dhamala (Officer, Education and Human Resource Development Center) deserve due thanks for their cooperation.

I would like to acknowledge Kathmandu University, School of Education for the opportunity on doing PhD from the esteemed University. My supervisor's critical efforts throughout the study have made much to make the outcome. Prof. Dr. Bal Chandra Luidel, Dean, School of Education, Kathmandu University, provided his

constructive input in finalizing this thesis. Dr. Mahesh Nath Parajuli, Former Dean, the School of Education, Kathmandu University, gave his valuable advice when I was helpless during my study. I would like to acknowledge the help and cooperation of Prof. Dr. Mana Prasad Wagley for his constant support. Dr. Prakash C. Bhattarai, Associate Dean, School of Education, Kathmandu University, was always there to assist me in undertaking my study. I am indebted to the research committee members, including external reviewers for their constructive comments. The head teachers of selected schools, and my university batch's colleagues greatly enriched the effort.

My wife, Ms. Nima Kafle, my son Nitigya Chalise and my entire family members did not flinch in their efforts to help out and tolerate me whenever solicited. Without the support of the individuals mentioned, the study would not perhaps have become visible. I, therefore, take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to all of them. In certain cases, it would be difficult to thank them enough! Finally, every such research or study will likely bear its share of errors, interpretations, or analyses. I solicit information on such lapses with your comments and suggestions.

Kiran Chalise
Degree Candidate

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
LIST OF TABLES	vii
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	ix
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
Context of the Study	2
Concept of Inclusive Education, Inclusivity and Special Education	6
Rationale of the Study.....	13
Statement of the Problem.....	15
Purpose of the Study	20
Research Questions	21
Delimitation of the Study.....	21
Organization of the Thesis	22
CHAPTER II.....	24
LITERATURE REVIEW	24
Defining Inclusive Education	24
Inclusive Education Practices	25
Teachers’ Self-Efficacy, Knowledge and Attitude and Roles in Inclusive Education	37
Models of Disability and Inclusive Education.....	40
Existing Policies and Provisions for the Education of Children with Disabilities in Nepal.....	47
Theoretical Review	53
Review of Human Rights-based Approach and SDG Four	55
Empirical Review.....	56
Research Gap	69
Conceptual Framework.....	72
Chapter Summary	74
CHAPTER III	76

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	76
Philosophical Considerations.....	76
Research Paradigm.....	77
Methodological Considerations	78
Research Design.....	79
Study Area, Population and Sampling.....	79
Tool Construction	84
Data Collection Process	86
Data Analysis and Interpretation	87
Reliability and Validity.....	89
Reliability.....	89
Validity	90
Ethical Considerations	91
Chapter Summary	92
CHAPTER IV	93
TEACHERS’ SELF-EFFICACY, KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE AND INCLUSIVE EDUCATION PRACTICES IN THE SCHOOLS	93
Adopted Strategy for Analysis.....	93
Level of Teachers’ Self-Efficacy, Knowledge, Attitude and Inclusive Education Themes in CWHI-Focused Schools.....	95
Teachers’ Self-Efficacy	95
Teachers’ Knowledge	97
Teachers’ Attitude.....	98
Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education Themes in CWHI-Focused Schools.....	100
Inclusive Education by the Themes (Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness)	101
Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority	102
Level of Self-Efficacy According to the Age, Gender, Education, Experience, Disability Types, School Categories and Districts	114
Level of Knowledge & Attitude According to Age, Gender, Education and Types of Disabilities	120

Relationship between Self-Efficacy of the Teachers and Inclusive Education Practices in the Schools	125
The Contribution of Self-Efficacy of Teachers to Inclusive Education Practices .	127
Chapter Summary	133
CHAPTER V	135
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	135
Level of Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Knowledge, Attitude and Inclusive Education Themes in the Schools	135
Discussion	143
Relationship between Self-Efficacy of the Teachers and Inclusive Education Practices in the Schools	155
Contribution of Teachers' Self-Efficacy to the Different Factors/Themes Relating to Inclusive Education Practices in the Schools	156
Discussion	158
CHAPTER VI.....	166
RECAPITULATION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	166
Recapitulation	166
Limitations of the Study.....	169
Conclusion	170
New Knowledge Contribution	173
Implications.....	174
Policy Implications	174
Implications for School Management Committee (SMC)/Educational Authority	175
Implications for Future Researchers	176
REFERENCES	178
APPENDIX.....	205

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Existing Structural Mechanism of Inclusive Education	46
Figure 2 Conceptual Framework	98

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Interpretations of Medical and Social Models	56
Table 2 Available Schools in the Districts and No. of Teachers	108
Table 3 Visited Schools and Sampled Teachers in the Districts	113
Table 4 Cronbach's Alpha Score for Inclusive Education Practices and Perceptions of Teachers towards Inclusive Education Focus on Hearing Impairment	121
Table 5 Level of Self-Efficacy	129
Table 6 Level of Knowledge	131
Table 7 Level of Attitude	133
Table 8 Level of Inclusive Education Themes Perceived by Teachers	134
Table 9 Level of Roles and Responsibilities of Education Authorities	137
Table 10 Level of Important Knowledge	140
Table 11 Level of Availability of Rights	141
Table 12 Level of Participation	143
Table 13 Level of Learning Environment	145
Table 14 Level of Equality	147
Table 15 Level of Inclusiveness	148
Table 16 Self-Efficacy by the Age of the Teachers	150
Table 17 Self-Efficacy by the Gender of the Teachers	151
Table 18 Self-Efficacy by the Education of the Teachers	152
Table 19 Self-Efficacy by the Experience of the Teachers	153
Table 20 Self-Efficacy by the Types of Disabilities of the Teachers	154
Table 21 Self-Efficacy by the School Category of the Teachers	155
Table 22 Self-Efficacy by the Districts	155
Table 23 Knowledge & Attitude by the Age of the Teachers	158
Table 24 Knowledge & Attitude by the Gender of the Teachers	159
Table 25 Knowledge & Attitude by the Education of the Teachers	159
Table 26 Knowledge & Attitude by the Experience of the Teachers	160
Table 27 Knowledge & Attitude by the Types of Disabilities of the Teachers	161
Table 28 Knowledge & Attitude by the Districts	162
Table 29 Correlation between Self-Efficacy and the Themes of Inclusive Education Practices	164

Table 30 Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness (Considering integrated schools and resource classes) 168

Table 31 Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness (Considering integrated schools, resource classes and special schools) 171

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AR	Availability of Rights
CBR	Community Based Rehabilitation
CERID	Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development
CRE	Creative Activity
CWDs	Children with Disabilities
CWHI	Children with Hearing Impairment
DEO	District Education officer
DoE	Department of Education
ECA	Extra Curriculum Activity
ECD	Early Child Development
EFA	Education for All
EQ	Equality
GWD	Girl with Disability
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS)
HRBA	Human Rights-Based Approach
IEP	Individual Education Plan
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IE	Inclusive Education
IK	Important Knowledge
IN	Inclusiveness
LE	Learning Environment
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non-Government Organization
PART	Participation
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
RCMC	Resource Class Management Committee
RCRD	Resource Center for Rehabilitation and Development Nepal
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SE	Self Efficacy

SIP	School Improvement Plan
SLC	School Leaving Certificate
SMC	School Management Committee
SP	Students' Perception
SPSS	Statistical Package for The Social Sciences
SSRP	School Sector Reform Plan
SWID	Student with Intellectual Disability
TEA	Teachers' Knowledge and Attitude
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNI	University of Northern Iowa

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study explored teachers' perceptions toward inclusive education for children with hearing impairment (CWHI). To determine the perceptions, the teachers' perceptions were looked into regarding the level of self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude and the level of inclusive education in the schools. Similarly, it also examined the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. Furthermore, it revealed the contribution of self-efficacy to different themes of inclusive education practices for children with hearing impairments in the schools.

In Nepal, integrated schools for children with visual impairments and special schools for children with hearing impairments were initiated in 1964 and 1966, respectively. Similarly, special schools for visual and physical impairments were initiated in 1970, whereas special schools for intellectual disabilities were initiated in 1982. Nepal's government formulated a Special Education Policy in 1997 to extend access to education for children with disabilities (Department of Education [DOE], 2016).

Students with hearing impairments have received educational services from special schools, integrated schools, and resource classrooms in Nepal. The Government of Nepal has operated special schools, integrated schools and resource classrooms to provide education services to students with hearing impairments in Nepal (DOE, 2016). This study focused on the perceptions of teachers (teaching in special, integrated, and resource classrooms) towards inclusive education for students with hearing impairments in Nepal. This study focused on inclusive education particularly education for children with hearing impairments, with the responses of the teachers teaching the CWHI in special schools, integrated schools and resource classes. As of MoE (2013), the existing structural mechanism of inclusive education is under Special Need Education Council where there is Inclusive Education Section (IES). Under IES, there is Disability Assessment Center (DAC). Under DAC, there are special schools, integrated schools and resource classes. Thus, both integration and segregation models of inclusive education have been practiced in Nepal (Regmi, 2017).

This chapter begins with a discussion of the broader context of inclusive education, which includes disabilities construct along with the models of disabilities and its connection to inclusive education. It explains the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude and their roles in teaching in the context of inclusive education. After establishing the context and concept of inclusive education and teachers' self-efficacy along with knowledge and attitude toward inclusive education, I state the research problems, the purpose of the study, research questions, rationale and delimitations.

Context of the Study

Disability is a global phenomenon that affects people of all socioeconomic backgrounds, ethnicities, castes, races, genders, communities, places, and economic statuses. Some people are disabled from birth, while others become disabled as a result of specific accidents. According to a WHO and World Bank report (2011), approximately 15% of the world's population is disabled, with the majority of these people living in poor and developing countries.

According to the data 1.94 percent as stated by Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS] (2012) in the population census, have some form of disability in Nepal. The prevalence rate is now 2.2 percent (CBS, 2022). Among them, 2.5 percent male and 2 percent female have some forms of disabilities. Physical disability accounts for 36.75 percent of the disabled population, with Low Vision (16.88 percent), Blind (5.37 percent), Deaf (7.85 percent), Hard of Hearing (7.87 percent), Deaf and Blind (1.56 percent), Speech impairment (6.36 percent), Psycho-social disability (4.2 percent), Intellectual disabilities (1.73 percent), Hemophilia (0.75 percent), Autism (0.75 percent) and Multiple disability (8.78 percent) (CBS, 2022).

Resource Center for Rehabilitation and Development Nepal and Save the Children (2014) reveal that children with disabilities in Nepal are denied access to education and primary hospital care, early intervention, rehabilitation, and a variety of other specific services they are entitled to under the law. Infrastructural hurdles, social prejudice, discriminatory bad treatment in the home, and school rejection are common problems they face.

According to Human Rights Watch (2012), many children with disabilities do not attend formal education. In South Asia, an estimated 29 million children – 12.5 million at primary level and 16.5 million at lower secondary level – were out of school in 2018. Of these, a considerable proportion was estimated to be children with

disabilities (UNESCO, 2018). They are frequently turned down for school entry, and their parents are unaware that their children have the right to education. Children with disabilities have a high dropout rate due to barriers and problems at school and in their families. It also points out that the Nepalese government and the United Nations have made significant progress toward achieving universal primary education as part of its commitment to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Children from marginalized communities, such as children with disabilities, comprise the majority of the 330,000 primary school-aged children who remain out of school in Nepal (Human Rights Watch, 2012). 30.6 percent children with disabilities do not attend school in Nepal (UNICEF, 2016).

The Flash Report (2021/22) states that 1,010,195 children enrolled in Early Child Education Development (ECED), a total of 3272 (0.3 percent) children, have been found to have some sort of disability. In terms of gender, out of 3272 children with disabilities, 1869 (57.1 percent) are girls while the remaining 1403 (42.9 percent) are boys. Out of the 3272 children with disability, 1560 (47.6 percent) have some sort of physical disability, while 687 (21.0 percent) children have a cognitive disability. There are 238 with hearing impairment, 237 with visual impairment, 94 with low vision, 6 with hearing and visual impairment, 181 with a vocal-related disability, and 269 with multiple disabilities (Flash Report, 2021/22). There are 7508 students that have some sort of disabilities which comprise 0.2 percent of the total student at the basic (1-5) level. Similarly, 3470 students have some sort of disabilities at basic (6-8) (Center for Education and Human Resource Development [CEHRD], 2023).

In comparison to the primary level (1-5) and basic level (6-8), the number of students with disabilities in secondary (9-10) and higher secondary (11-12) is less than 1 percent, with 4385 (0.49%) in secondary (9-10) and 1856 (0.26%) in higher secondary (11-12). Amongst the eight types of disabilities, physical disability, which is easily identifiable, comprises 3239 students (60.1%), while deaf and blind remain the least category with 13 such students (0.24%) in secondary (9-10) level of education. The same trend is also seen in the context of students from secondary (11-12) as physical disability tops the list with 872 students (47%) and deaf and blind, remaining at the bottom with nine students (0.48%). In terms of gender, the number of boys with disabilities in secondary (9-10) is 2980 (55% of total), while the number and percentage in secondary (11-12) is 940 (50.6%) (CEHRD, 2023).

From the above information, we can figure out how access to children with disabilities occurs in schools in Nepal. The accessibility of children with hearing impairments and the exclusionary attitude and behavior towards children with hearing impairments are the areas of concern of this study. It has been addressed by investigating teachers' perceptions of inclusive education regarding self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, and educational practices in schools.

I also got the opportunity to go through the Disability Atlas Nepal, 2016, published by the Disability Resource Center, School of Arts, Kathmandu University. According to the document, the top ten districts in Nepal, based on the overall number of children with disabilities, are Accham, Bara, Dang, Jhapa, Kailali, Kathmandu, Morang, Rautahat, Sunsari, and Surkhet. More than 2000 children with disabilities live in these districts. Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, and Mahottari districts have the greatest concentration of people with disabilities in Nepal. There are more than ten people with disabilities per square kilometer in these districts. The Kathmandu district contains more than 2000 people who are deaf. There appears to be no difference in the distribution of deaf and blind people in different development regions. However, the number of people with deafness and blindness increases dramatically from Mountain to Hill and from Hill to Terai districts. The cities with the highest number of people with this sort of impairment are Dang (696) and Kathmandu (309). More than 200 people with deaf-blindness live in Kailali, Nawalparasi, Chitwan, Mahottari, and Morang. Similarly, the top ten districts in terms of the overall number of children with deaf/hard of hearing impairments are Accham, Bajura, Banke, Dang, Doti, Jajarkot, Kailali, Kalikot, Salyan, and Surkhet, with over 280 children.

Furthermore, the top ten districts in terms of the overall number of children with deaf-blindness are Accham, Bara, Bardia, Dang, Kailali, Kanchanpur, Kathmandu, Rautahat, Rupendehi, Salyan, Saptari, and Sarlahi. In Nepal, 1.94 percent of the population is disabled, and males are disproportionately more disabled in terms of number and percentage than females in every category. The prevalence of impairment varies significantly between rural and urban areas. The greatest disparity is for deaf/hard of hearing people, who are 11 times more living in rural areas.

The percentage of people who are deaf or hard of hearing is substantially higher in hill and mountain areas. Females with disabilities are more likely than males with disabilities to suffer from deafness/hard-of-hearing problems. Deaf/hard of hearing problems affect 23 percent of males and 24 percent of females, which is about

double the rate of other population groupings. The percentage of people who are deaf or hard of hearing had three major peaks. Peaks are found in the age ranges from 10-14, 60-64, and 75+.

Through the document, I figured out that a large number of people (1.94%) have one or the other kind of disability in Nepal. Similarly, I also figured out that physical disability is higher in number following blindness/low vision, deaf/hard of hearing, and deaf-blind. I made up my mind to take up research on children with disabilities after coming to terms with the ground realities linked with disabilities. Being an education stream student, I wanted to figure out the vulnerable group of disabilities in terms of education. Since I worked on an inclusion project focusing on women and children for a long time, my mind automatically delved into the issue of children with a disability. So, finally, I was determined to study inclusive education focusing on children with disabilities.

When choosing the category of 'disability' that I would want to focus my study on, I could have chosen any of them, but when I visited some of the schools where children with disabilities study, I decided to focus the study on CWHI by considering special schools, integrated schools and resource classes. In special schools also, the diverse students in terms of their ethnicity, gender, and intensity (mild, hard) of deafness among children with hearing impairments can be found thus I decided to include special education availed special schools for CWHI. A particular category of disability will have also differences within themselves. When we talk about children with disabilities, among similar categories, there will also be undeniably inclusivity/diversity. We can take the example of children with hearing impairments. Hearing loss is defined by WHO (2021) as the inability to hear, as well as someone with normal hearing, with hearing thresholds of 20 dB or better in both ears. Hearing loss can range from mild to severe to profound. It can affect one or both ears, making it difficult to hear conversational speech or loud sounds. Such diversity can be found in other forms of disabilities in those who are studying in special education settings.

Discussing with the experts on disability and inclusive education by considering the vulnerability and problem in getting a better education, I concluded that there is an acute problem and challenge for the CWHI to get a better education. There is no doubt that each disabled child faces unique problems and challenges, but I came to the conclusion that there are hidden problems and challenges that teachers

and students face in the schools where CWHI attends. So, I wanted to know the actual problems and challenges in implementing CWHI-focused inclusive education in Nepal. That can be made possible by analyzing the perceptions of teachers teaching children in special education, integrated schools, and resource classes. As a result, I decided to conduct a research study on the topic.

In general, inclusive education welcomes all children and is based on the principle that "no child should be left behind" regarding children's educational rights. Thus, this research aimed to learn about teachers' attitudes toward the concept of inclusive education available for children with hearing impairments in Nepal through the perceptions of teachers teaching at resource classes, special classes, and integrated schools. The special schools were also incorporated as a structural arrangement of Nepal (MoE, 2013) for special needs education and inclusivity within the same group. Norwich (2013) also indicated that inclusive education represents various dimensions. It represents presence in the same group, engagement in academic learning, and social belonging within the same group of disabilities (Norwich, 2013). He further mentioned that being in a separate class or unit for certain difficulties can also be seen as a perspective of inclusion.

Concept of Inclusive Education, Inclusivity and Special Education

It is a broad concept that goes beyond simply 'accommodating' people who have been denied access to education. According to Barton (1997), inclusive education responds to diversity by listening to unidentified viewpoints, being open, empowering all members, and respectfully honoring 'differences.'

Inclusive education addresses and responds to the students' diverse needs in the classroom, at school, and in society, thereby minimizing exclusion from and within education, regardless of the reasons for exclusion. It is concerned with eradicating all learning barriers and ensuring the involvement of all learners who are at risk of exclusion and marginalization. It is a deliberate strategy to make learning easier for all children. It aims to reduce obstacles to education, at least at the elementary level, and improve access, participation, and learning achievement in high-quality basic education for all (UNESCO, 2005).

As UNESCO (2008) stated, every learner matters equally and has the right to effective educational opportunities, and there is a shift in the concept of inclusive education. Adopting a broader view of inclusion as a concern for all learners, the concern for including children with disabilities remains an important strand on the

international policy agenda. The right to inclusive education has also been emphasized in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD, 2006). It states that the right to inclusive education encompasses a transformation in culture, policy, and practice in all educational environments to accommodate individual students' differing requirements and identities, together with a commitment to remove the barriers that impede that possibility.

Inclusive education represents various dimensions, such as presence in the same group, engagement in academic learning, and social belonging (Norwich, 2013). A student can be included in one dimension but not necessarily in the others. Inclusion is also multi-level in the sense that to be included is to be included in a specific setting and these settings are embedded within each other. So, being included in one setting might also involve being excluded from another (Norwich, 2013). For example, being in a separate class or unit for behaviour difficulties can be seen as inclusion in an ordinary school (inclusion with reference to ordinary versus special schooling) but exclusion from an ordinary classroom (exclusion with reference to ordinary versus special class) (Norwich, 2013). So, the multi-dimensional/level of inclusion within the same group of children is the current need for discussion in inclusive education.

With the clarification of Article 24 of the CRPD, 2006, there seems to be a connection between inclusive education and disability inclusion. It specifies what inclusive education means concurrently with the formulation of the SDGs. It recognizes the following: the ongoing discrimination against people with disabilities that prevents a significant number of them from receiving an education; the continued lack of awareness of the barriers that prevent the realization of the right to an education; the lack of knowledge about the nature, potential, and implications of inclusive education; the lack of sufficient data for decision-making; the failure to recognize the case for inclusion; and the need for clarification and definition of inclusive education and strategies for implementation (UNESCO, 2020).

The CRPD's Article 24 (2006) outlines the right to education for people with disabilities and gives a general overview of the key elements required to realize that right. Although the Salamanca Statement was the first normative instrument to reference inclusive education, the CRPD implies compliance and sanctions for noncompliance. In contrast, the Salamanca Statement encouraged governments to make a commitment. A number of important basic ideas are introduced in General

Commitment No. 4 (GC4) to Article 24 of the CRPD for a more comprehensive understanding of inclusive education as inclusive education for all. There is a presumption that an educational system that can provide quality inclusive education for children with disabilities can also provide quality inclusive education to all students, similar to the Salamanca statement (UNESCO, 2020).

The basic foundation of inclusive education is that all students, without exception, have equal access to services in the school setting and share a shared curriculum that strongly emphasizes meeting each individual's needs (Ainscow, 2005). In relation to the preceding concept of inclusive education, the term inclusion is associated with inclusive education. The four elements of inclusion are very important in an inclusive education or education system (Ainscow, 2005). It must be understood that inclusion is a process; inclusion is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers; inclusion is about the presence, participation and achievement of all students; and inclusion involves a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalisation, exclusion or underachievement (Ainscow, 2005). It indicates that education is the right of every child and that inclusive education ensures the right to education for all children, those who are vulnerable and at risk. Similarly, inclusive education is a strategic idea that incorporates the learning needs of vulnerable children.

In 1994, the idea of inclusive education was formed at the World Conference on Special Needs Education in Salamanca, Spain. Inclusive Education is, in fact, an educational system that guarantees children the right to high-quality education in a bias-free, multicultural environment that equitably addresses their diverse needs shaped by caste, gender, language, culture, geographical variation (extreme), poverty, disability, and other adversities. The oppressed, marginalized, Dalit, indigenous people and minorities, deprived of facilities and suffering from social and cultural persecution, should be included in this definition. Inclusive education also focuses on children afflicted by conflict, human trafficking, and diseases linked to superstition (CERID, 2006).

Special education has been accepted as an identity of children with disabilities, and special provisions are to be provided for children with hearing, physical, visual and intellectual impairments. In the context of children with disabilities, different programs are being conducted to ensure accessibility for the children and create an environment for them where conduction of resource classes, brail, accessible

textbooks including sign language textbooks are managed. There are 380 resource class schools, 33 special schools, and 23 integrated schools around the country for visual, hearing, and intellectual impairments. In Nepal, 74,829 students with disabilities (ECD to Secondary level) are enrolled in such schools (DoE, 2016).

The concept of inclusivity in education became a reality with the establishment of Education for All (EFA) in Nepal. As a result of inclusive education, children are labeled as disabled, disadvantaged, and marginalized. The disability category included children who were blind, deaf, physically helpless, or intellectually impaired. In contrast, dalit, ethnic minority-group, and remote dwellers children and girls were included in the disadvantaged category, and orphan, street, and bonded-labour children were included in the marginalization category. Under inclusive education, 13 groups were recognized, including sexually abused, in prison, and ill children and they were branded as Special Focus Groups (CERID, 2006). The Act relating to the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2017) categorizes disability into ten types: physical, hearing, vision, voice, and speech disability, deaf and blindness, Mental and psychosocial disabilities, intellectual disabilities, hemophilia, autism, and multiple disabilities have all opened up new avenues in disability discourse. This research study focuses on children with hearing impairments in this context to analyze the context and challenges of inclusive education.

Thus, the foundational construct of this study in inclusive education is disability. Rioux (1997) discusses that the disability construct has three major perspectives. The first approach, the biomedical approach, views disability as a medical or physical condition that can be prevented or reduced through biological, pharmacological, or genetic interventions. Second, according to the functional approach, disability is viewed as an individual condition that emphasizes addressing the functional impairment it causes. The rest is a rights-based approach to disability that sees disability as a result of how society is structured and the interaction between society and the individual.

In the biological or medical approach, disability is viewed as a disease. According to the medical model, people with disabilities (PWDs) differ from the norm. This attitude toward impairment reinforces the notion that people with disabilities are inferior to their able-bodied peers (Retief & Letsosa, 2018). 'The medical paradigm of disability interpretation presents a dualism that categorizes those who are able-bodied as 'better' or superior to those who are disabled,' writes Johnstone

(2012). In the social or socio-ecological model, disability is viewed as a socially produced condition. According to the social model, also known as the minority model, society is what "disables persons with disabilities," so any effective remedy must prioritize societal change over individual adjustment and rehabilitation (Barnes et al., 2010, p. 164).

In terms of inclusion, the biomedical model does not consider a person with a disability to be an able person in comparison to a person without a disability (Rioux, 1997). As a result, the inclusion of such people in societal change was missing in this model. However, the social model emphasizes societal rather than individual change. So, from an inclusion standpoint, the possibility of social adjustment for persons with disabilities can be identified, but the view does not believe that disability should be treated from a rights-based perspective.

The third perspective, the 'Right-outcome Approach,' as Rioux (1997) suggests, is more appropriate for this study. The rights-based or right-outcome approach to meeting the educational needs of hearing-impaired children is considered in this context, where it is believed that people with hearing disabilities have equitable educational rights that must be accessible and achievable to children for the state to guarantee them. Inclusive education is required to protect the rights of children with hearing impairment.

Inclusive education is seen both as a process and as an approach. As an approach, it aims to support a good learning environment for all kids while addressing the need to alter the educational system (Barton, 2003) and taking into account the variety of learners (UNESCO, 2003). The goal of inclusive education as an approach is to support all students' learning in regular classes (Korkmaz, 2011) and promote mainstreaming for those who are disadvantaged for any reason (Thomas, 1997). As a process, inclusive education hears children's voices and brings up concerns about the quality and justice of education (Miles & Singal, 2010). Additionally, it encourages a critical analysis of educational institution structures and teaching methods in order to improve pedagogy and competence (Daniels & Garner, 1999).

There are several perspectives on disability. Dyson's rights, efficacy, political, and pragmatic (1999); the perspectives on reform by Mittler (2000), democratic by Engelbrecht (1999), disability by UNESCO (2002), critical by Berlach & Chambers (2011), and human rights by Cologon (2013) are also included. According to the disability perspective, providing inclusive education for students with disabilities is

the right course of action. The medical model and the social model are two distinct models used by the disability viewpoint to conceptualize impairments. The medical model views disability as a personal tragedy that inhibits a person's ability to engage in society at large and believes that the fault is with the person, not with the environment or with societal barriers (UNESCO, 2002).

As contrast to being the creators of their own lives, people with disabilities are treated as objects in the medical model. The social model, in contrast, focuses on the dynamic interaction between an individual and their environment and calls attention to the environment in order to comprehend disability (Goodley & Runswick, 2011). This concept contends that the social environment in which persons with disabilities must live is what prevents them from participating fully in society (UNESCO, 2002). In contrast to the medical model of disability, the social model has placed more emphasis on the common identities, cultures, and experiences of those with disabilities. According to the social model, it is the duty of every society to care for those with disabilities and encourage their meaningful and respectful involvement in daily life.

Prior to 1997, the medical model of disability was prevalent in Nepal; however, after 1997, the medical model gave way to the social model of disability (Kafle, 2002). The social model of disability from the standpoint of human rights serves as the foundation for this study. Thus, the HRBA approach has been used in this study.

Three ideas have been proposed in Nepal to ensure the right of children with disabilities to education: Special schools, Resource classrooms and Integrated Schools. Special school education is designed specifically for children with visual impairments, hearing impairments, autism, intellectual disabilities, hard of hearing, and complex disabilities. According to the Nepalese Education Act (1971 & 2019), these groups of children must be educated separately, although there is inclusivity within the same group. In Nepal, there is no specific practice of inclusive education, but the practices of special schools, integrated schools and resource classes for the children with disabilities within the inclusive education framework of special needs education for providing education to children with disabilities are considered inclusive education. Thus, inclusive education has been practiced in three setups, Special Schools, Resource classrooms, and Integrated Schools, to ensure children's educational rights in Nepal. The integration and segretaiion models of inclusive

education have been practiced in Nepal (Regmi, 2017). Inclusive education practices are being implemented primarily to provide children's educational rights under the motto 'no child should be left behind' (United Nations, 2018) from educational rights. As a result, the study theorization is linked to special education in some way. The theorizing of disability in special education involves a functionalist paradigm that is more inclined to a medical or behaviorist model that deals with the pathological aspect of disability and demands possible intervention and healing process. Furthermore, it includes an alternative post-modern perspective that is more inclined to the social constructivist model, which treats disability as a distinct social construct to consider the inclusion of the disabled (Zaretsky, 2005).

Post-modern thinking in special education is more concerned with responding to scientific or objective efforts to describe the realistic context of disability. Several scholars, including Danforth and Rhodes (1997), Peters (2004), and Skrtic (1995), are skeptical of explanations of normal and deviance within stated categories of exceptionalities that are thought to be valid and true. Their perspectives on disability are brought in, valuing a disabled individual's relative truths or self-construction of reality (Zaretsky, 2005).

According to the Open Society Foundation (2012), no public education system in the world is entirely free of educational inequity. Even in prosperous countries, nearly three-quarters of poor children complete secondary school, compared to 90% of wealthy children (UNESCO, 2009). While significant cross-country differences exist in the types, extent, and magnitude of systematic disparities in educational opportunities and policy responses, the central question is whether education policy mediates or reinforces such inequalities (Open Society Foundations, 2012). As a result, inclusive education has become one of the most widely embraced policy directives to address the difficulties of unequal educational opportunities for people with disabilities in public education systems (Open Society Foundations, 2012). As concluded by Open Society Foundations, inclusive education is a policy-based directive through which the right to education of children with disabilities or persons with disabilities is ensured through a systematic approach to educational arrangements.

In general assumptions, inclusive education for children with disabilities, including those with hearing impairments, functions in Nepal. However, it is necessary to ascertain whether the actual practice of inclusive education, with children

with hearing impairments in mind, is being considered in Nepal. The main areas of concern of this study are whether the main practitioners or teachers practiced it properly and with its essence and how the teachers perceive inclusive education when practicing it with CWHI in a school in Nepal. CWHI is the focus of this study in inclusive education, where Nepalese teachers' perceptions of inclusive education toward CWHI are explored and revealed.

Rationale of the Study

Education is the right of every child/citizen regardless of age, gender, caste, ethnicity, race, disability, and any form of vulnerability. The Constitution of Nepal (2015) guarantees that citizens with disabilities have the right to free higher education, and the CWHI has the right to get free education through sign. Similarly, the human rights-based approach has guaranteed children's right to education as fundamental rights in terms of child rights of access to education, the right to quality education, and the right to respect within the learning environment.

Providing education to children is primarily the state's duty and responsibility, and the state should work to improve education for all children. However, the state does not always fulfill it equitably due to a lack of resources and managerial issues. Policy and practice gaps may exist in implementing every child's education provisions effectively.

Regarding CWDs and their education, some policies and provisions are available in Nepal. These policies are meant to provide better education to the children, and it is necessary to figure out whether these policies and provisions are contributing to the education of such children or not. In the area of CWDs, there are some studies carried out focusing on intellectual disability, physical disability, visual impairment, and overall disabilities, but less focused on CWHI and their education (Thapaliya, 2018; Thapa, 2012; Dawadi, 2019; Shrestha, 2019).

Children's education is always a pertinent issue and is even more relevant when discussing children with disabilities. The CWDs, including the CWHI, are taking special, integrated and resource classes for their education. The teachers are teaching them in the schools. The perceptions of the teachers directly involved in teaching the children are a crucial issue to discuss and reveal so that the better and quality education assumed by the policies and provisions, including the theoretical perspectives, can be possible. Therefore, this study aims to figure out the perceptions of school teachers towards inclusive education. Along with integrated and resource

classes, the special education is also there in the framework of special needs education of Nepal (MoE, 2013) and there is obvious inclusivity (mild to severe to profound as of WHO, 2021) within the special education setting of CWHI. Thus, the study rationale is there to find out the perceptions of teachers teaching to special schools in revealing out the situation of special education settings also. Besides, the Special Education Policy (1996) also provides for integrated schools. That means the integration of the students has also been acknowledged by the special education policy.

The study tries to check the practice of inclusive education in schools through teachers' perceived level of inclusive education and teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude. Thus, the relevance of the study is to know the practices of inclusive education in schools through the perceived views of the teachers.

This study is the pioneer and relevant one in the Nepali context to reveal teachers' perceptions toward providing education for students with hearing impairments, considering their self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude level.

On the one hand, this research examines teachers' perceptions of CWHI-focused educational practices in Nepal regarding self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude, and inclusive education practices in the classroom. On the other hand, it investigates the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, including teachers' self-contribution to various factors/themes of inclusive education practices through the perceived views of the teachers teaching at integrated schools and resource classes. Thus, the study's rationale is to identify teachers' perceptions of inclusive education through their levels in the schools and conclude with the overall connection of teachers' self-efficacy to inclusive educational practices.

The level of perceptions can also be determined using the qualitative method, but the quantitative method is best suited for revealing the actual level of perceptions of teachers in objective justification dealing with the level of perceptions in terms of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude. The quantitative research method attempts to investigate the answers to the questions, starting with how many, how much, and to what extent (Rasinger, 2013). In this context, the quantifiable measurement of perceptions can only be possible through a quantitative approach. Besides, the quantitative findings are likely to be generalized to a whole population or a sub-population because they involve a larger randomly selected sample (Carr, 1994). Teachers' perceptions need to be generalized to all children with hearing

impairments based on the teaching approach. Thus, this study applies a quantitative method to ensure the level of teachers' perceptions toward the inclusion of CWHI.

Similarly, this quantitative research figures out the level of teachers' perceptions and the relationship between dependent (inclusive education practices) and independent variables (teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude). It is believed that the wider level of perceptions towards CWHI-focused inclusive education can only be figured out with a wide range of quantitative data from the respondents directly involved in providing education to CWHI.

It is expected that this study will contribute genuinely to figuring out the self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude, and practices of the teachers teaching in the schools. Through the level of self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and practices, the gaps will be identified in the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, along with the implementation status of inclusive education practices in the schools. Through these gaps identification, the study provides inputs to even policy level to enrich the quality of such schools in terms of teachers' capacity, teaching aptitude and attitudinal skills so that the overall inclusive education practices of the schools are enriched. This newly produced idea will be potentially used and advocated by education activists, education academics, development practitioners, development experts and social awareness implementers for their research, awareness and advocacy purposes to ensure the right to education of all children, including the rights of every CWHI. Specifically, the study findings will be useful to academia in identifying the level of teachers and inclusive education practices in the schools so that they can further contribute as recommendations for a policy of quality education for children with disabilities. Further, the study's findings in terms of contributions of self-efficacy to inclusive education practices will contribute to generating ideas on how to cultivate teachers' self-efficacy to enhance the quality of inclusive educational practices in schools. The approach of self-efficacy and its contribution will benefit children with disabilities, especially children with hearing impairments.

Statement of the Problem

Inclusive education incorporates all diversity in terms of gender, caste, creeds, ethnicity, disability, conflict-affected situation, sexual minority, and others into the mission of free and quality education in a nation without discrimination. This ideological concept has a prime challenge when there is a policy and practice gap in its implementation. While discussing inclusive education and its problems, the policy

level gaps come first, but the problems will not always be with policy since its proper practices will be a challenge in countries like Nepal.

When it comes to providing quality education to children with disabilities, there are issues and hurdles. According to the 2016 'Inclusive Education Policy for Persons with Disabilities,' there is a problem with mainstreaming children with disabilities in education due to a lack of accountability on the part of family members, the community, and schools. Even with a social inclusion policy, there are challenges in obtaining desired results by assuring impaired children's quality of life and self-sufficiency. Because peer learning and child-centered activities are unsuccessful, there is a risk of social marginalization and educational derailment. There is a lack of administrative oversight in the administration and development of human resources to provide quality education and training programs for children with disabilities.

Similarly, there is no structure to keep data and information about many types of impaired children up to date. There is no systematic modern information technology to facilitate the learning process for impaired youngsters, which has hampered their learning. Furthermore, there are insufficient investigative studies and methods for disabled-friendly evaluation, exam systems, and learning management (DoE, 2016). The access gap is a major problem for children with disabilities, poor, remote, lower-caste families, and ethnic minorities. Numerous factors contribute to the systematic hurdles to the education of children with disabilities. There are also demand-based factors, such as a lack of awareness among parents and communities, as well as a lack of capacity on the part of school management committees, including parent associations, to curtail such children's access to quality education (National Institute for Research and Training, 2017).

The school environment is not properly accessible to all forms of children with disabilities, even if there are available policies and procedures on child-friendly and inclusive education managed by the government. This is simply a denial of the right to education for children. There are a lot of barriers that curtail the learning needs of all forms of children with disabilities in schools. The barriers are physical, communication, attitudinal and curricular. The physical barriers include the non-availability of ramps and disability-friendly toilets; the communication barrier includes no proper sign language and braille teaching materials. The attitudinal barrier is the negative attitude of the teachers (Human Rights Watch, 2011).

Further, DoE (2014) indicated that some resource classes set for all forms of children with disabilities were being operated beyond the norms of inclusive education. It was found that there are some obstructing factors to the admission, retention, and promotion of children with disabilities in classrooms (DoE, 2014). Different aspects of disability are not systematically illustrated, which has always impacted the lives of persons with disabilities in Nepal (Baral, 2018). There seems to be a partial inclusion practiced in special needs education (Sugimura & Takeuchi, 2017). Regmi (2017) mentioned that the practice of inclusive education in schools is critically lacking in effective inclusive pedagogy within the available policies on inclusive education specially designed for children with disabilities in Nepal. The study further reveals that the pedagogical approaches are lapsed due to several factors like ineffective teachers, less inclusive practice in the schools, lack of coordination of the community and schools, and minimally available financial resources.

In line with the findings, Thapaliya (2018) indicated that there are contradictions in the contents of policies in Nepal that are more inclined to the medical approach to disability. There is a contradiction in government and society perspectives on disability where the society believes that disability is because of the evil deeds of the particular persons, which automatically contributes to discrimination, stigmatization, segregation and eventually exclusion from the society itself. The attitudes of teachers and parents are found to be negative towards disability, which is affected by sociocultural ideology, barriers in texts and curriculum, and confusing policies. It revealed that there are different significant factors influencing teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education, such as teacher type, age, gender, education levels, coursework, and residence (Aryal, 2013).

The enrollment of girl children and diverse caste and ethnicity-based children in the school have been achieved to some extent that can be justified through several research findings either, but the situation of all forms of children with disabilities in the schools (special, integrated and resource class), their learning achievements and even the teaching-learning process to them in special schools, integrated and resource class seem to be undoubtedly miserable. The pathetic situation of children with disabilities in school and their teaching-learning problems have always been the issue and challenge of inclusive education in Nepal, which different researchers have figured out. Looking at the scenario, this type of problem is not only because of the policy gap in inclusive education for children with disabilities but also because of the

practice gap in most of the schools. When we talk about the practice gap, the practitioners' "teachers" undoubtedly practice inclusive education essence in schools for children with disabilities.

Specifically, when we talk about children with hearing impairments, these children are obliged to share a common learning environment in an integrated learning setting even if they have specific needs, interests and learning styles (Human Rights Watch, 2018). This has negatively affected children with hearing impairments by curtailing their learning needs. For all types of children with hearing impairments, there is a culture of monolithic educational approach in most of the schools in Nepal. Due to poor instructional delivery processes and a monolithic educational approach, a number of children with disabilities, including those with hearing loss, quit their school education in earlier grades (Human Rights Watch, 2011). Similarly, a significant number of primary school-age children, basically children with disabilities, including hearing loss, are deprived of education (DoE, 2015). Burkett (2013) mentioned that a monolithic curriculum, conventional instructional techniques, similar instructional materials, and general assessment processes do not work in favor of children with disabilities, including children with hearing impairments. Thus, there is a need for a differentiated instructional approach to different forms of children with hearing impairments, but that has not been initiated in Nepal. As we know that both segregation and integration models are practiced in the form of inclusive education in Nepal (Regmi, 2017). The segregation is special schools, whereas integration is resource classes and integrated schools that are practiced in Nepal for the education of children with disabilities. Jairaj (2020) also mentioned that the segregation or integration models of inclusive education will be determined by the diversity of the children within the same group on their cognitive level, behavioral and medical conditions. The segregation model is the special model, whereas the integration model is the integrated and resource classes models. From the perspectives of disability models, segregation is the medical model, whereas integration is the social model of disability (Regmi, 2017). How segregation and integration models must work together in inclusive education is an area of discussion these days that has to be explored.

After accumulating all these contexts of inclusive education and the situation of children with disabilities/CWHI, I pondered on some plausible questions about the education of children with disabilities. I learned that the situation of children with disabilities is very much vulnerable when we talk about the learning opportunity for

these children. There is the availability of schools for these children, but their learning opportunities are still being curtailed due to a lack of effective teaching-learning practices and environment in the schools. The sign language provision is there for the education of CWHI in most schools, but I figured out that there are some problems with implementing it in the schools.

Different research studies (Whalen, 2009; Macmillan & Meyer, 2006; Simpson et al., 2003; Moore & Esselman, 1992) prove that self-efficacy is the primary predictor of effective inclusive education practices. However, there is research gap in Nepal to determine the contribution of self-efficacy to inclusive education practices. The policies and provisions for children with disabilities, especially CWHI, do not regulate effective practice in schools. Students are getting an education based on their teachers' extent of desire to deliver. The review of different literature based on the inclusion of children with disabilities and inclusive education (Margaret, 2013; Charema, 2010; Aryal, 2013; Brandt, 2015; Dawadi, 2019) shows that there are minimum studies carried out in a quantitative approach. The subjectivity of the subject matters is somehow fulfilled through the available research designs. There seems to be a gap in determining and checking the facts through objectively analyzed findings on teachers' perceptions of inclusive education. Thus, the quantitative method seems best suited to verify the findings resulting from the set variables of the study parameter. Thus, I came up with these questions, are the levels of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude up to the level in the schools to support children with hearing impairments for their learning? What is the level of inclusive education practices in schools that deliver inclusive education? Is this the policy gap or practice gap to implement inclusive education effectively in Nepal in the context of CWHI? Is CWHI vulnerable to getting an education as prescribed by a human rights-based approach and sustainable development goals? What do the teachers think when teaching the CWHI? Are the teachers adequately satisfied with the roles and responsibilities of educational authority, the availability of rights, participation, inclusiveness, equality, important knowledge needed, and the school's learning environment? Is teaching CWHI a problem related to implementation? What is the teachers' self-efficacy contribution to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices in implementing effective inclusive education to CWHI? Do teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude differ according to their demographic variables? Is there any relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and different

themes of inclusive education practices prescribed theoretically in the schools? Are theoretical features of inclusive education practices adjusted and applied when we talk about inclusive education in Nepal? And which level of interventions is strictly needed to implement the concept of inclusive education for CWHI in Nepal? Is it state level or school level? What are the available models on disability, and how do these models work together to create segregation and integration models of inclusive education?

There is a need for Nepali school instructors better to grasp inclusive education for all children with disabilities. However, this has not been researched extensively in the Nepali context. There were different research carried out in the field of disabilities in Nepal previously, but I figured out that the problems and challenges in implementing inclusive education and disability-based education were not dealt with minutely through the set indicators/themes of inclusive education in Nepal (Thapa, 2012; Dawadi, 2019; Shrestha, 2019). The studies have indicated that diverse factors determine the implementation status of inclusive education. However, the major determining factor is the perceptions of teachers, which include teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude in implementing inclusive education, which was not analyzed objectively by the prior studies.

Thus, this study has tried to figure out the perceptions of teachers toward inclusive education in terms of their level of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, along with the level of inclusive education in the schools where children with hearing impairments study in Nepal. This research is based on the teachers' perceived ideas towards inclusive education, their attitude and knowledge in teaching hearing-impaired children in schools, and their level of self-efficacies in implementing inclusive education practices (integrated and resource classes) in schools.

Purpose of the Study

The study aimed to find the perceptions of school teachers teaching children with hearing impairments (special, integrated, and resource class schools) in terms of the level of self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude of teachers, examine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices (only in integrated schools and resource classes) and find out the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the factors/themes of inclusive education practices.

Research Questions

1. What are the teachers' perceptions towards inclusive education considering their self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, including inclusive educational practices for children with hearing impairments?
2. To what extent do the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude toward inclusive education differ across age, gender, education, experience, disability types, school categories and districts of the teachers?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive educational practices in school?
4. What is the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the themes of inclusive education practices in schools?

Delimitation of the Study

The study is delimited to special schools, resource classes and integrated schools where CWHI students study. The scope of this study is focused on children with hearing impairments. In special education also, particular categories of disability will have also differences. In special schools of Nepal and worldwide, most forms of children with intellectual disabilities, all forms of children with hearing impairments and all forms of children with vision impairments are getting special education in one setting. There is an obvious diversity within the particular group. The diversity in terms of biographic differences including socio-economic background, levels/intensities of disabilities within similar categories can be found in the special setting also. The intersectionality of special education and inclusion in special education has several layers. From an inclusion perspective also, when there is diversity in terms of hearing loss intensity and others, the inclusive education practices needed to be figured out in special schools also. Thus, this study included special schools, integrated schools, and resource classes as sample categories. It focused on teachers' and head teachers' perceptions of CWHI-focused inclusive education concerning their self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude toward inclusive education practices in the schools. Further, the available policies, reports and resources in line with CWHI and children with disabilities with their status were considered. The main approaches for the study are inclusive education and educational theory, as well as human rights-based and sustainable development goals from the CWHI perspective. Since the study is inclusive education, the thematic and theoretical ground was created as per the principles of inclusive education and

educational theory only, which is very much inclined to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Child, 1989. Besides, the social model of disability with some arguments on the medical model are the basis for this study. There could be a lot of other theories and dimensions to carry out the study on inclusive education with a focus on hearing impairment. The teachers' perception is one of the dimensions that were picked by this study with the idea of inclusive education and educational theory and its seven elements only to reveal broader perspectives and actual scenarios of CWHI-focused inclusive education in the schools. The study could be broader in terms of accumulating the perceptions of teachers from general schools either, but the study chose to focus on the teachers who are teaching in the schools where CWHI studies so that the objective reality could be ensured to the greatest level of perfection. The focus of the study is better learning achievements of the CWHI, and the study has provided implications basically from that angle. The study is also delimited to check the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices and find out the contribution of self-efficacy to inclusive education practices only. In finding out the relationship of teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, special schools' responses were not used in the study to ensure accuracy.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into eight chapters. The first chapter begins with an introduction to the study, followed by a statement of the problem, purpose, research questions, explanation of concepts, rationale, and delimitation of the study.

Chapter second reviews the relevant literature related to the thesis subject matter. The review includes defining inclusive education, policies and provisions for children with disabilities education in Nepal, a theoretical review in line with self-efficacy, approaches to review empirical findings, and a theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter three outlines the research methodology with philosophical considerations, research design, study area, population and sample, tools, techniques and data collection plan, data analysis and interpretation, reliability and validity, and ethical consideration.

The fourth chapter deals with the data presentation and analysis. The data analysis includes descriptive, correlational, and binary logistic regression analysis that is in line with the research questions. The descriptive analysis presents the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education themes, along

with demographic variables through a Likert scale score in terms of mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value. In correlational analysis, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in schools. In regression analysis, the contribution of self-efficacy to different factors of inclusive education practices in the schools is presented.

The fifth chapter is the findings and discussion chapter as per the first, second, third and fourth research questions set for the study. The level of perceptions of school teachers (teaching hearing-impaired students) towards inclusive education focusing on hearing impairment in Nepal is presented. In this regard, the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education practices are presented. Similarly, teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude by age, gender, education, experience, disability, types of school categories and districts are presented with the support of different empirical findings. This chapter also discusses the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in schools, which is presented with logic through empirical findings. This chapter further discusses the contribution of self-efficacy to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices with the claim through different findings.

Finally, the sixth chapter recapitulates, concludes, and provides implications. The implications are drawn for the policy and SMC/educational authority levels.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter begins by defining inclusive education and reviewing policies and provisions on inclusive education in different countries. It contains a review of relevant theories, concepts and similar empirical research on inclusive education, basically on inclusive education practices and perceptions in terms of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude. This literature review chapter also contains the theoretical base of inclusive education and educational theory, including the approaches, mainly HRBA, to education for all and SDG towards inclusive education by highlighting their objectives and considerations.

Defining Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is a process that involves transforming schools and other centers to make learning easier for children, students of all castes and creeds, linguistic minorities, rural populations, HIV/AIDS patients, and those with disabilities and learning difficulties, including youth and adults. Positive attitudes and a lack of reaction to variety in race, economic status, social class, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual diversity, and ability are all targets of inclusive education. Education occurs in various formal and informal settings within families and the larger community. As a result, inclusive education is more than a side problem; it is a critical component of achieving high-quality education for all students and the drive to create a more inclusive society. The importance of inclusive education in ensuring social fairness and lifelong learning cannot be overstated (UNESCO, 2009). In inclusive education, all students, without exception, have equal access to services in the school setting. All students share a curriculum that heavily emphasizes meeting each person's needs (Ainscow, 2005).

The guiding principle of inclusive education suggested by UNESCO (2017) is that each child is important and he/she must be treated equally. So, it offers a systematic framework for identifying and removing barriers for vulnerable populations (UNESCO, 2017). Since it is the foundation of a leading educational system that enables every child, adolescent, and adult to learn and realize their full potential, the world has committed to inclusive education. Inclusion cannot be achieved if people believe that learners' ability levels are set or if inclusion is seen as a

burden. Education systems must be sensitive to the requirements of all students (UNESCO, 2020). A deliberate and systematic endeavor, inclusive education entails providing need-based support, counseling, evaluation, curricular adjustments, and remedial instruction (Chauhan, 2018).

As UNESCO indicates, inclusive education is more focused on ensuring social fairness. Social fairness is inclined to the principle of 'leave no one behind' from educational rights as ensured by national and international policies and provisions. The primary tenet of an inclusive school is that students should be able to study as much as possible together without any barriers or disparities. Inclusive schools can meet the diverse needs of the students who attend by incorporating various pedagogical styles and learning approaches and providing quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational management, teaching ideas, appropriate resource use, and community collaboration. Inclusive education requires various supports and services to meet the needs of students with special needs encountered in schools (Salamanca, 1994, as cited in The Basic and Primary Education Master Plan 1997-2002).

Inclusive education is the inclusion of students of all kinds of diversity in the classroom, be it gender equality, socio-economic heterogeneity, religion, language, or culture. There are different nuances of inclusive education. The cognitive level, behavioral and medical conditions of the students will determine whether the children with disabilities to be kept in the form of segregation or integration models of inclusive education (Jairaj, 2020). Social inclusion, however, is a must for everybody. Students can learn so much from interacting with one another. Their peers have to learn from them as well. People with disabilities exist and they are all around us and they enrich our lives in their own ways (Jairaj, 2020). From this perspective also, inclusive education talks about segregation and integration models of inclusion where children with disabilities must get an education on his/her conditions. The segregation and integration models of inclusive education have been accepted by Nepal in providing education to children with disabilities (Regmi, 2017).

Inclusive Education Practices

The actual level of inclusive education varies significantly between and even within schools in many different countries. There appears to be significant ambiguity over how to foster inclusive environments in schools and how to instruct inclusively,

according to Allan's (2008) conclusion. There appears to be a discrepancy between inclusive education's conceptions and implementations in every nation.

Most nations still practice a dichotomy between special and ordinary education within the concept of inclusion (Anastasiou et al., 2008; Hardy & Woodcock, 2015; Haug, 2014). A consequence is that placement has become decisive and has contributed to the notion that inclusive education is mostly about how to organize teaching. This reductionist process threatens to narrow the complexity of inclusive education to a single-oriented concentration on students' placement as the only element, as in earlier integration practice. Recent neo-liberal and individualistic values and developments encourage this view (Arduin, 2015; Kreitz-Sandberg, 2015). In many nations, the scope of special education has expanded along with the labeling, diagnosing, and even segregation of students with impairments (Allan, 2008; Anastasiou et al., 2015; Graham & Jahnukainen, 2011). There are several nations where the quality and development of education for kids with disabilities is still lacking. Some nations believe that inclusive education only pertains to the education of children with disabilities. The provision of educational opportunities for students with disabilities, even in special schools with specialized teachers segregated from the larger school system, is what is meant by inclusive education (Miles & Singal, 2010).

The larger objective of including all students in school is still notably absent from international legislation when discussing the global inclusive education scenario. Out of 194 nations, only Chile, Portugal, Italy, Luxembourg, Paraguay, and Italy have inclusive education policies that apply to all students. In 1977, Italy became the first country to close special schools so pupils with impairments could attend regular schools. Since then, other statutes, regulations, and guidelines have expanded the law's application. Comparatively, just 5% of nations have inclusive education laws that only apply to those with disabilities. In accordance with a 2017 order from Colombia, students with impairments must attend the same educational institutions as the general public. Additionally, "specific plans of acceptable assistance and adaptations" were established by the decree to ensure that students with disabilities could learn in a way that respected their learning rhythms and styles (UNESCO, 2020).

In their general education statutes, 8% of nations worldwide reference inclusive education. In 2018, Peru established a law on inclusive education that included the general education law's article 19A on inclusive education. It affirms that

all stages, forms, modalities, levels, and cycles of education are inclusive, and it encourages educational institutions to take action to ensure conditions for accessibility, availability, acceptability, and adaptability in the delivery of educational services as well as to create individualized education plans for students with special needs. There are laws addressing education for people with disabilities in 79% of countries, minority linguistic groups in 60%, gender equality in 50%, and ethnic and indigenous groups in 49% (UNESCO, 2020).

More nations are enacting laws to make it easier for kids with impairments to attend regular schools. To ensure coherence, adopting an inclusive educational strategy for students with disabilities entails amending and adjusting current regulations. However, legislation encouraging inclusion in education may coexist alongside laws promoting special education in different contexts, hindering implementation and inhibiting a common concept of inclusive education.

According to the UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report (2020), segregated education is permitted in 25% of nations, primarily in Central and Southern Asia, Eastern and South-eastern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean countries. With the highest incidence seen in Europe, Northern America, and Oceania, 48% of countries mix mainstreaming with segregated settings, typically for individuals with severe disabilities; 10% favor integration; and 17% have laws requiring the education of people with disabilities in inclusive settings. These results align with earlier studies that demonstrate that despite a growing trend toward inclusion, countries rely on different mixes of special education and inclusion to educate children and youth with disabilities (Anastasiou & Keller, 2014).

The 2016 Charter on Citizenry Rights in the Islamic Republic of Iran updated its special education law. However, the right to inclusive education is not legally protected. According to the rule of the Republic of Iran, special education centers will be used for pupils who cannot "learn in ordinary educational environments" (Human Rights Watch, 2019, p 290).

A ministerial decision issued in 2011 allowed the Ministry of Education in Iraq to establish special classrooms and schools for pupils who are "slow learners or have a visual or auditory disability" (Article 14). The directive did not list additional types of physical or mental disabilities or address providing integration chances for those pupils. Children with disabilities are enrolled in separate classes (UNESCO, 2020).

In Lebanon, the law on the rights of people with disabilities passed in 2000 granted rights to education while allowing segregation to continue. In reality, head teachers can refuse admission to students with disabilities, forcing them to attend specialized facilities run by nonprofits supported by the Ministry of Social Affairs that the Ministry of Education and Higher Education may not recognize as schools (Human Rights Watch, 2018).

According to Article 41b of Myanmar's 2014 education law, students with disabilities must receive special education through programs and services that are based on curricula created to meet the requirements of students who are visually impaired, hard of hearing, mentally disabled, and other learners (UNESCO, 2020). A right to inclusive education was established by India's Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act of 2016, which adopted the CRPD's principles for the country. In contrast, it introduced uncertainty and the potential for segregation by stating that "any kid with a baseline disability has access to free education in an appropriate setting ... in a neighborhood school or a special school of his choice" (p 16). The 2012 Right to Education (Amendment) Act also gives children with severe disabilities and multiple disabilities the option of attending school at home (UNESCO, 2019). The right to education of children with special needs was to be achieved in mainstream public schools through support services and measures "when reasonably practical," according to South Africa's 1996 school law (p 37). In the Russian Federation, Moscow permits education provision in separate or correctional classes when students with disabilities cannot receive education in inclusive settings (UNESCO, 2020).

Disability law also governs inclusion in education in 40% of the world's nations. In Burkina Faso, inclusive education was guaranteed at all educational levels, according to a 2010 law on protecting and promoting the rights of people with disabilities. The 2010 Senegal law on individuals with disabilities granted children with disabilities and adolescents free education in mainstream schools as near to their families as practicable (UNESCO, 2020). Different countries are at different stages of creating inclusive education policies to put enabling environments in place and enforce statutory provisions. Variations in placement types, instructional arrangements, staffing, teacher preparation, infrastructure, administrative structures, and funding were noted in the UNESCO report.

According to UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report (2020), 17% of nations had an extensively used inclusive education policy that considered all students. In Bhutan, inclusive education is described in the 2017 Standard for Inclusive Education as "the process of recognizing, accepting, and promoting diversity in schools and ensuring that every kid has an equal opportunity to study" (p. 38). It is described as a strategy that accepts all students in schools "regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other circumstances" in Ghana's 2015 policy. According to Nigeria's 2017 policy, it is the "process of resolving all barriers and providing access to an excellent education to fulfill the various needs of all learners in the same learning environment," which aligns with the UNESCO definition (UNESCO, 2020, p. 38). In 75% of the world's education sector plans or strategies, inclusiveness is mentioned. Disability-related policies or plans are commonplace; 67% of nations have such, and education ministries are either totally or partially responsible for them (UNESCO, 2020).

The government of Nepal is developing an action plan to improve teacher preparation, develop a flexible curriculum, and build infrastructure and facilities for education accessible to students with disabilities by 2030. However, the government has yet to define inclusive education standards consistent with international norms and how to ensure them in law or policy (Human Rights Watch, 2018). 45% of nations combine mainstreaming with other provisions for children with severe disabilities, but about 5% still have policies requiring schooling to be delivered in segregated settings. Under the 2012 inclusive education policy framework in Pakistan's Punjab province, pupils with mild and moderate impairments are accepted to regular primary and lower secondary schools. These schools' teachers receive training from master trainers at the Department of Special Education (UNESCO, 2020).

In India, inclusive approaches provide early intervention for children with disabilities (Oxfam, 2020). Inclusion and vulnerability in nomadic communities, especially for girls and children with special needs, were highlighted in Kenya's 2015 Policy Framework for Nomadic Education. To improve access to and participation in education, the policy aimed to build more mobile schools, implement open and distance learning, and employ creative and adaptable community-based education initiatives (UNESCO, 2020).

Despite Turkey's extensive legislative framework supporting inclusion in education, implementation difficulties exist, such as unfavorable attitudes, poor physical infrastructure, and instructors' lack of knowledge and abilities (Hande Sart et al., 2016). The Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights concluded in late 2014 that Vietnam's 2010 handicap law had not successfully prevented educational segregation (Fiala-Butora, 2019).

Students with impairments are expressly taught a special education curriculum in various nations. Kenya's special needs education framework is part of the basic education curriculum. The alternative curriculum, commonly referred to as the special education curriculum, was created in Malaysia in accordance with the 2013 Special Education Regulations. Tailored courses were also established for certain groups, such as blind learners. Currently, no curriculum is available for students with learning difficulties, such as autism (UNESCO, 2020).

Children in Nepal need to be allowed to attend schools in their communities without facing discrimination, as stated by the 2017 Disability Rights Act and the Inclusive Education Policy for Persons with Disabilities, while other regulations permit the education of children with disabilities separately. By 2030, government initiatives concentrating on buildings and infrastructure, teacher education, and adaptable curricula must align with global norms (Human Rights Watch, 2018).

Inclusion and inclusive education are directly related to the country's educational framework. It ensures educational mainstreaming in terms of diversity, management, learning, school culture, inclusivity, and equal educational opportunities for all, regardless of caste, creed, ethnicity, disability, or other forms of vulnerability (Open Society Foundations, 2012). In Nepal, inclusive education has been practiced in the form of special schools, integrated schools, and resource classes, with the principle of ensuring the right to education for all kinds of children with disabilities.

As we all know that, globally, the term 'inclusion' was used in the context of special education for the first time in the Salamanca Statement in 1994. It was expressly stated that integration of children with disabilities may be accomplished through inclusive schools (Rodriguez et al., 2014). When we go through the history of inclusive education in Nepal, it was also first started with the concept of special education. Nepal's modern education system began in 1950. Since then, the Government of Nepal has organized various educational commissions to study and change the country's educational system on a regular basis. The Nepal National

Educational Planning Commission, 1956 (NNEPC) was the first and most important educational commission in the series. The commission has recommended that the government establish universal and free primary education (MoE, 1956).

Although the commission discussed discrepancies in school participation based on gender, caste, and language, it did not propose any special provisions to alleviate these inequalities. In 1966, the All Round National Education Committee (ARNEC) was founded after ten years. This commission has proposed that the Education Act be enacted in order to establish a suitable legal foundation for the future national education system. By integrating specialized teaching of the intellectual disabled, blind, deaf, and verbally challenged, this committee allowed the direct discussion of special education (Kafle, 2002).

The National Educational System Plan (NESP, 1971-76), like earlier plans, unequivocally stated the role of the government in extending special needs education throughout the country by recognizing both its necessity and value (Kafle, 2002). The NESP established the Special Needs Education Council as the governing body for the special education program. Furthermore, the plan stated that education should be provided to individuals who are physically challenged (deaf, verbally impaired, and blind). The plan also noted that, while it may not be viable to provide such special education throughout the country, steps should be done immediately to begin in densely populated places such as Kathmandu (Kafle, 2002).

The Royal Commission on Higher Education was established in 1981 to examine the country's higher education. Because the commission only delineated various aspects of higher education without going down to the level of secondary and elementary education, nothing specific about special education was mentioned except that some financial incentives were suggested for the education of students from remote and disadvantaged communities and difficult situations (Kafle, 2002).

Following the restoration of multiparty democracy in 1990, the Nepalese government established the National Education Commission (NEC) in 1992. This commission studied the significance of linguistic and cultural diversity and proposed that primary education be taught in the student's mother tongue. The panel observed caste and gender gaps in schooling and recommended particular measures for women, individuals with physical and mental disabilities, and economically and socially disadvantaged communities. The commission also advised the government to make provisions such as encouraging and prioritizing women in all levels of education,

initiating appropriate steps for educating children with disabilities to the highest level, providing educational provision and training for backward communities, special education for children with disabilities and orphans, and expanding education in geographically disadvantaged areas (MoE, 1992).

Similarly, in 1998, the High-Level National Education Commission (HLNEC) was established. HLNEC has expressed strong support for numerous past commissions' findings, encouraging the government of Nepal to guarantee successful implementation. The commission has asked the government to follow through on the idea of inclusion in special education and to empower oppressed and economically disadvantaged people (Kafle, 2002).

Education has been identified as a key sector for government investment in Nepal since the first development plan in 1958. However, the seventh development plan prioritized inclusion in education as special needs education. The seventh plan (1985-1990) was not very precise about the government's commitment to inclusive education, but it did signal the beginning of the child development component with a statement that facilities for children's physical, mental, and social development would be given. The Eight Plan (1992-1997) recognized the role of education in development and established a national integrated development plan (Kafle, 2002). Similarly, the ninth plan (1997-2002) placed a strong emphasis on educational opportunities for people with disabilities in order to integrate them into the national mainstream. It has attempted to create special education as an essential element of the school system, which is highly focused on guaranteeing fair access. The term inclusive/integrated education was first used in the tenth plan (2002-2007). The plan aimed to enhance educational access and envisioned an inclusive and integrated education system based on the notion of special education. The plan aimed to improve access to school for children with exceptional learning needs (NPC, 2002). Similarly, the eleventh three-year interim plan (2007-2010) (TYIP) defined the goal of achieving equal and inclusive education at all levels. Gender discrimination was a priority of the strategy, and gender mainstreaming was chosen as a standard educational approach to improve gender equity/equality in education. The initiative has also prioritized the education of Janajati, Dalit, Madhesi, disabled, conflict victims, and underprivileged groups. The twelfth plan (2010-2013), on the other hand, has prioritized quality education. The plan mandates obligatory and free basic

education (grades 1–8) for all students and commits to expanding equal access to secondary (grades 9–12) and higher education (NPC, 2011).

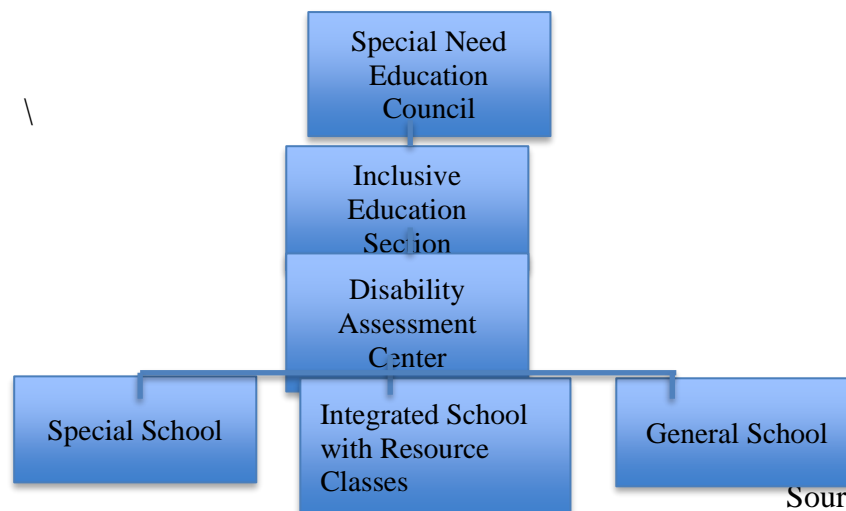
The 13th three-year development plan commits to expanding equal access at all levels and developing an inclusive and equitable education system. To achieve its objectives, the plan has used two essential strategies. These are a) free and compulsory education, and b) targeted programs to promote access to education for the poor, underprivileged, and disabled persons. This plan clearly states that inclusive education is a critical strategy for ensuring quality and equity in education (NPC, 2013b).

The 14th plan aimed to improve educational equity by making it more skillful, relevant, and high-quality. It has a strategy in place to ensure that economically disadvantaged, marginalized communities and people with disabilities have access to education. According to the plan's working method, vulnerable and marginalized kids' learning requirements will be addressed through expanding open, alternative, residential, and special education programs (NPC, 2016). The 15th plan includes a specific working policy for children with disabilities. According to the NPC, "Children with disabilities will be given priority during school admissions, and the curriculum will be made disability-friendly in order to contribute to quality education so that all children with various forms of disabilities can access it" (NPC, 2020).

Similarly, the Ministry of Education has established the School Sector Reform Plan (SSRP) as one of the key documents for reorganizing the country's education system. The word "inclusion in education" was used for the first time in this plan under the intervention of early childhood education and development with the goal of assuring all children's access and participation, particularly girls' children with special needs and populations experiencing numerous exclusions. Similarly, SSRP has developed specific arrangements for students in Karnali Zone, students from Dalit communities, and students with disabilities across the country, with a focus on girls. These elements include free alternative education for disadvantaged children, a unique incentive package to enhance secondary education access, participation, and completion, classroom construction, upgrading school environments, and promoting equity and social inclusion (MoE, 2009).

This context can be validated through the existing structural mechanism of inclusive education in Nepal also. In Nepal, different levels of organizations play distinct roles in terms of inclusive education. As the top organization in creating

policies to ensure equitable participation of all children in education, the Ministry of Education (MoE) plays a critical role. Other central-level agencies, such as the Department of Education (DoE) now turned to Center for Education and Human Resource Development (CEHRD), Curriculum Development Center (CDC), and National Center for Educational Development (NCED), are also working on inclusive education. The CEHRD is in charge of overseeing school education throughout the country. Similarly, the primary mission of the Curriculum Development Centre is to provide textbooks and other learning materials for children with disabilities, but the National Centre for Educational Development is largely responsible for delivering teacher training. The government of Nepal has created a particular organizational structure inside the educational system to support inclusive education.



Source: MoE, 2013

Figure 1

Existing Structural Mechanism of Inclusive Education

The Special Education Council (SEC) was founded in 1973, according to the provisions of the Education Rules, 2002. The council is chaired by the Minister of Education and is made up of members from various agencies such as the Ministry of Finance (MoF), the Ministry of Women, Children, and Social Welfare (MoWCSW), the National Planning Commission (NPC), and the National Disabled Federation (NDF), as well as special education specialists and school teachers. The council is largely responsible for developing special education policy and coordinating special education programs throughout the country. The Special Education Policy of 1996 defined special schools as "schools that teach to people with disabilities by making special arrangements based on the disability." As part of its initiative to educate

children with disabilities, the government of Nepal has established special schools throughout the country. Special schools exist to educate students with disabilities, and the majority of these schools are residential. Almost all of the teachers who work in special schools are trained teachers. There are several special schools for children with autism, cerebral palsy, dawn syndrome, and mental retardation that are registered with the Social Welfare Council and are managed privately or with the assistance of international development partners or local donors (DoE, 2011).

Furthermore, there is a provision for integrated schools, which provide instruction to children with impairments in general school. According to the special education policy of 1996, an integrated school is one that arranges the provision of education to children with disabilities through teachers who have obtained special education training. These schools have resource classes and the materials needed to educate students with mild to moderate disabilities in normal school. The use of such schools began in 1994, with the launch of the Basic and Primary Education Project (DoE, 2011).

Because Nepal's inclusive education legislation and policy documents have dual provisions, such as both special school and integrated school, it has caused conceptual misunderstanding among teachers and educators. As a result, they view inclusive education from the standpoint of special education needs or from the perspective of integration (Regmi, 2017).

Through all of this, the issue of inclusive education in Nepal was previously inspired by special needs education. The government's initiatives were aimed at increasing access to education and establishing education as a human right. Recently, the government of Nepal has shifted its emphasis from policy to practice, emphasizing quality education with a focus on those who are denied educational opportunities and children with impairments (Regmi, 2017).

Most crucially, the rhetoric of special needs education began in Nepal, much like an international ideological change in educational discourse. As a result, certain special schools for children with disabilities were constructed, a special need education council was founded, special need education teachers were trained, and policy focus on special need education development was expanded. When segregation began to be condemned worldwide, Nepal began to integrate students with disabilities through the provision of resource classes, which are still in use in regular schools. Integration has also been criticized for failing to foster social assimilation of children

with disabilities, and inclusion of children with disabilities was encouraged to admit general classroom. As a result, we can claim that in Nepal, both segregation and integration models are practiced in the form of inclusive education (Regmi, 2017). With these contexts of inclusive education, special education is a part of inclusive education in Nepal.

In Nepal 'The Basic and Primary Education Master Plan for 1997 – 2002' indicates that children with disabilities in schools are also there as special education needs children. Further, it has been mentioned that special education deals with modified or specially designed instruction for students who have difficulties in learning in the classrooms with the available curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 532). "The most salient feature of special education is the careful matching of instruction with a student's unique educational needs and learning style" (Shore, 1986, p.10).

With support to the argument, the master plan acknowledges that special education for children is related to offering them specialized education to adjust them socially, educationally, culturally and economically (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 532). It was practiced after World War II when the UN was established, setting the trend of normalization and integration of persons with disabilities in the mainstream of education and sociality. So, inclusive education for children with disabilities is largely normalized and integrated in education without segregating children with disabilities from the schools through humanitarian and responsible principles, which is highlighted by the Nepal Government as well (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 532).

The plan elaborated that the recent trend of special education is inclusive schools, where the school should incorporate the majority of children's special needs into education. Learning difficulties in children are now considered a normal aspect of childhood rather than a sign of something wrong with the child (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 532). It is widely acknowledged that every child is different and unique and requires assistance in developing and adapting to their learning environment. The learning difficulties might be small or serious, and 'the children with special education needs' encompasses all children with disabilities ranging from mild to profound. This additionally includes traditional disability groups, general learning problems, and children with social and emotional including children with problems in broader conception. As a result, special education encompasses the

disabled and, at-risk, and underprivileged students (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 532).

Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Knowledge and Attitude and Roles in Inclusive Education

Self-efficacy is the belief that an individual's ability to take the initiative in their actions contributes to the core action of human activity. Through cognitive activity, self-efficacy is linked to other success factors, such as motivation and self-regulation (Bandura & Locke, 2003). As a result, it is assumed that the greater an individual's self-esteem, the greater their goal-setting and commitments (Bandura & Jourden, 1991).

Teachers' self-efficacy is a crucial factor that drives students' motivation and explains their actions. Educators and academics have spent a lot of work attempting to determine how to evaluate and comprehend the efficacy of instructors. In addition to describing teachers' behavior, researchers use self-efficacy as one of the factors used to predict motivation (Klassen et al., 2011). Teachers' efforts on a task are also influenced by their views on self-efficacy. According to research, efficacy beliefs influence teachers' decisions about classroom practices, which affect the classroom environment. Furthermore, it has been established that the classroom atmosphere impacts student achievement (Rowan et al., 1997). Teacher quality regulates an effective learning environment that increases students' outcomes.

Self-efficacy relates to the student's learning achievements, as Baron and Byrne (2004) claim that self-efficacy significantly impacts learning activity. It assumes that a student can execute tasks, plan activities to study on their own, and live with the hope of academics of their own and others in the learning process. As a result, self-efficacy is critical for completing the school's tasks and responsibilities. According to Macmillan and Meyer (2006), teachers must feel competent in their instructional decision-making. Teachers must have a good sense of self-efficacy to obtain that confidence.

Understanding and addressing teacher self-efficacy is critical for integrating students with autism into general education classrooms (Whalen, 2009). Whalen further claims that instructors' self-efficacy impacts their ability to provide modifications and accommodations and support their pupils. Policymakers may be able to equip teachers with pathways that will ultimately benefit all learners by investigating teachers' self-efficacy toward the inclusion of children with autism in

general education (Macmillan & Meyer, 2006). Teachers' self-efficacy seems critical in providing better education to children with disabilities.

As previously stated, self-efficacy is essential in ensuring successful inclusion implementation in the classroom. Simpson et al. (2003) identified five primary areas that must be addressed to implement successful inclusion: adaptations, educational techniques, commitment, recurring evaluation, and assistance in different areas. Moore and Esselman (1992) contend that teacher self-efficacy was a substantial predictor of student accomplishment.

Along with the several environmental elements that affect teaching efficacy for inclusive practices, teachers' self-efficacy is noticeable in Asian Countries. Contextual variables like gender, age, and class size can have conflicting effects on teaching effectiveness in an inclusive setting. To effectively conduct inclusive education, a system to increase teacher and professional efficacy is necessary (Ahsan & Malak, 2020).

A recent study on in-service primary school teachers in Bangladesh by Ahmmed et al. (2013) noticed that teachers' self-efficacy for inclusion was strongly correlated with their perception of school support for implementing inclusive practices. This study adds more evidence to the idea that participants' efficacy views are significantly influenced by school support. Teachers who feel they are working in supportive situations have high perceptions of their own efficacy (Ahmmed et al., 2013). The discussion figured out the role of teachers' self-efficacy in ensuring inclusion and inclusive educational practices in schools.

Teachers are the key actors in executing their actions and imparting their knowledge to the students. In terms of inclusive education, they are the key facilitators in realizing, approaching, and ensuring the goals of inclusive education in schools. The purpose of inclusive education for children with disabilities is challenging to fulfill if teachers are not knowledgeable and their attitudes are not in line with the expectations of children with disabilities. As a result, every teacher must know and adapt to the attitudes required for inclusive education and the ability to apply inclusive education in the classroom and teaching pedagogy. Furthermore, knowledge and attitude toward inclusiveness in classroom settings are desirable for all teachers teaching children with disabilities.

Teachers' attitude toward the inclusion of students with disabilities is another research concern. Teachers' attitude toward inclusion affects the learning environment

of the student in the schools (Vanreusen et al., 2000). Hellmich et al. (2019) also highlight that attitudes, knowledge and self-efficacy are crucial in implementing high-quality inclusive education practices in schools. It clarifies that self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude play a role in implementing inclusive education in schools. The negative attitudes of teachers and parents are found negative toward disability which is affected by sociocultural ideology, barriers in texts and curriculum, and confusing policies (Thapaliya, 2018). It shows that there are different significant factors influencing teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education, such as teacher type, age, gender, education levels, coursework, and residence (Aryal, 2013). Another study conducted in Bangladesh found that prospective teachers have a less favorable view of including children with significant assistance requirements, using Braille or sign language, or those who need to have an individualized academic program (Ahsan & Sharma, 2018).

A study on teachers' attitudes in Japan discovered that general sentiments toward inclusive education among Japanese teachers were slightly above the neutral middle of the scale ($M = 2.69$), indicating that the instructors were neither for nor against inclusive education. The attitude toward engaging with a person with a disability was rated as the most positive ($M = 3.38$). Their attitudes toward integrating disabled children into regular classrooms were somewhat neutral ($M = 2.58$). The least ($M=2.37$) of their concerns were about what would happen if students with disabilities were included in their classes (Yada & Savolainen, 2017).

The discussion indicates that if teachers lack self-efficacy and have limited knowledge and negative attitudes toward children with hearing impairments, it directly hampers the learning needs of the children in the schools. Similarly, the quality of inclusive education practices in schools is questionable. Teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude are the motivational aspects of the children. If they lack, the chances of demotivation of the children towards their educational attainment and achievements increase. Similarly, self-efficacy always boosts teachers' confidence and supports students' learning achievements through their confidence. So, if there are no confident teachers in the schools, the quality of delivery will be challenging. Eventually, it negatively affects students' overall school performance and personal lives. This study reveals the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude toward inclusive education in the context of Nepal.

Models of Disability and Inclusive Education

To completely comprehend the concepts of exclusion and inclusion, it is crucial to comprehend the distinctions between the medical and social models of disability as well as their respective histories. In order to make decisions concerning the students they interact with, educators and teacher assistants should decide which model best captures their conception of disability. Prior to the 1970s, the majority of people believed that having a disability meant having a personal deficit (Shakespeare, 2010). Disability was identified, categorized, and handled. There was little understanding of how the environment and unfavorable attitudes kept people with disabilities out of society. According to Oliver (1990), discrimination against people with disabilities was commonly accepted and unchallenged.

The Medical Model takes a distinct perspective to disability; it sees the person as a patient who has to be treated or healed in order to function "normally" in modern society (Oliver, 1990). Because it forces them to rely too heavily on the medical system without considering other variables that may ease the experience of impairment, such as the social environment, the idea has caused controversy among persons with disabilities. The Union of the Physically Impaired against Segregation, a disability rights group, disagreed with the idea that persons with disabilities should adapt to their surroundings and pushed for an inclusive society in the United Kingdom in 1972.

Their action helped to redefine disability for particular groups of people and draw attention to the discrimination and marginalization of individuals with disabilities. The term "social model of disability" was used to describe this new concept of disability, which marked a significant departure from the previous "medical model" of disability (Cologon, 2016). The social model makes a distinction between "disability" and "impairment," with the latter being seen as a disadvantage brought about by society (Lalvani, 2013). The social model of disability forms the basis of the inclusive movement by advocating for the removal of barriers to full participation in society.

Five categories of disability theory are proposed by Riddell (1996), including essentialist, social constructionist, materialist, post-modernist, and disability activist perspectives. Many disability researchers have embraced this paradigm (Slee, 1998; Thomas, 2002). However, when it comes to the study of disabilities and special educational needs, social constructionist, materialist, and disability activist methods

can be observed to be closely related and overlap in many ways in their understanding of disability.

One would think that this "medical model" approach (Reiser, 2012a) is an outdated viewpoint that has been superseded by "social model" understandings of disability as a social construct when reading recent inclusion or disability studies research. However, the essentialist viewpoint has endured over time in a variety of contexts, including medical and therapeutic approaches that prioritize diagnosis, treatment, and cure, social understandings of disability as a "deviation from the norm," and special education services that operate by identifying student "needs" that differ from those of the "standard" pupil.

Shakespeare (2006) describes the medical model of disability as a belief that the problem originates with the disabled individual because of their "differentness." This point of view is promoted by disability stereotypes and validated by medical discourses about treatment, normality, and professional control.

The 'Social Model of Disability' was created in the writings of Barnes (1991), Oliver (1990), and Finkelstein (1980). According to Vehmas and Makela (2009), the model's social constructionist epistemology explained disability in terms of social structures and culturally derived body norms. In fact, some academics have claimed that Disability Studies itself assumes a social constructionist point of view (Albrecht 2002).

A helpful classification of medical and social models was produced by Smith (2009) (see Table 1). She claimed that each paradigm had flaws when it came to offering sensible explanations of how impairment, disability, and society interact. Scholars started to make the case that, in contrast to essentialist epistemologies, which rejected the influence of the social on the self, social constructionist epistemologies (often referred to as "strong social model theories") placed an unrealistic emphasis on the social dimension and ignored the significance of the body and the role of impairment in social arrangements.

Table 1*Interpretations of Medical and Social Models*

Medical Models	1. Full-essentialist individual deficiency interpretation (FEID)	Disability is caused by fixed medical characteristics that inevitably preclude a life of deficiency and 'abnormality'
	2. Part – essentialist individual deficiency interpretation (PIED)	Whilst disability is caused by the above medical characteristics, these can be partially alleviated by changes in the social environment, so as to enable some degree of 'normal living'.
Social Models	3. Politics of disablement interpretation (POD)	Disability is caused by social practices that systematically exclude impaired people from the activities of 'normal citizenship'
	4. Social construction of disablement interpretation (SCOD)	Disability is caused by the way impairments are defined and associated with characteristics that are necessarily assumed to have a negative impact on personal identity, development and fulfillment

(Source: Smith 2009)

Inclusion is encouraged by the social model of disability in an effort to break down societal barriers by engaging all kids in regular schooling, regardless of their abilities. According to a University of Plymouth professor, if disability is a social issue, society must adapt (Hyde, 2000). According to the inclusion theory, children with special education needs (SEN) should be taught in mainstream education alongside their peers. In order to meet the requirements of students who have both physical and learning challenges, schools must provide for them. When identifying a kid as having SEN, the social model of disability takes all relevant aspects into account. Instead than identifying a medical illness, it takes a more holistic approach to the kid, considering any emotional, behavioral, physical, or social requirements they might have. According to Roffey (2011), it is possible to identify a child's strengths and weaknesses by monitoring them in a variety of contexts over a brief period of time. This includes observing how they interact with other children, how they speak, and how they approach a variety of activities. If using the social paradigm, SEN is addressed in a collaborative manner.

There are people with physical, cognitive, or social impairments in every community, which inevitably leads to judgments about what is and what is not normal in that society (Winzer, 2007). Social barriers toward people with disabilities have fostered the marginalization and discrimination of the disabled group throughout history. According to conventional thinking, disability is a tragedy that limits an individual's opportunities and participation in society while also causing them to suffer for the rest of their lives (Vehmas, 2004). Over the past fifty years, both the medical model and the social model have contributed to our understanding of disability, yet each has quite different ideas about disability and society (Haegele & Hodge, 2016). The social model contests the medical model's assertion that a person's disability results from a loss in biological function. The ideas of impairment and disability were divided as a response to the medical approach. According to the social model, oppression and prejudice in society result from impairments and lead to impediments in the environment as well as oppressive attitudes and discrimination (Beaudry, 2016). The social and medical models are very dissimilar from one another. The medical model views disability primarily as a biological issue that requires medical attention. In contrast, the social model contends that social and physical impediments contribute to disability in society (Owens, 2015). The social model became the dominant model in underpinning inclusive education because it is very

similar to the fundamental philosophies of inclusion, especially concerning attitudes and equal opportunities in an educational context.

In inclusive education, a student is regarded as a person above and beyond their limitation rather than being solely defined by their biological dysfunction or branded as disabled. The social model is crucial for inclusive education because it views disabilities as differences in a child rather than a source of identity. It allows for flexibility in response to the requirements of all students and their families, putting more faith in the individual's past experiences and expectations than in institutionalized knowledge and presumptions (Kattari et al., 2017). In inclusive education, the social model takes a holistic view of the person, taking into account their impairment while not letting it limit their educational experience. The social model serves as the foundation for inclusive education because it promotes acceptance of all people with disabilities, which is consistent with the inclusive education concept.

Another reason the social model came to support inclusive education is its ongoing effort to transform society by reducing environmental hurdles. Both inclusive education and inclusion in society attempt to provide everyone with equal chances, regardless of impairments (Terzi, 2014). Instead of emphasizing the personal weakness that promotes "fitting in," inclusion fosters a variety of cognitive and physical disparities. Participation in school life is not constrained by physical or curriculum limitations, but rather by inclusion, which attempts to eliminate all barriers to learning (Naraian & Schlessinger, 2017). This is accomplished by installing ramps in place of stairs, designing the curriculum better to serve all students, and include accessible restrooms, transportation, and sporting facilities in school planning. With inclusive education, involvement in all facets of school life can be increased while exclusion from it can be reduced, as opposed to special education settings where children with disabilities are kept apart from their peers who are usually developing (Rees, 2017). The goal of inclusive education is to remove all obstacles that prevent students with disabilities from accessing equal educational opportunities, which is consistent with social model assumptions that the environment should be changed to make room for these people and enable their participation and access to the community.

The medical model's underlying ideas are still crucial for implementation, though. Mothers of children with severe disabilities were described by Rees (2017) as

"[embracing] the social model in the sense that they believed social barriers served to create disability, yet at the same time they adhered to the medical model by continuing to seek within-child interventions to mitigate the impact of disability" (p. 32). The social model does not dispute the existence of impairments but opposes their classification as "disabilities" (Beaudry, 2016). Although categorizing and labeling are seen as undesirable medical model practices, they are actually advantageous to the family, the teachers, other school employees, and the community at large.

Actually, there should be a balance between the medical model and social model in actual life situations. Although these people still require some type of medical intervention for understanding and help regarding their biological scenario, opposition to the medical model was caused by the fact that a person is not entirely defined by their impairment (Shakespeare & Watson as cited in Gallagher et al., 2014). There should not be an overly suspicious attitude toward the medicalization of disability because the medical model continues to play a significant role in the lives of people with impairments (Beaudry, 2016). The medical community would consider the individual in addition to the handicap if the social model was conceptualized and applied alongside the medical model.

The social model is the discourse that supports inclusion policy since its ideas are consistent with inclusive philosophy. With the goal of altering educational environments and attitudes to ensure that all children have access to an equal education, inclusive education promotes participation and acceptance of everyone, regardless of impairments. The social model promotes inclusiveness and the acceptance of the whole person, not just their impairment. In early childhood education, welcoming and encouraging kids to participate in work and play regardless of their disabilities helps them build self-esteem and improves how they see themselves, which in turn affects how they learn. Despite the social model's many beneficial ideals, its support occasionally fails to take into consideration the reality or lived experience of a person with a disability. Furthermore, the medicalization of disability still has application for those who have disabilities despite the social model's opposition to the medical model. In conclusion, even if the social model aims to remove cerebral and environmental barriers to give people with disabilities more agency, the medical model shouldn't be wholly discounted. The medical model is not the enemy of those with disabilities, but its ideas and methods are advantageous to them in different ways. The excellent aspects of the social and medical models may

be integrated to create a comprehensive model that would benefit both these people and society as a whole.

"All children have the right to a quality education and the chance to reach their full potential. Whatever their background or aptitude, all schools should contribute to educating children from their local community, and all instructors should expect to teach students with special educational needs (SEN). The social approach of treating SEN alters the child's surroundings, in contrast to the medical paradigm of treatment. It eliminates the obstacles to success that the medical model creates. Instead than altering or "curing" a child to fit in, society adjusts to fit around the child.

Both the medical and the social model have good and bad points. The advantages of the social model of disability are that a child's needs are focused on rather than their diagnosis. Their strengths and weaknesses as well as external influences such as a child's background and history are taken into account in order to find a suitable method of teaching, which, in time will help the child reach their full potential. The child is recognized as an individual, as a person instead of a 'problem' that needs fixing. Furthermore, society changes in order to make life easier for the person in question. Inclusive education is an advantage of the social model. However, there are disadvantages of the social model of disability, these being conflicting arguments between both models. The medical model focuses on 'curing' the disability in order to allow the person into society, whereas the social model focuses on changing society and people's attitudes in order to improve the quality of life for the disabled person and make it simpler for them to obtain an education and carry out daily activities.

Liz Crow and Jenny Morris, two feminist disability theorists, agree with Hughes and Paterson's interpretation and have urged for a revision of the social model of disability that incorporates the sociology of impairment. Morris (1991) argued that the social model has effectively rejected the idea that the physical and mental anguish endured by individuals with disabilities as a result of their impairments has any bearing on the practical aspects of their everyday lives. The social model did not consider disability to be a flaw that needed to be fixed. Instead, it believed that the social and built environments were the source of the issue. Being Deaf would not be nearly as limiting if everyone could sign. Using a wheelchair wouldn't be nearly as impeding if there were ramps and curb cuts everywhere. Parents who give birth to children with impairments would be less devastated and begin raising their children, taking into account their disability far sooner and with less rage or grief if people did not believe

having a disability was the end of the world. The social approach is, therefore, considerably more empowering.

There are certain generations that also participate in inclusive education. Wehmeyer (2009) suggested that inclusive education approaches involve three generations. The primary goal of the initial inclusive practices was to transition children from general education settings to inclusive classrooms. The main goals of second-generation inclusive practices were developing and validating support strategies for children with disabilities in inclusive classrooms. Third-generation inclusive approaches shift the emphasis from students' educational location to the subjects they are taught (Wehmeyer, 2009). The third generation of inclusive practices is centered on promoting and enhancing the self-determination of all students, including those with disabilities and special educational needs. It also ensures that the curriculum is universally designed and that instruction is flexible for all students. It implements school-wide interventions that benefit all students with positive behavior supports (Wehmeyer, 2009). Wehmeyer (2009) mentioned that third-generation inclusive practices give children better access to the general education curriculum, improve educational and adult outcomes, and give students more agency by letting them better manage their own lives. So, there is an educational promotion approach centered on the quality education of all children with disabilities in the third generation of inclusive education practices. This study is very much focused to first generation of inclusive education which is more inclined to provide educational supports and services, access to general classroom and curriculum and special supports exists within the general education class.

Considering all these aspects, this study is focused to social model but some arguments are also presented from medical model. When we talk about SEN, both models will contribute to ensuring the educational rights of children with disabilities, including children with hearing impairments.

Existing Policies and Provisions for the Education of Children with Disabilities in Nepal

The current fifteenth plan of Nepal, 2019, issued by the National Planning Commission (2020), has a national strategy to ensure universal and quality education for all. The plan mentions that "universal access to quality education, as well as a technology-friendly, employment-oriented, and practical education system, will be

developed and expanded in addition to ensuring free and mandatory basic education and free secondary education" (p. 58).

The plan's objective in the education sector (Clause 7.2) is to make basic education obligatory and accessible for all children, as well as to provide early childhood education and free access to secondary level education, and to make education high-quality, practical, and technology-friendly. It has a working policy on student financial assistance to provide an equitable opportunity for technical and vocational education and skill development for citizens living in multidimensional poverty, with multiple disadvantages, who are economically and socially backward, and who are disabled and deprived of formal education (p. 236). Similarly, the plan has operating policies of child-friendliness in physical infrastructures (buildings, bathrooms, roads, furniture, seats, and tables) and other structures of public places and schools (Clause 7.7, p. 278).

It has been stated that child rights, child-friendly governance, and child sensitivity enhancement will be incorporated into the subject teacher's training curriculum (p. 273-274). In Clause 7.9, the people with disabilities sector, the plan has a clear working policy for the children with disabilities. It states that "Children with disabilities will be given priority during school admissions and the curriculum will be made disability-friendly to contribute to quality education so that all children with various forms of disabilities can access it" (p. 280).

The National Education Policy 2019, issued by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, aims to ensure access to quality education for all persons with disabilities. The policy document has a separate policy on inclusive and special education for children with disabilities. Policy No. 10.28 explains that children with disabilities shall get inclusive and special education opportunities to address their learning needs through the proper curriculum and materials for lifelong learning education and professional skills development. The National Education Policy (2019) on the inclusion principle has nine working policies to achieve the strategy. The operational policies are focused on the operation of a special school with a hostel facility, inclusion of children with other children as a form of inclusive education for their learning considering the disability status, opportunity for the learning of professional skills, availability of support devices and materials; disabled friendly infrastructures and learning environment to all types of disabilities; special class and improvement learning class for the children; diversification of curriculum, textbooks,

audiovisual and support materials; alternative and appropriate use of technology/devices by not limiting only on sign language and braille script; and flexible curriculum, textbooks, alternative learning materials, and pedagogy along with disabled focused assessment system.

Nepal implemented an inclusive education policy for persons with disabilities in 2017. Reaffirming the right of all children with disabilities to receive an education in their communities while simultaneously allowing for the possibility of educating them in different settings, the policy is based on the non-discrimination concept. It is anticipated that a master plan will be created to implement the policy regarding the infrastructure's accessibility, teacher preparation, and curriculum flexibility (UNESCO, 2017).

Besides, Nepal has developed and executed different policies and programs to promote education for children with disabilities. Education Act 1971 (including amendments) mentions that special classes for children with disabilities would be similar to normal education. Education Regulation 2002 has managed a "Special Education Council" to conduct special classes for children with disabilities under the chairperson of the Education Ministry. Special Education Council regularly works on policy and program areas (DoE, 2016).

Special Education Act 1997 has mentioned that visual, deaf, intellectual, and physically impaired children will be provided a residential educational opportunity. Education Regulation 2002, Clause 60, has mentioned that special education can be provided for children with disabilities. Similarly, the same regulations, Rule 66 and Disable Protection and Welfare Regulation 1995 (Rule 15), state that those organizations that provide special education to children with disabilities will get facilities and services as indicated by the Government of Nepal. In Education Regulation, 2002 (Rule 151.2), it is mentioned that the institutional schools should provide at least 10% scholarships (out of the total students) to talented, poor, people with a disability, girls, Dalit, and the Janajati community. In this context, the Special Education Operation Directive 2003 has been issued (DoE, 2016).

Children with disabilities can study in a different community, resource class, and special school. In resource classes and special schools, resident and resource teachers are managed for special-care-need children. For children with disabilities, free textbooks, educational materials and equipment are distributed. Similarly, to identify a disability, provide disability-related services, support, and counseling, and

formulate other programs, the disabled audit centers are established in 62 districts of Nepal (DoE, 2016).

United Nations Human Rights Declaration, 1948, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989 have mentioned that everyone should get free education up to a basic level. United Nations Certified Rules, 1983; Asia and Pacific Sector's Persons with Disabilities Decade (1983-2002); Samalanca Declaration 1994; and UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006 have emphasized mainstreaming all persons with disabilities, including the special education needy children in national educational programs. Nepal ratified the UNCRPD in 2010. Similarly, INCHEON Declaration (World Education Forum, 2015) has encouraged the government to improve policies for the educational promotion of special needs children (DoE, 2016).

Nepal has tried to promote education for children with disabilities by improving policies and legal entitlements. It has made commitments on education for all in Jomtien Declaration, 1980; Dakar Summit, 2000; Millennium Development Goals, 2000; and Sustainable Development Goals. Thus, Nepal has felt a need for inclusive education for persons with disabilities, and with that note, it has brought the Inclusive Education Policy 2016 for Persons with Disabilities (DoE, 2016). The Constitution of Nepal, 2015, guarantees the fundamental rights in Article 18, which is the Right to Equality, and Article 31, which is the Right related to education. Article 18 mentions that "no discrimination shall be made in the application of general laws on the grounds of origin, religion, race, caste, tribe, sex, physical condition, condition of health, marital status, pregnancy, economic condition, language, or region, ideology or on similar other grounds" (p. 15-16).

Similarly, article 31 (Right relating to education) clause three has lucidly mentioned that "the citizens with disabilities and the economically poor citizens shall have the right to get free higher education in accordance with law" p. (22). It has also stated that "the citizens with hearing or speaking impairment, to get free education through sign language, in accordance with law" (p. 23).

Disability rights are provided by the 2015 Constitution and the Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act (2017), amongst others. The Ministry of Women, Children and Senior Citizens (MoWCSC) and the National Disability Direction Committee are responsible at the national level. Similarly, at the village and municipality levels, there should be disability coordination committees. The Labour

Act (2017) and the National Employment Policy (2015) make little mention of persons with disabilities. The rights of Persons with Disabilities Act (2017) ensures that there is no discrimination in work and employment. The Local Self Governance Act (1999) provides ward committees with the responsibility of ensuring the livelihoods of persons with disabilities. Access to education for children with disabilities has been improved by the Inclusive Education Policy for Persons with Disabilities (2017) and the School Sector Development Plan (2016- 2023), amongst others. The health needs of people with disabilities are met within the 2014 National Health Policy, and the 2018 Safe Motherhood and Reproductive Health Rights Act of Nepal ensures that the services provided are disability friendly.

Similarly, education and training are covered by the Disabled Protection and Welfare Act of 1982. The clause states that if a disabled person is admitted to any educational institute to pursue education, they will not be obliged to pay any tuition fee. Similarly, the provision mentions the requirement of teachers to instruct impaired students. Furthermore, it has stated that special provisions will be made for the education of the blind, deaf, and feeble-minded (Government of Nepal, 1982). Further, certain measures for disabled persons' education and training are mentioned in the Disabled Protection and Welfare Rules (1994). According to the law, the ministry may provide the required aid to any non-governmental or private organization that arranges education and training for people with disabilities. Furthermore, the minister must make plans for free education for up to two disabled descendants, including the development and operation of special education schools in Nepal in sufficient numbers to provide education to such disabled persons according to the kind and type of disability. The clause also applies to the operation of the schools established according to sub-rule 3, and the compensation, terms of employment, and facilities supplied in such schools must comply with the Education Regulations 2049 (Government of Nepal, 1994). The National Policy and Plan of Action on Disability (2006), education shall be provided to children with disabilities in a way that is both accessible and beneficial to them. A policy will be implemented to ensure that people with disabilities have access to high-quality, free education from pre-primary to higher education. For such children, the infrastructure of a medium school (integrated, inclusive, or special) with residential amenities will be gradually constructed in each district. Textbooks will be evaluated, and content that promotes a

positive attitude toward disabled persons will be added (Ministry for Women, Children and Social Welfare, 2006).

Accordingly, the Disability ID Card Distribution Guidelines of the Government of Nepal 2008 has classified disability into seven categories. These categories include, Physical disability (polio, cerebral palsy, physical impairment, leprosy, muscular dystrophy, critical backbone problems, club fits, rickets, dwarf, etc.); visual impairment (blind and low vision); hearing impairment (deaf, hard of hearing); deaf-blind; speech impairment (not clear speech, repeat words); mental disability (intellectual disability, mental illness, and autism); and multiple disabilities (more than two disabilities mentioned above within a person) (Government of Nepal, 2008, p. 10).

Likewise, the Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) Guidelines (2010) has guidelines for providing access to children with disabilities in education. It states that CBR should take the initiative to provide access for all types of children with disabilities (school-going age) in formal and special education. The CBR should take the initiative to provide access to informal education to all disabled persons as per need. Further, it has been provisioned that normally impaired children should be integrated into common schools, including mental, visual, deaf and multi-impaired children, should be integrated into special resource classes. The provision has indicated that children with disabilities' access to education should be ensured through coordination with concerned schools and the DEO of the districts where special schools and resource class schools are present. Similarly, the initiative should be taken to integrate children with disabilities in local schools or private or NGO-operated schools where there is no availability of special schools and resource class schools in the districts for children with disabilities. Further, management of orientation, interaction, discussion, and workshops should be provided for an educational institution, head teachers, teachers, staff, and school operators working to educate children with disabilities about the special, integrated classes of disabled as per need.

There is a regulation that the manager of CBR should coordinate with the District Audit Management Committee and Resource Class Operating schools for the identification, counseling, and service of children with disabilities to ensure their education. The coordination can ensure a disabled-friendly environment (physically and equitably) in such schools. Similarly, other educational support facilities for

children with disabilities, like free education, scholarships, exam service, braille, symbolic language and books, auxiliary materials, special sports etc., should be regularly made accessible to children with disabilities for their educational engagements.

Accessible Physical Structure and Communication Service Directive for People with Disabilities 2013 has mentioned that physical access and communication services for persons with disabilities should be managed in public places and schools. It has been stated in the standards for making communication systems accessible that accessible communication systems shall be ensured for persons who are deaf or have hearing impairments and communication difficulties (Government of Nepal, 2013). Similarly, the Provision of Special Education in Education Act of Nepal (1971) elaborated on 'special education' as an education for children with physical or mental disabilities. It has also exclaimed that special education shall be equally competent as general educational practices.

The major concern of these rules and legal frameworks is to ensure quality education for all children regardless of their gender, ethnicity, disability, race, and any forms of vulnerabilities. Similarly, the National Childhood Disability Management Strategy (2008) has formulated strategies to incorporate children with disabilities in mainstream education. Inclusive Education Policy for Persons with disability 2016 has focused on inclusive education by illustrating the major problems and challenges of inclusive education to persons with disability. It has also projected the indicators to ensure schools for inclusive education to children with disability. The government's periodic plan has indicated the need to ensure the education of children with disabilities with respect to availability, accessibility, and approachability. All other declarations, conventions, and rules are there to ensure the education of persons with disabilities. They have indicated the state's obligations for better and quality education of all forms of children with disabilities (DoE, 2016).

In a nutshell, Nepal has developed a lot of policies and provisions for children with disabilities. Different approaches are applied to ensure the right to education of children with disabilities.

Theoretical Review

The inclusive education and educational theory (Knight, 1999) is a theoretical foundation for this study. The inclusive education and educational theory has the post-

modern perspective in which the social construct of disability provides the right-outcome approach for the study.

The theory has the strategy of inclusiveness in the classroom. Knight (1999) mentioned that inclusive education and educational theory is related to the democratic theory, which has seven critical constructs or attributes. It includes the nature of educational authority, the ordering and inclusiveness of membership, the determination of important knowledge, the definition and availability of rights, the nature of participation in decisions that affect one's life, and the creation of an optimum environment for learning and equality.

Democratic authority, inclusion and democratic classrooms, democratic curriculum, student rights, the nature of participation in decisions that influence one's life, creating optimal learning settings, and equality are all included in the theory. It is argued that the above points are the democratic requirements in the classrooms expected by inclusive education. These factors determine whether or not the school and classroom are capable of becoming inclusive. The purpose of democratic theory in education is for all students to be capable of satisfying the standards of an informed, active, and responsible democratic citizen after completing secondary school (Knight, 1999). Knight discusses five key standpoints for inclusive educational practice as (i) The psycho-medical legacy, (ii) The sociological response, (iii) Curricular approaches, (iv) School improvement strategies (v) Disability studies critique. The psycho-medical legacy is defined as a system of broadly medicalized concepts that fundamentally regarded the individual as 'deficient' and assumed that such individuals required 'special education.' The sociological response viewpoint is a wide critique of 'the psycho-medical legacy' that emphasizes the societal construction of the educational needs of disabilities. Curricular approaches highlight the significance of curriculum in both meetings and effectively create learning challenges. School reform initiatives emphasize the importance of systemic structure in providing a comprehensive education. The disability studies critique is a point of view that typically comes from 'outside' education and develops an overtly political response to the exclusionary consequences of the psycho-medical model. Through these five perspectives, we can determine the inclusive education of children with disabilities. The medicalized, social construction, the role of curriculum, comprehensive schooling, and political response to inclusive education can be seen (Clough & Corbett, 2000). The social construct idea inclined to the post-modern

perspective is the study realm where perception towards CWHI is looked at in terms of social construct on right-outcome approach as mentioned above.

Review of Human Rights-based Approach and SDG Four

The study has adopted the human rights-based approach (HRBA) to education for all. UNESCO and UNICEF jointly designed the 'HRBA for Education for All,' and a document related to it was published in 2007. This approach is focused on establishing the framework for realizing children's rights to education and rights within education. It consists of human rights and education, a rights-based conceptual framework for education, state obligations and government responsibilities, and the role of other duty bearers.

In state obligations part, it talks about the inclusive framework. It thinks that anti-discrimination laws prohibiting directly or indirectly discriminatory politics, policies, and acts will not be enough to eliminate all types of exclusion and segregation. Separate schooling systems for children with disabilities, for example, are frequently maintained without violating anti-discrimination legislation. It is therefore suggested that legislation establishes a commitment to inclusion. It introduces requirements on education authorities to take all necessary measures to ensure that no groups of children are excluded and that any barriers to their access are removed. It also creates incentives to promote socially inclusive school environments and design and implement affiliative programs.

The human Rights-based Approach (HRBA) to Education for All' believes education is a fundamental human right that must be fulfilled before any other civil, political, economic, or social rights. The right to education is of paramount importance, as guaranteed by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which includes four basic principles: non-discrimination, the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival, and development of the child to the greatest extent possible; and the right of a child to express their opinions in all matters affecting them, with their opinions given a due weight based on their age and maturity. It talks about the determining factors to fulfill the mission of the right to education in terms of access and quality, equity and efficiency, universality and diversity, longer-term priorities and trade-offs, outcomes, and process, emergency responses in the short and longer-term, teachers and children's rights; and work and school (UNHR, 1989).

The major focus of the approach is on child rights of access to education, the right to quality education, and the right to respect within the learning environment, which are mainly focused on the 4As (Available, Accessible, Acceptable, and Adaptable). It has also been identified by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). It has been stated that the operation of educational institutions, including school buildings, educated teachers, and teaching materials, must be provided in sufficient quantities.

Similarly, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is another approach for this study. The fourth sustainable development goal is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. This goal is directly related to the subject matter of inclusive education in terms of children with disabilities. Target 4.5 of SDG goal no. 4 states, "By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations". Building and upgrading education facilities for children with disability and providing safe, non-violent, inclusive, and effective learning environments for all is another aim of 4 (A). of SDGs. The proportion of schools with access to (a) electricity, (b) the internet for pedagogical purposes, (c) computers for pedagogical purposes, (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities, (e) basic drinking water, (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities, and (g) basic hand-washing facilities are the indicators for SDGs (4 A 1) of (United Nations, 2018). According to the Secretary General's 2017 progress report on Goal No. 4, increased efforts will be required to achieve inclusive and equitable quality education for all, notably in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia, and for vulnerable populations such as persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples, refugee children, and poor rural children (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2017).

Empirical Review

This study highlights inclusive education focusing on CWHI, so this section presents the concerns of different research works on inclusive education and CWHI. It might be challenging to assess teachers' attitudes toward inclusiveness. A few research works examined the multiple cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of attitudes, as found in a review of teacher attitude studies conducted in six nations, including Australia, Canada, and India (Ewing et al., 2017). Nonetheless,

studies show that teachers had positive attitudes toward inclusion but also had reservations because they lacked the resources to remove some barriers or perceived the educational framework and learning environment as unsupportive.

According to a survey, instructors in Finland were skeptical about the viability of inclusion and its benefits for all kids without significant systemic and financial changes. Several respondents perceived inclusion policies as a front for cost-cutting (Honkasilta et al., 2019). In Japan, teachers generally viewed inclusion favorably, but many had reservations about its execution, partly because they lacked confidence in their capacity to engage in activities that would promote inclusion (Yada & Savolainen, 2017). In Cambodia, the type of condition that needed to be accommodated affected how teachers perceived the likelihood of including students with disabilities. At least 50% of respondents said it was "very conceivable" or "possible" to include children with physical, mental, hearing, or visual disabilities. However, less than 20% of children who were visually impaired or hard of hearing, had intellectual disabilities or had severe and numerous disabilities felt the same way (Kartika & Kuroda, 2019).

Overall, instructors lack access to thorough inclusion training throughout the world. According to the analysis of data gathered for the UNESCO global monitoring report (2020), 61% of the 168 nations examined offered some inclusion training. Many teachers cite a lack of training on inclusion or teaching vulnerable populations, even in nations where most teachers are trained and qualified. The situation is far more complex in countries with limited resources, where many teachers lack the necessary training under the national norms (Education International, 2018). Teachers in Bangladesh said that there were few professional development opportunities to address the needs of students with disabilities both before and during the school year (Rahaman, 2017). Teachers in Morocco lacked training in adaptable teaching techniques to ensure learning for kids with impairments or special needs (UNICEF, 2015).

On attitudes toward inclusion, inclusion-focused teacher education can have a positive effect. Research comparing pre-service vocational teacher education in Canada and Germany revealed that Canadian teachers were more likely to have favorable attitudes about inclusion and to be able to construct inclusive classrooms, partly because inclusion was given more prominence throughout training (Miesera and Gebhardt, 2018). In Seychelles, educators who had received training in inclusive

education indicated greater support for and more favorable attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms (Main et al., 2016). A system of inclusive education depends on its teachers. Classrooms are evolving as educational systems adapt to more diverse student populations. Teachers all over the world are more likely to come into contact with pupils who have a variety of experiences, backgrounds, abilities, and weaknesses. Many countries have made significant progress in educating teachers to support all learners, collaborate with colleagues, value diversity, and engage professionally. Some struggle to change attitudes, provide teachers with the tools to serve all learners, and create welcoming workplaces. Pre-service teacher education and ongoing professional development may be insufficient or inappropriate. A lack of training may limit their ability to encourage all children's learning potential.

A study on inclusive education in the Tanzanian context by Tungaraza (2014) suggested that there were barriers to inclusive education that hindered effective inclusive education practices. The qualitative study focusing on the perspectives of teachers and head teachers revealed that the hindering factors for effective inclusive education include inaccessible infrastructure, no different curriculum, less trained teachers, and not adequate teaching and learning materials. It was found that untrained teachers did not support implementing inclusive education practices in the schools. According to Heward (2013), all learners' diverse needs and interests, including those with hearing loss, can only be met by adjusting and modifying the common education curriculum to their individual requirements and interests. However, that has not been practiced.

In this line, another study carried out in Canada, focused on teachers' perspectives conducted by Richmond and Irvine (2013) elaborated four features of inclusive education from the perspectives of teachers as (1) attitudes towards inclusion, (2) supportive communication, and collaboration, (3) classroom community, and (4) support and training. The findings from qualitative data also corroborated the above results and indicated differences between elementary and secondary teachers' understanding and perceptions. The secondary teachers have, to some extent, a good understanding of inclusion and inclusive education.

These studies indicate that there has been an obstruction in implementing inclusive education due to a lack of trained teachers and other facilities and materials

available in the school. This study assumes that such situations can be corroborated in the context of developing countries like Nepal to reveal the trends further.

It can be assumed that there might be teaching problems among teachers who teach children with disabilities due to their diverse impairments. Teachers' sense of efficiency decreases as difficult students grow older. Here the difficult students refer to disabled students. The qualitative study on teachers further revealed that teachers do not neglect hard-to-teach students; instead, they think they are incapable of teaching them properly (Lopes, 2004).

Teachers' attitudes towards different categories of disabilities may differ, and this assumption was proved by the study "Teachers of the deaf as compared with other groups of teachers: attitude towards people with disabilities and inclusion" (Lampropoulou & Padeliaadu, 1997, p 30). It qualitatively revealed that teachers' attitudes differed according to their position and situation. Teachers of the deaf had a more appropriate attitude toward people with disabilities than other groups of teachers, but their attitude toward integration with other students was found to be the most negative.

Teachers' attitudes and impressions of students with impairments are always necessary. If their perceptions and attitudes are positive, there will be positive and effective execution of inclusive education for children with disabilities. According to their status and levels, teachers' attitudes may differ, as Murray (2008) revealed in a study focused on university faculties. The qualitative research showed that the university faculties generally had positive perceptions toward students with learning difficulties, and they were found willing to spend time supporting the students with learning difficulties.

In the case of hearing impairment in the learning process, it has been found that hearing-impaired students will have a lower learning process. Manchaiah and Stephens (2011), in their study on social networks of people with hearing impairment, argued that hearing impairment will have a variety of physical, mental and psychological problems that contribute to their difficulties in participation. Similarly, Powell et al. (2014) focused on deaf and hard-of-hearing students and indicated that hearing-impaired students' academic performance is severely obstructed by their communication barriers.

Other studies by Stinson and Liu (1999) and Kyle (2006) presented that the students with hearing impairment in inclusive classes seemed less to respond to

questioning, present an opinion, and involve themselves in classroom discussion. Hearing-impaired students require adequate time to learn the questions their teachers and colleagues ask and respond to them accurately. They need more time for group communication and interaction. Similarly, students with hearing impairment will have more difficulty following the class discussion. Thus, teachers have a crucial role in explaining the subject matter clearly to their students and encouraging them to participate in discussions. It solely depends on the way of teaching the students. The materials the teachers use in teaching will have a major role in understanding and receiving information from the students. According to Charema (2010), teachers' attitudes and readiness to involve and attend to the needs of the students need not be misjudged. In following the learning process, students with hearing impairments rely on what is said by the teacher (Smith, 2012). Holmström and Schönström (2017) stated that the opportunity provided to children with hearing impairment in inclusive classes depends on the teachers' proactive approach. Talmor and Kayam (2011) suggested that a single strategy will not be enough to situate teachers' attitudes. The two strategies must include instilling knowledge of disorders and exposure to individuals with special needs.

Here, teachers' proactive can be related to teachers' preparedness to the children with hearing impairments. In teachers' preparedness, a study was done on how ready teachers were to work with children who had hearing impairments (CWHI). Teachers were questioned on their level of confidence in dealing with deaf and hard-of-hearing students. Only 6 % of the teachers reported that they "always" felt ready to satisfy these children' educational demands. Teachers who felt prepared "most of the time" (53.9%) and "occasionally" (32.3%), however, were by far the majority. Compared to 56% of teachers with 10 years or less of experience, 73% of teachers with 10 years or more of experience said they have learned ways to work with children who are CWHI (Guardino, 2015).

According to other study, teachers are motivated to work with children who have hearing impairments because of their intelligence, diligence, high test scores, and seriousness about their studies, which would probably not be the case otherwise. In other words, the children who have hearing loss must demonstrate that they are "deserving" of the teacher's extra effort (Bamu et al., 2017). People with hearing loss frequently speech read while listening, which may give the impression that they are paying more attention than listeners without hearing loss (Rekkedal, 2017).

Even though the teachers are motivated, we can say that the learning needs of the children are not met appropriately. A study reveals that the learning and communication needs of participating children with hearing-impaired were not adequately met, neither through the use of technology nor human resources (Bell, 2013). The students encountered numerous obstacles in the form of attitudes, pedagogy, curriculum, communication, etc., all of which adversely affected their educational experience and potential academic results. Due to these obstacles, the students had to adopt a variety of personal coping mechanisms to aid in communication, learning, and during examinations. These coping mechanisms would not have been required if the hearing-impaired children had received adequate support (Bell, 2013).

The coping mechanism is related with the social adjustment of the students. Social adjustment is another area of concern when we talk about the social activities of children with hearing impairment. A study on the social adjustment of students with hearing impairments found that the majority of deaf teenage social adjustment falls into the intermediate category. This is in line with Hurlock's (1997) assertion that a teenager would have a positive social adjustment when they can play their social roles well. Yet, some teenagers with hearing loss are thought to be less able to successfully adapt to their surroundings. Many things, including the acceptance of the social environment, the educational environment, and a range of communication techniques, might contribute to it. Teenagers with hearing loss ultimately have a variety of social adjustment problems as a result of this disability (Daulay & Rahmawati, 2016).

There are available supportive things in schools to support the children. It is found that teachers reported employing comparable academic, social, and behavioral tactics despite the variety of traits and behaviors that the students exhibit as a result of their impairment. Academic interventions included everything from lower workloads to one-on-one tutoring. Positive behavior support, role-playing, social skills education, closeness, active listening, and modeling were some of the social and behavioral interventions used by the teachers to support for the education of CWHI (Guardino, 2015). Despite some of the support that may exist for their inclusion, it is obvious that students with hearing impairments still face numerous challenges in their education in regular schools despite the goal of inclusive education, which is to

promote student participation in academics and social life regardless of their hearing status (Stinson & Antia, 1999).

Throughout the usual school, students with hearing impairments face several difficulties. The school has expectations for these children, including specific methods of knowing, behaving, thinking, and acting (Baglieri & Knopf, 2004). A circumstance prevails in the schools where teachers are unaware whether the hearing loss students are learning effectively or not. The teacher's lack of sign language proficiency not only makes it difficult for them to explain some scientific formulas, but it also makes it difficult for them to determine whether the sign language interpreters are giving the students with hearing impairment the proper information (Bamu et al., 2017). Thus, it is suggested that the learning environment in schools be ensured, and the social adjustment of children with hearing impairment should be ensured through a practical and result-oriented approach. The pragmatic abilities of children with hearing loss should also be regularly assessed, and data should be gathered using a combination of behavioral tests and reports from real-world settings like home, daycare, and school to find more specialized practical solutions to support children with hearing loss on ensuring their learning abilities (Tuohimaa et al., 2022).

The social adjustment and learning environment in the school is crucial for the education of CWHI. As revealed by Bell (2013) that, the teaching and learning environment remained and will continue to be inaccessible without incorporating the principles of UDL (Universal Design for Learning) into curriculum design, teaching methods, and materials development as well as making reasonable academic adjustments to meet the language and communication needs of students with hearing impairment. UDL is a framework to support the implementation of the right to inclusive education by focusing on minimizing potential learning barriers and supporting students in mastering their own learning. UDL is a critical component of inclusive education. UDL is an important consideration when designing an inclusive education system because it supports a “whole person approach” and learning-friendly environments (IDA, 2021).

The research focused on the general allocation model and dilemmas of practice in primary schools. It was conducted by Margaret (2013) and revealed that inclusive education has not resulted in positive outcomes for students who need learning support. The research further elaborated that such a situation is due to the system developed on defective assumptions focused on a psycho-medical perspective

of disability where the intersectionality of disability with class or culture is not considered. The researcher opined that those students who need support are better understood as having 'home/school discontinuity' rather than disability. Similarly, the study also discussed how some parents might leverage their social and cultural capital to assure their children's access to more resources. As a result of financial models, the study claimed that a hierarchical structure has managed to support the need within inclusive settings in mainstream schools. According to the findings, a funding model that uses a methodical approach to reallocating funds from fewer benefits to low benefits helps students achieve their needs.

The above description is the qualitative finding of the study. Quantitatively, such findings might differ regarding educators' perceptions of inclusive education. Siebalak (2002) tested a hypothesis of the study as "the availability of facilities and/or strategies for the successful implementation of inclusive education has no relation with the gender of the respondents; the qualifications of the respondents; and the years of experience as an educator" (p. 141). After testing the hypothesis, it was found that the educators' gender, qualifications, and experiences have no relation to their perceptions of the successful implementation of inclusive education practices in the classroom (Siebalak, 2002). This finding suggests that for successful implementation of inclusive education, gender, qualifications, and experience of educators will not obstruct anything. These are not determining factors for conducting successful inclusive education practices in schools. Here, the finding suggests this way, but this study reveals whether it is true.

In Nepal, Shrestha (2017) studied teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in a community school context and initially found that the teachers accepted the inclusive education model for students with intellectual disabilities. The hypotheses were tested in terms of attitude towards behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavior. The relationship between teachers' knowledge and their intention to practice inclusiveness in the classroom was checked. However, after testing the hypothesis, the study concluded that, generally, teachers feel higher social pressure to practice inclusive education for students with intellectual disabilities. It further elaborated that teachers are less positive about providing inclusive education for students with intellectual disabilities. Similarly, the intention of teachers to practice inclusiveness in classrooms for students with intellectual disabilities increases with their knowledge about intellectual disability.

Further, the intention of teachers to practice inclusiveness in the classroom was associated with teachers' expectations from people with intellectual disabilities more than their knowledge about intellectual disability (Shrestha, 2017). The study has found that intention can be a significant predictor of the inclusive classroom practices of teachers (Shrestha, 2017). From the result, the study rejected the null hypothesis that no significant relationship exists between intention and classroom practices.

The study found it hard for senior teachers to accept the notion of inclusive education (Shrestha, 2017). The study has indicated an insignificant relationship between gender and subjective norms. Further, teachers were found to have decreased self-efficacy and control beliefs to practice inclusiveness in the classroom as the experience level increases. Another interesting finding revealed by the study is that male teachers are more confident as they can provide special need education to students with intellectual disabilities than female teachers. Special education training contributed to the classroom practice of inclusive education (Shrestha, 2017). Through the above findings of inclusive education, it can be argued that teachers' attitudes, beliefs, intentions, training, etc., are the major determining factors in practicing inclusive education in the classroom, which is also the area of this study. In terms of teachers' self-efficacy, highly efficacious teachers can effectively manage the classroom and there is positive relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and the classroom management practices to improve students learning and achievement (Shah, 2022).

Thapa (2012) revealed that school culture, the available resources, facilities, and services at school were not fully needed for girls with disabilities, which has resulted in those girls acquiring knowledge and skills to their full potential. Despite these obstructions of structural constraints, the girls were found to be hard-working compared to their peers, which seems like they were struggling to ensure a better future and lead a better life enthusiastically. The study was focused on girls with disabilities, but this study included both male and female children with disabilities who are studying at resource class schools and special schools. The available resources, facilities, and services provided by teachers will be the study realm. So, this finding can be linked to the findings of this study too.

Another study on 'Predictors of Early Reading Skill in 5-Year-Old Children with Hearing Loss' revealed that after adjusting for variation in receptive vocabulary,

nonverbal cognitive ability, and a variety of demographic factors, such as gender, degree of hearing loss, communication mode, type of sensory device, and age, multiple regressions showed that phonological awareness - PA (assessed using judgments of similarity based on words' initial or final sounds) made a significant, independent contribution to children's early reading ability (for both letters and words/non-words). Notably, the association between PA and reading was particular to reading and did not apply to math thinking, another academic skill. Additionally, multiple regressions revealed that children whose mothers had completed postsecondary education had better letter knowledge (names or sounds), and that better receptive vocabulary was related to less severe hearing loss, using a cochlear implant, and switching on the implant at a younger age (Cupples, 2014).

The interest and confidence of hearing-impaired students in Malaysia's vocational education were investigated in a study. The main finding demonstrates that while the respondents' confidence was at a moderate level, they were interested in specialized training. The results also demonstrate that there was no gender-based variation in the students' interest in vocational education. But there is a big gap between men and women when it comes to their willingness to pursue a career in education (Minghat et al., 2015).

Hearing loss students participate academically at the same level as average classmates, according to a study on 'Variables related to school participation among students with hearing loss'. However, compared to the average student, they contributed slightly less to class debates and teacher-led activities. When compared to teacher-led activities, classroom discourse is more challenging to follow and take part in. In fact, teacher-led activities are more structured and involve fewer communicators, which may account for the discrepancies. (Rekkedal, 2017).

Tanzanian researchers discovered a relationship between teachers' attitudes toward inclusiveness and their self-efficacy in implementing it (Hofman & Kilimo, 2014). Similarly, a Canadian study found that stronger collaborative self-efficacy was the single predictor of more positive attitudes toward inclusive education practices for students with developmental disabilities (Montgomery & Mirenda, 2014).

In Asian countries, the impact of teaching self-efficacy on teachers' inclusive practices and attitudes is similar. Ahmmed et al. (2012) looked at how teaching efficacy, attitudes, and perceived support influenced primary school teachers' willingness to integrate children with disabilities into their classes in a Bangladeshi study. Compared

to their counterparts with lower levels of self-efficacy regarding inclusive education, Bangladeshi teachers with a higher sense of efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms had stronger intentions to include children with disabilities. They established a more positive attitude toward inclusion.

In a study conducted in Shanghai, China, Wang et al. (2012) found that general and special education teachers had different levels of self-efficacy for inclusion. Teachers in mainstream schools reported lower efficacy for inclusive instructional strategies and collaboration, which was justified by an earlier observation (Wang et al., 2012, p 112) that the biggest barrier to a successful implementation of inclusive practices was a lack of knowledge of teachers in general schools for catering to the diverse needs of children with disabilities. Wang et al. (2012) expressed concern about the lack of theoretical and practical training that general education teachers receive through their teacher education programs. According to a Pakistani study, teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and self-efficacy beliefs for inclusive practices have negative relationships (Sharma et al., 2014). There are most likely a variety of contextual factors that have varying effects on the concept of teaching efficacy and attitudes.

An investigation of Bangladeshi pre-service teachers' attitudes and perceived teaching efficacy for inclusive education (IE) identifies their exam readiness. Based on mean examination scores on two scales, pre-service teachers generally have positive attitudes and high levels of teaching efficacy for IE (Ahsan et al., 2013). However, when we talk about attitude, it contradicts itself. It was discovered in Bangladesh that pre-service teachers did not consider learning Braille or sign language a necessary component of their preparation; instead, they saw it as an optional component of their education. Some people had negative attitudes about it because they thought it would add to their workload (Ahsan & Sharma, 2018). Another study in the Bangladeshi context showed that Pre-service teachers who felt they were effective teachers expressed less concern and had more favorable attitudes toward IE (Ahsan et al., 2012). It analyzed the finding of prior research studies by Sharma et al. (2006) and Loreman et al. (2005) that pre-service teachers' fears decrease as they grow more favorable about inclusion. According to studies by Weisel and Dror (2006) and Kim (2006), the most significant factor influencing attitudes toward inclusion was perceived teaching efficacy. Additionally, Savolainen et al. (2011) found that the perceived teaching efficacy, attitudes, and worries scores were

associated in Finland and South Africa among teachers using the same instruments as in this study.

The Bangladesh-based study found that compared to their primary-level colleagues, pre-service teachers at the secondary level had greater levels of perceived teaching efficacy, fewer worries, and more positive attitudes toward IE (Ahsan et al., 2012). These results contrast with earlier research on related topics (Baker, 2005; Forlin et al., 2010; Woodcock, 2011), which found that pre-service teachers at the primary level were more optimistic.

Prior teaching experience of teachers working with students with special education needs (SEN) was discovered to have a significant but minor negative effect on predicting perceptions of self-efficacy in managing behavior, collaboration, and inclusive instruction after the course in Hong Kong (Chao et al., 2016). This conclusion is consistent with the study of Savolainen et al. (2011), which discovered that teaching experience with SEN students was a poor predictor of self-efficacy for instructors in Finland and South Africa. Similarly, research with pre-service teachers in Australia indicated that concerns about becoming inclusive practitioners also increased after training in inclusive education (Forlin & Chambers, 2011).

Teachers appear to be more realistic about what they need to do to ensure that all students' needs are met after learning more about the expectations of inclusive education and having experience working with learners with SEN. They are also more concerned about their ability to do so. Furthermore, this Hong Kong study found that dealing with students with disabilities does not automatically boost instructors' feelings of efficacy; instead, it has been shown to have a negative impact (Chao et al., 2016).

In another study, the self-efficacy for inclusive education reported by pre-service teachers from Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and Indonesia was compared to various demographic factors. The findings show significant worldwide disparities; however, these differences may not necessarily exist amongst nations with more pronounced cultural and contextual distinctions. The factors influencing teachers' responses regarding self-efficacy and inclusion are the type of teacher preparation program for pre-service teachers, their level of knowledge regarding inclusion law and policy, their interactions with people with disabilities, their level of confidence, their prior teaching experience, and their training in working with students with disabilities (Loreman et al., 2013).

In his meta-analysis of studies in education, business, and vocational research, Klassen (2004) discovered cultural disparities in self-efficacy ratings. Those from non-Western cultural groups tended to have lower self-efficacy ratings, which were, nonetheless, more predictive of future functioning. Similarly, findings from a study on pre-service teachers' worries about inclusive education suggested that there may be an east-west cultural difference (Sharma et al., 2007). The findings of this study, which show that reactions from the Western nations of Australia and Canada are comparable to those from the Eastern nation of Indonesia, are in contrast to those of Sharma et al. and Klassen.

According to Bandura (1994), self-efficacy is a process that begins with individuals monitoring their learning. Meanwhile, Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) stated that self-efficacy is the readiness to help students achieve their self-determined learning goals. Understanding self-efficacy as a strong predictor of self-directed learning can assist schools in creating a productive and efficient learning environment for students. So, in this study also, the learning environment is one of the themes/factors of inclusive education practices. It assumes a relationship between the learning environment and self-efficacy, even in inclusive education practices. The discussion demonstrates a link between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. When discussing inclusive education practices, it is always important to keep teachers' perspectives and subjective aspects in mind. Perception is the subjective organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory data to represent and comprehend the information or environment (Schacter, 2011). Perception is also influenced by the recipient's learning, memory, expectancy, and attention (Bernstein, 2010). Better communication between teachers and students determines the recipients' or students' learning. Learning occurs when teachers and students communicate in and out of the classroom; how teachers interact with students directly impacts the quality of instruction. Through this interaction and communication, teachers develop a relationship with students. When students apply inter- and intra-personal techniques, the interaction helps their socio-emotional development (Silver et al., 2005) but also helps them build critical social and psychological abilities (Baker, 2006). The affective aspect of learning significantly impacts students' academic development and overall school experience (Cushman & Cowan, 2010). Teachers must consider themselves from their students' perspectives to create and maintain a strong teacher-student connection (Brookfield, 1995). Teachers are more equipped to foster an

environment that caters to the growth and improvement of their self-efficacy when they are aware of and understand how they and their students perceive and respond to the influence of classroom interactions in similar or different ways (Nuthall, 2007). The reported attitudes or perceptions of teachers toward students' needs are thus strongly related to self-efficacy, which ultimately helps to meet students' learning needs. The quality of the teaching and learning environments in schools should be improved as a result of improved teacher-student relationships, which may help students feel more optimistic about the educational process.

Research Gap

The previous studies (Ewing et al., 2017; Honkasilta et al., 2019; Yada and Savolainen, 2017; Kartika & Kuroda, 2019; Rahaman, 2017; Main et al., 2016 etc..) are based on head teachers' and teachers' perspectives on inclusive education, obstructions and problems in implementing inclusive education in the schools where children with disabilities study. Likewise, other bases are problems for children with hearing impairments in their learning, inclusive education and its dilemmas of practice, educators' perceptions of inclusive education, teachers' attitude toward inclusion of students with intellectual disabilities, and schooling of girls with disability. The studies (Tungaraza, 2014; Richmond & Irvine, 2013; Thapa, 2012, Shrestha, 2017 & others) also have indications of the obstruction of learning for children with disabilities in schools. They point out that the level of learning capacities of children with disabilities may vary according to their disabilities and the available facilities and services in the schools.

Some teachers' attitudes and perceptions-based studies were also carried out in the Nepali context. However, there is a research gap exclusively on CWHI and their learning difficulties. It is found that some good studies like "Inclusive education in Nepal from theory to practice; Teachers' attitude towards inclusion of students with intellectual disability in community schools; Schooling of girls with disability: A phenomenological study of Nepali girls; Moving towards inclusive education: How inclusive education is understood, experienced and enacted in Nepali higher secondary schools; Teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in Nepal" etc., were carried out in the field of inclusive education and children with hearing impairments in Nepal. There are a few studies focused on inclusive education and children with hearing impairments in Nepal. There is still a gap in producing a number of studies on inclusive education, children with disabilities and disabilities

considering the acute and vulnerable situations of children with disabilities in Nepal. Now there is a new discourse worldwide on “inclusion in special education”. Inclusion in special education entails students and teachers from regular and special education working and learning together (The University of Arizona, 2021).

Considering the reality of inclusivity within special education settings and ensuring the special needs education framework, Nepal has both segregation and integration models of inclusive education. The inclusivity within the CWHI in special education setting has not been dealt before. So, this research has claimed its best to have an eye to this area and to fill the the gap in unveiling teachers' perceptions towards CWHI-focused inclusive education in Nepal in terms of finding the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude along with the level of inclusive education practices in the schools. Even more, there were fewer studies carried out from a quantitative approach. The most of the studies applied qualitative and mixed-method in the field. The subjectivity of the subject matters is somehow fulfilled though the available research designs to research subjects are not fully accustomed. There seems to be a gap in determining and checking the facts through objectively analyzed findings.

It has been found that different determining factors, such as teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, contribute to the success and failure of inclusive education. Teachers' behaviour and self-efficacy are the factors used to predict motivation in inclusive classrooms. Self-efficacy and beliefs influence teachers' decisions about classroom practices, which affect the classroom environment (Klassen et al., 2011). Baron and Byrne (2004) asserted that self-efficacy significantly impacts students' learning activity. According to Moore and Esselman (1992), teacher self-efficacy was a substantial predictor of student accomplishment. Similarly, the teacher's attitude toward inclusion affects the learning environment of the student in the schools (Vanreusen et al., 2000). Hellmich et al. (2019) state that attitudes, knowledge and self-efficacy are crucial in implementing high-quality inclusive education practices in schools.

These studies have not focused on the attitude and self-efficacy of teachers as the main barrier to implementing inclusive education for children with hearing impairments. I did not find any studies conducted in the Nepali context to determine whether self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude assure effective inclusive practices in schools. There is an obvious need for quantitative rather than qualitative research to

determine the significance of the relationship between dependent and independent variables and the likelihood of the contribution of independent variables to dependent variables for ensuring effective inclusive education practices in the school.

Further, most of the studies figure out the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in different countries. However, studies predicting the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices have not been conducted in the Nepali context. So, this study contributes to filling the gap in predicting the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices by checking teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude and the level of inclusive education practices in CWHI-focused schools in Nepal. This study looks into the contribution of self-efficacy to the themes of inclusive education practices in schools.

From Nepali context, Nepal has witnessed a surge in research endeavors exploring the realms of inclusive education and the self-efficacy of teachers in recent times. Among these scholarly inquiries, notable academic journals such as "Application of case study methodology in the exploration of inclusion in education" by Shrestha et al. (2022), "Factors contributing teachers' self efficacy: A case of Nepal" conducted by Shah et al. (2023), and "Understanding the multifaceted dimensions, socio-psychological aspects, and current practices of inclusive education in Nepal: A comprehensive analysis" led by Kunwar et al. (2023) stand out.

Moreover, Shahi's (2022) investigation into the "Practices of inclusive education in Nepal" and Thapaliya's (2022) exploration of "Challenges and opportunities to implementing inclusive education: A case from Nepal" shed light on the practical aspects of inclusive education within the Nepalese context. Further insights is provided by Neupane et al.'s (2023) examination of "Special education teachers' knowledge on inclusive education provision in Nepal." Additionally, Shrestha et al. (2024) interrogate "How 'Inclusive' Has the Inclusive Education Been?" while Shah et al. (2023) contribute to the field through their research on the "Construction and validation of Nepali teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management practices instruments through the E-Delphi technique."

Thus, recent research endeavors in Nepal have made somewhat commendable strides in exploring the role of self-efficacy in inclusive education, there remains a notable gap in addressing inclusive education through a more theoretically grounded lens. Future studies would benefit from incorporating broader educational theories

and thematic parameters of inclusive education to enrich our understanding of inclusive educational practices within the Nepalese context.

Conceptual Framework

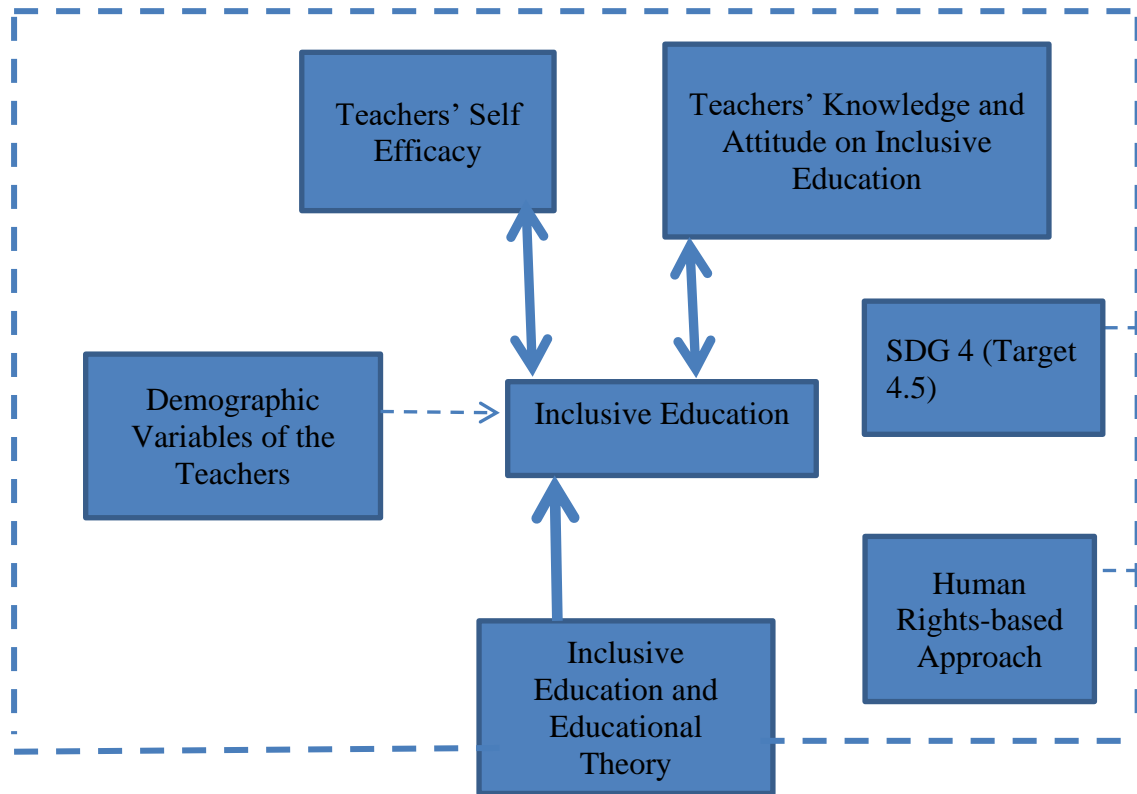


Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The Figure 2 is based on the inclusive education practices in the school. There is a two-way relationship between inclusive education practices and teachers' self efficacy. Similarly, there is a two-way relationship between inclusive education practices and knowledge and attitude of teachers on inclusive education. This means, inclusive education practices contribute to ensure self-efficacy of teachers and knowledge and attitude of teachers and self-efficacy of teachers contributes to ensure effective inclusive practices in the schools. The inclusive education practices are also differed according to the demographic variables of the teachers.

Similarly, a strategy of inclusiveness in the schools is applied through the theoretical backup of inclusive education and educational theory (Knight, 1999), which is deliberated to democratic theory based on the postmodernist perspective of

inclusive education and disability. Further, a strategy of the right to education for all is applied through the human rights-based approach to education for all. The HRBA and SDG 4 (target 4.5) are also linked to inclusive education and educational theory as shown in the conceptual framework. Thus, the study is based on the idea mentioned above and the ideological framework generated based on the research questions of the study.

The study's theoretical base is "Inclusive Education and Educational Theory," which is based on democratic theory. This theory, propounded by Knight (1999), includes seven themes for inclusive education: "roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, participation, availability of rights, learning environment, inclusiveness and equality for inclusive education" in the country. These themes are also indicated in the quality indicators of inclusive education by Jangira and Kapoor (2017), including the Inclusive Education Policy 2016 for Persons with Disabilities, Nepal, to ensure inclusive education for children. All these considerations have suggested that the seven components of democratic theory will result in effective inclusive education practices in the schools where children with disabilities study. Thus, this study uses the seven constructs of inclusive education to determine the level of inclusive education in schools.

Other scholars (e.g., Brophy, 1986; Kagan, 1992; Nussbaum, 1992; Rowan et al., 1997) have indicated that teachers' self-efficacy, including knowledge and attitude, is essential to ensure inclusive education practices in schools. As shown above, the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude will contribute to ensuring effective inclusive education practices in the schools, which have been justified and proved by previous research/literature in different parts of the world. Here, the teachers' self-efficacy is also guided by the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), and the knowledge and attitude are also guided by the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). However, this study is based explicitly on inclusive education, where the relationship of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude is explored in inclusive education practices. The theory of self-efficacy and planned behavior are briefly discussed in the study's discussion section.

According to self-efficacy theory, a person's self-efficacy relates to confidence in their ability to carry out the behaviors required to achieve particular performance goals (Bandura, 1977). The belief in one's capacity to exercise control over one's motivation, behavior, and social environment is known as self-efficacy. Thus,

effective inclusive education practice is possible here in the study because of self-efficacious teachers. Different research works validate these possibilities.

According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB), an individual's behavioral intentions are shaped by three fundamental factors: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The most immediate predictor of human social behavior, in turn, is behavioral intention, which is a core principle of TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Thus here in the study, the knowledge and attitude intent to contribute to effective inclusive education practices through planned behavioral factors validated by different studies also.

Thus, on the one hand, the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude directly affect ensuring inclusive education practices in the schools. On the other hand, the democratic theory, including quality indicators and policy documents, has also indicated that the seven features of inclusive education will assure effective inclusive education practices in schools. Thus, through these components, we are very much sure that without self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, effective inclusive education in schools seems not perfectly possible, and without the seven components indicated in theory, effective inclusive education practices in the schools seem to be impossible.

This assumption could not be enough to ensure inclusive education practices, but this theory believes that if these seven components of inclusive education are fulfilled, then effective inclusive education practices will be possible in inclusive settings of schools. Thus, this study examines teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude and the level of inclusive education practices thematically to determine whether the CWHI schools are delivering effective inclusive education practices. Further, the study also figures out the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. Besides, the study will reveal the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different themes of inclusive education practices so that it will be easy to understand the contribution of self-efficacy on the specific factors/themes to ensure effective inclusive education practices in the schools.

Chapter Summary

To ensure the claims of inclusive education for children with disabilities, especially hearing impairment, I reviewed different literature on inclusive education. First, I discussed the literature by defining inclusive education. Then I checked the existing policies and provisions for educating children with disabilities in Nepal.

Third, I discussed the other available rules and legal frameworks supporting inclusion in Nepal. I discussed about models of disability inclusive teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in the world. I reviewed the study's theoretical lens and approaches from HRBA, SDG Goal No. 4, to its core theory of inclusive education and educational theory with its justification and focus areas. Fifth, I reviewed some of the empirical findings related to inclusive education and disabilities along with the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, and inclusive education practices in the schools and the role of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude in ensuring effective inclusive education practices theoretically and conceptually. After reviewing the literature, policies, provisions, and theoretical and empirical findings, I point out the research gap to explore effective inclusive education for children with hearing impairment. Further, self-efficacy is a strong predictor to ensure effective inclusive education practices in schools. Then I conceptualized the study's theoretical framework with its core identity by developing the strategies derived from SDG goal no. 4, HRBA to education for all, and inclusive education and educational theory to contribute to effective and better inclusive education practices in the schools for better education of CWHI.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the philosophical standpoint and methodological considerations for carrying out the study. It also discusses the ontology, epistemology, and axiology of the research, as well as the research paradigm and design, by establishing the worldview and methods used to complete this study. The chapter also discusses the tools and techniques for the selected methods, the research population and sample, and data analysis and interpretation. The reliability and validity check, as well as its interpretation, are also discussed. It presents how questionnaires are created, how schools are chosen, and how respondents are approached. Furthermore, the quality standards and ethical considerations for the research are discussed.

Philosophical Considerations

Ontology is "the study of being." It's about "what kind of world we're looking at, the nature of existence, and the structure of reality as a whole" (Crotty, 2003). The ontological assumptions, according to Guba and Lincoln (1989), are those that answer the questions "what is there that can be known?" or "what is the nature of reality" (p. 83)? Thus, the ontological assumption in quantitative research is an objective reality. The nature of reality is fixed, stable, observable and measurable in quantitative research. This study is realistic, where the measurement of the variables is done. The study is linked to inclusive education and educational theory. It is based on a natural model to cover a wider population and empirical evidence (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Thus, this study is guided by the ontological premise that realities can be objectively explored and identified. The particular study is that effective inclusive education practices for children with hearing impairment are based on the seven themes/factors of the theory, which is also linked to teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude in the schools. The ontological standpoint of this study is that inclusive education practices for children with hearing impairments ensure the inclusivity of all children with hearing impairments regardless of gender, caste, creed, ethnicity, and any form of a minority that is universally accepted. Epistemology studies how people think about knowledge and how they construct it.

The philosophical assumption impacts the approaches and methods that researchers consider appropriate (Crotty, 1998; Lather, 2006). Thus, the

epistemological assumption in quantitative research is objectivism. The knowledge is gained through scientific and experimental research. Knowledge is objective and quantifiable. Objectivism is established in the study. The study believes in objective truth/reality, where reality is studied probabilistically. The epistemological stand of the study is guided by the survey findings on the level of inclusive education and the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude as perceived by the teachers teaching CWHI students in the schools. The social constructionist epistemology of the disability model through survey findings is the study line.

Axiology is a discipline of philosophy that investigates value judgments (Saunders et al., 2012). Axiology examines the importance of the researcher's own worth at all phases of the research process (Li, 2016). Thus, the axiological assumption in quantitative research is to emphasize value-freedom. It believes that subjectivity and bias lead to error. This study is value-freedom, where subjectivity is avoided. Axiologically, the study's standpoint is value-freedom, where the empirical relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, along with the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices in the schools, have been identified through the empirical tool. Since the study is value free in nature, here my axiological positioning was purely value free based on objectivity in constructing questionnaire on the basis of contextual and theoretical backup by ensuring reliability and validity along with analysing and interpreting the findings through statistical tools and its outputs rather subjective rigor.

Research Paradigm

The term paradigm is used in educational research to describe a researcher's 'worldview' (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). This worldview informs the meaning or interpretation of study results by providing a perspective, thinking, school of thought, or common views. According to Lather (1986), a research paradigm expresses the researcher's beliefs about the world in which they live and wish to live. Since the study is quantitative research with a survey method, the study's paradigm is post-positivism.

According to Cresswell and Clark (2011), post-positivism has four worldviews: determinism, reductionism, empirical observation, and measurement and theory verification. This study is inclined to theory verification and objective findings on the measurement. The inclusive education and educational theory's principles and

determinants were checked in this study after getting the findings from the survey and its measurement. The empirical findings were found through the survey method with the teachers and head teachers of the selected schools. Thus, post-positivism on a social construct of disability is the study realm. It applies the post-positivist worldview of the quantitative approach by describing the level of perceptions and correlational and regression measurement of dependent and independent variables. It is directly related to the natural model of objective reality. Since the objectively verified reality of teachers' perceptions toward inclusive education can only be possible through a quantitative approach, the study chose the post-positivism paradigm.

Methodological Considerations

The study has chosen a quantitative research approach with a deductive method. The main notion of the study is to find the perceptions of teachers toward children with hearing impairments focused on inclusive education in terms of the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, along with the level of inclusive education practices in the schools perceived by the teachers.

Quantitative research methods focus on objective measurements and statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data acquired through polls, questionnaires, and surveys, as well as modifying pre-existing statistical data using computing tools (Babbie, 2010). Quantitative research is concerned with collecting numerical data and generalizing it across groups of people or explaining a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013).

Reviewing the different social research on similar topics, there were the options of choosing quantitative and qualitative research methods. The level of perceptions can also be figured out through the qualitative method, so the quantitative method is applied to reveal the actual level of teachers' perceptions in objective justification. The quantitative research method attempts to investigate the answers to the questions starting with how many, how much, and to what extent (Rasinger, 2013). In this context, the quantifiable measurement of perceptions can only be possible through its quantifiable measure, and the measurement can only be possible from the quantitative approach. Besides, the quantitative findings are likely to be generalized to a whole population or a sub-population because it involves a larger randomly selected sample (Carr, 1994).

Similarly, making my ontological and epistemological stand explicit, the research method as a survey to figure out the level of teachers' perceptions and the relationship between dependent and independent variables is chosen. It is believed that the wider level of perceptions towards CWHI-focused inclusive education can only be figured out with a wide range of survey with the respondents directly involved in providing education to CWHI.

Research Design

The research design for the study is descriptive, along with applying correlation and logistic regression methods. The study is a survey research design where the quantitative data were collected through a survey. The analysis categorically presents the level of perceptions, the relationship between variables, and its testing to predict the contribution of the independent variable to the dependent one are applied.

The descriptive research technique is a fundamental research method that looks at the situation as it is right now. Descriptive research entails identifying characteristics of a phenomenon based on observation or investigating the relationship between two or more occurrences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). According to McIntyre (1999), surveys can acquire data from broad population samples. They are also great for gathering demographic information that helps define the sample's makeup. Surveys provide a wide range of study factors that need a little time and money to construct and run and are generally simple to generalize (Bell, 1996). This study generalizes the situation of the schools where children with hearing impairments survey in 20 districts, based on the head teachers' and teachers' perceptions. This study reveals the existing situation of the schools in terms of the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude and the level of inclusive education practices. It has used the descriptive research approach on a quantitative method by applying correlation and logistic regression analysis.

Study Area, Population and Sampling

The study area of the research is 20 districts namely Jhapa, Morang, Sunsari, Rautahat, Bara, Saptari, Siraha, Kathmandu, Kavre, Sindhupalchowk, Sindhuli, Makwanpur, Kaski, Syanjha, Baglung, Gorkha, Rupendehi, Dang, Surkeht and Doti. The districts were selected where there were mostly the schools (special schools, integrated schools and resource classes) for CWHI. The districts were avoided where there were only resource classes as there were only one or two teachers available in

the resource classes. To ensure maximum number of teachers and to gather data from the diverse school categories with diverse experiences of teachers in inclusive education, the districts were selected. I collected a list of teachers in the available schools. The total teachers teaching in the schools were the population for this study.

Table 2

Available Schools in the Districts and No. of Teachers

SN.	Districts	Special Schools	Resource Classes	Integrated Schools	No. of Teachers
1.	Jhapa	-	1	1	16
2.	Morang	1		1	25
3.	Sunsari	1	1	-	25
4.	Bara	1	1	-	9
5.	Rautahat	1	1	-	8
6.	Siraha	1	1		12
7.	Saptari	1	1		10
8.	Kathmandu	1	1	-	25
9.	Kavre	1	1	-	10
10.	Sindhupalchowk	1	1	-	7
11.	Sindhuli	1	1	-	9
12.	Makwanpur	1	1	-	8
13.	Kaski	1	1	-	21
14.	Baglung	1	1	-	18
15.	Syangja	1	1	-	5
16.	Gorkha	1	1	-	18
17.	Rupendehi	1	1	-	22
18.	Dang	-	1	1	9
19.	Surkhet	1	1	-	7
20.	Doti	-	1	1	4
21.	Dhading	1	1	-	12
22.	Humla	1			5
23.	Jumla		1	1	5
	Total				290

(DoE, 2016)

Here in the study, special schools were also incorporated for the study purpose because of the fact that there is diversity in the special schools also in terms of linguistic, ethnicity, class, caste, age, gender, socio-economic background, levels/intensities of disabilities within similar category can be found in the special setting also. In special education also, particular category of disability will have also differences. When we talk about children with disabilities, among the similar category, there will also be undeniably diversity. We can take an example of children with hearing impairments. Hearing loss can range from mild to severe to profound. It can affect one or both ears, making it difficult to hear conversational speech or loud sounds (WHO, 2021). People who are 'hard of hearing' have mild to severe hearing loss. Hard of hearing people typically communicate through spoken language and can benefit from hearing aids, cochlear implants, and other assistive technologies, as well as captioning. The majority of 'deaf' persons have substantial hearing loss, which means they have little or no hearing. They frequently communicate through sign language (WHO, 2021).

Similarly, such categories will also be there in intellectual disability (ID) from severity classifications. To indicate the intensity of the disease, the phrases "mild," "moderate," "severe," and "profound" have been employed. The vast majority of people with ID have modest intellectual disability (Sattler, 2002). In the same way, there is a wide range of vision impairments. The International Classification of Diseases 11 (2018) divides vision impairment into two categories: distance vision impairment and close vision impairment. Many distinct elements influence a person's perception of vision impairment. This covers, for example, the availability of prevention and treatment treatments, access to vision rehabilitation (including assistive items such as spectacles or white canes), and whether the person has difficulty accessing buildings, transportation, and information (WHO, 2019).

Since this study is based on having perceptions of teachers in the schools where children with hearing impairments are studying, the study could not exclude special education setting (special schools) where children with hearing impairments have been studying since long back. From inclusion point of view also, when there is diversity in terms of hearing loss intensity and others, the inclusive education practices needed to be figured out in special schools also. In special schools also, the seven thematic areas (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, learning environment, participation, availability of rights, inclusiveness

and equality) identified by the inclusive education and educational theory can be figured out, thus special schools were also included as a sample category for the study for the perceptions of teachers towards inclusive education. Now there is a new discourse worldwide on “inclusion in special education”. Inclusion in special education entails students and teachers from regular and special education working and learning together. While accommodations are offered, students of all learning styles benefit from working and developing alongside one another in special education inclusion (The University of Arizona, 2021). Considering all these aspects, the special education setting can also be analyzed from inclusion point of view thus included in the study purpose.

The respondents were teachers and head teachers of the districts, on which male and female, including as much diversity, were maintained as far as possible. Since the study is basically to find out the level of teachers' perceptions of inclusive education with a focus on hearing impairment in Nepal, the practices in inclusive education in the implementation of inclusive education for children with hearing impairment was crucial for the study that was managed systematically.

A population is a group of people or things with one or more characteristics that are used to collect and evaluate data. A subset of the population containing the characteristics of a larger population is referred to as a sample. The population is discussed first in the dissertation, followed by an explanation of how the sample was obtained from the population (Simon & Goes, 2012). Here in the study, the population was teachers teaching children with hearing impairments in different districts of Nepal.

In research, sampling refers to selecting individuals, units, and/or environments to be investigated. Unlike quantitative studies, which aim for random sampling, qualitative studies frequently employ deliberate or criterion-based sampling, which involves selecting a sample with qualities relevant to the study subject (Creswell, 1998). In the study, the sample was the teachers teaching children with hearing impairments in different districts of Nepal.

As of a document in “Disabled Focus Inclusive Education Simplifier Book, 2018” published by Education and Human Resource Development Center, there are a total of 33 special schools, 23 integrated schools, and 380 resource classes for children with disabilities. Out of 290 teachers, I collected responses from 182 teachers. Thus, the total number, i.e., the population of teachers in selected schools

was 290, from which a total of 182 responses were collected through the formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) because sample size was known.

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

Here, n = sample size N = population size = 290 e = acceptable error = 0.05 of sample size χ^2 = Chi-square $df = 1$ and reliability level 95% ($\chi^2 = 3.841$) p = the population proportions (Assumed to be 0.5). When the population is known, this formula is best suited that is why it the formula was chosen.

So, after using the formula as,

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

$$n = 3.841 \times 290 \times 0.5(1 - 0.5) / 0.0025(290-1) + 3.841 \times 0.5(1 - 0.5)$$

$$n = 278.47 / 0.7225 + 0.96025$$

$$n = 278.47 / 1.68275$$

$$n = 165$$

Thus, the actual sample size for the study was 165. To reach the sample size, I clustered all the selected district's schools. By doing that I reached to 20 district's 40 schools. Clusters are natural groupings of people—for example, electoral wards, general practices, and schools. Cluster sampling involves obtaining a random sample of clusters from the population, with all members of each selected cluster invited to participate (Sedgwick, 2014). Thus, to ensure all teachers' representation in the clustered schools, I spent two days in the district. After visiting the 19th district as indicated in the Table 3 i.e Doti, the sample size reached to 162. There was a need of 165 samples as of the calculation, so I visited another district i.e Kathmandu then the sample size reached to 182. Then I stopped visiting another clustered districts namely Dhading, Humla and Jumla to collect the data from the school.

Here,

Population: 290 teachers of 23 districts

Sampling Frame: List of teachers who were working in the schools

Sample needed size: 165 (As of Krejcie and Morgan, 1970)

Sample reached size: 182

(I used cluster sampling by visiting clustered districts' schools and collected data from each school and stopped collecting the data from the districts as soon as it reached to sample size).

Table 3

Visited Schools and Sampled Teachers in the Districts

SN.	Districts	Special Schools	Resource Classes	Integrated Schools	Sampled Teachers
1.	Jhapa	-	1	1	13
2.	Morang	1		1	15
3.	Sunsari	1	1	-	17
4.	Bara	1	1	-	6
5.	Rautahat	1	1	-	6
6.	Siraha	1	1		8
7.	Saptari	1	1		7
8.	Kavre	1	1	-	8
9.	Sindhupalchowk	1	1	-	6
10.	Sindhuli	1	1	-	8
11.	Makwanpur	1	1	-	6
12.	Kaski	1	1	-	14
13.	Baglung	1	1	-	10
14.	Syangja	1	1	-	5
15.	Gorkha	1	1	-	8
16.	Rupendehi	1	1	-	10
17.	Dang	-	1	1	6
18.	Surkhet	1	1	-	5
19.	Doti	-	1	1	4
20.	Kathmandu	1	1	-	20
	Total				182

Tool Construction

The tool used for the study was the questionnaire for the survey method. For tool construction, I faced several problems and issues. First, I tried to use the tool (structure questionnaire) designed by different studies carried out at national and

international levels. I had the challenge of constructing the questionnaire in the context of Nepal. It was because that the schools were dispersed geographically and I had to capture the perceptions from most of the schools. I consulted with research experts and my supervisor to construct the tool for my research. They suggested me to follow the thematic areas of inclusive education identified by the theory. As for the need for my research questions, the questionnaire should align with the ideas of inclusive education and educational theory. I went into the theory in detail and found that there are seven thematic areas in theory. These areas are roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, rights availability, learning environment, participation, equality and inclusiveness. Thus, the inclusive education practice based questionnaire was determined for the thematic areas of the theory.

Through different research studies, there is a role of self-efficacy and knowledge and attitudes to inclusive education practices. It is decided that the questionnaire should also be based on the teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude. Finally, the self-structured questionnaire was divided into two major parts: inclusive education themes and the perception of teachers in terms of self-efficacy and knowledge and attitudes. So, the questionnaire or tool's construct was a self-developed questionnaire based on the theory of inclusive education, containing demographic information about the respondent. It also relies on inclusive education themes for its implementation (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equity, and inclusiveness). It draws figures on school teachers' perceptions of children with hearing impairments in terms of self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude with a five-point Likert scale of completely agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and completely disagree.

The questionnaire has three parts (i) demographic information of the respondent (ii) inclusive education themes as an implementation of inclusive education (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equity, and inclusiveness) and (iii) school teachers' perceptions toward hearing impairment in terms of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude on statement format with the five-scale response as completely agree; agree, undecided, disagree and completely disagree. The questionnaire was set according to the themes designed for inclusive education about inclusive education and educational theory.

Similarly, Quality Indicators for Inclusive Education (Jangira & Kapoor, 2017) and Inclusive Education Policy (2016) for People with Disability were referred to and incorporated in line with the construct of inclusive education and educational theory.

This quantitative study's tool was a descriptive analysis questionnaire to determine the level of perceptions and application of statistical tools such as correlation and binary logistic regression. The relationship between the variables with the prediction of the contribution of the independent variable to different factors of inclusive education practices was revealed through statistical tools. The tool used for the study was the questionnaire for the survey method. The cross-sectional survey design, which implies that data are collected at a single point in time (McMillan, 2000), is utilized for data collecting.

Data Collection Process

The field plan for the study was three months for the questionnaire survey and an additional three months for assembling the data gathered from the field. It took me two months to visit all selected schools and gather the data. The contact details of selected schools were collected first, and the head teachers or resource teachers were contacted before visiting the particular schools in the districts. I approached through a formal request letter for a survey in the selected schools. Before visit to the particular school, I informed them previously. I visited the schools on the date and time as suggested by the head teachers or resource teachers of the schools. The teachers were requested to be there in the hall of the schools when I visited. A kind of orientation was happened before filling the forms. As soon as they were gathered, I provided them the questionnaire. I started collecting data from the eastern region's districts, the western regions, the central, mid-western, and far western region's districts, respectively. I explained to the participants about the structure and contents of the questionnaire and I informed them how to select the alternatives for each question. They were asked to select an alternative based on their understanding freely. They were instructed not to copy each other's responses and to choose the alternative themselves.

The quantitative data have been collected through individual surveys with the teachers and head teachers. The survey questionnaire as a tool was prepared, which was filled out by the respondents from the schools where children with hearing impairments study in 20 districts through which perceptions of inclusive education

towards hearing impairment were assessed in terms of the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude along with the level of inclusive education practices.

After collecting each of the responses from 182 respondents from the selected schools, the filled forms were assembled. The assembling process involved ensuring whether the provided forms were properly returned or not and whether they were filled adequately or not. Each variable-based frame was developed as per the questionnaire structure in SPSS, and the responses were entered accordingly. After entering the responses, the data were cleaned, and the data's internal consistency was checked.

The effect of extraneous variables in the study was controlled. An extraneous variable is any factor that is not the independent variable that can affect an experiment's dependent variables, which are the control conditions. Extraneous variables can be natural characteristics of the participant, such as age or gender, or they could be features of the environment such as noise or lighting (Eads, 2022). In the study, participant's variables, basically demographic variables, were controlled. As suggested by Eads (2022), the participant's variables can be controlled through the method of sample determination, standardized procedures, counterbalancing, and masking. For this study, I used a sample size determination method through the formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970), so the sampling procedure was applied. In standardized procedures, I created standard procedures to keep the environment the same for each respondent. I invited them all to the school's hall for the survey purpose and provided them with an equal time of 45 minutes to respond to the questionnaire. They can leave the hall after finishing the responses to the questionnaire. In the counterbalancing method, first, I separated the respondents into two groups. First, I asked them to respond to the first section i.e demographic section. After they finished the first section, I asked the first group to respond from section two and asked the second group to respond to the third section of the questionnaire. I was there in person monitoring whether they were following the rules or not. So, through these approaches, I controlled the effect of extraneous variables in the study.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Before the statistical analysis of the quantitative survey results, the data were screened on the uni-variate, bi-variate, and multi-variate levels. Outlier cases must also be excluded from the study because a case that falls into one outcome category is likely to fall into another. This may result in a poor model match (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2000). The demographic variables of the study are age, gender, education, types of disabilities, and school categories of the teachers.

The independent variables for the study are teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, and the dependent variable for the study is inclusive education practices as an implementation of inclusive education. These variables were measured in descriptive analysis in terms of their levels in a mean score and standard deviation value. Similarly, correlational and regression analysis, as the mathematical tool, was also used for analyzing the results.

Data screening includes the descriptive statistics for all the variables in terms of the level of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, including the level of inclusive education themes. Descriptive statistics for the survey items were summarized in the text and reported in tabular form. Mean and standard deviation values of each of the statements of inclusive education practices, including teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, were found to reveal the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, including inclusive education practices. Similarly, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices was found through correlation analysis. Further, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different factors of inclusive education practices was found through binary logistic regression analysis.

In the study, the data were interpreted and analyzed according to the need of research questions. For the first research question, teachers' perceptions were analyzed in terms of their level of self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education practices in the schools through the interpretation of mean and standard deviation outputs on each statement. For the second research question, the level of demographic variables was interpreted through the output of mean and standard deviation measurements. For the third research question, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices was the analysis angle interpreted through Pearson correlation outputs. For the fourth research question, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different themes of inclusive education practices was the analysis angle interpreted through binary logistic regression outputs.

To minimize the data error, I used the techniques by incorporating categorizing the sample into different groups by age, gender, location, school type, teachers' types on disabilities and their other demographic variables; identifying the total population size of respondents previously; ensuring a high representation of

sample in terms of province, district, school category and in-person visit of researcher in the field. Before going to the field, a pilot test was also conducted in Kathmandu valley. These measures helped me to manage data effectively in the study.

Reliability and Validity

In quantitative research, the reliability and validity of the instrument are critical for reducing errors caused by measurement issues in the study. Reliability refers to a measurement technique's accuracy and precision (Thorndike, 1997). The study's reliability and validity were examined to confirm the authenticity of the study's findings.

Reliability

Pilot testing was used to establish the survey instrument's stability, commonly known as test-retest reliability. Test-retest reliability is established when the same results are obtained when the same survey is administered to similar research participants multiple times (Instrument reliability, 2001). The actual survey results were then compared and correlated with the preliminary findings of the pilot study, and the correlation was expressed using the Pearson 'r' coefficient (Instrument reliability, 2001).

Three schools of Kathmandu valley were visited for pilot testing. The goal of the pilot study was to validate the instrument and test its reliability. After preparing the questionnaire based on the indicators of inclusive education, the pilot test of the survey was carried out in Kathmandu valley-based schools. The pilot survey results helped establish stability and internal consistency reliability by determining the alpha value. After incorporating the inputs from the pilot test, the questionnaire was finalized, and then the field-based plan was prepared.

The visited schools represent special, integrated, and resource classes. The survey was taken with 20 respondents (8 males and 12 females) for pilot testing. Cronbach's alpha score measured the internal consistency because it considers the variance of each item. The Cronbach's alpha scores of different variables in the questionnaire are presented in Table 3.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Score for Inclusive Education Practices and Perceptions of Teachers towards Inclusive Education Focus on Hearing Impairment

Reliability

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha Value	No. of Statements
Inclusive Education Practices	.852	61
Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education Focus on Hearing Impairment	.803	22

In this study, Cronbach's alpha score for all study variables (Table 4) is accepted to a high degree of internal consistency. With the overall score of 0.852 for inclusive education practices section and 0.803 for perceptions of teachers toward inclusive education focus on hearing impairment section, the degree of internal consistency of the questionnaire was ensured.

Based on the analysis of individual items, some questions were removed from the final questionnaire. The pilot testing served the purpose of contextualizing the questionnaire. Based on the response to pilot testing and the suggestions from the respondents, the final questionnaire was modified and developed.

Validity

The degree to which a study accurately reflects or analyzes the specific notion or construct the researcher is trying to measure is called validity (Thorndike, 1997). There are three major validity types: content, construct, and criterion.

The first category is content validity. This category looks at whether the instrument adequately covers all the content it should concerning the variable. In other words, does the instrument cover the entire domain related to the variable or construct it was designed to measure? A subset of content validity is face validity, where experts are asked their opinion about whether an instrument measures the concept intended (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The extent to which the survey items and scores from these questions are typical of all potential questions is known as content validity in the study. A group of "education and disability specialists," who have a specific level of experience in education and students with hearing impairments, looked over the wording of the survey items. This helped assess whether the survey questionnaire seemed relevant to the subject it aimed to measure.

Construct validity refers to whether you can draw inferences about test scores related to the studied concept. Three types of evidence can be used to demonstrate a research instrument has construct validity. The evidences are homogeneity, convergence, and theory evidence (Heale & Twycross, 2015). For construct validity, the results of this study were checked with the results of similar studies done at national and international levels in the discussion section. A lot of similar research findings were cited for validation.

Criterion validity refers to the extent to which a research instrument relates to other instruments that measure the same variables. A criterion is any other instrument that measures the same variable. Criterion validity is measured in three ways: convergent, divergent, and predictive validity (Heale & Twycross, 2015). For criterion-related validity, the self-designed survey questionnaire in line with the construct of inclusive education and educational theory (democratic theory), including quality indicators of inclusive education along with the disability policy of Nepal, 2016 for this study was compared on the consistency of the results with existing instruments, measuring the same construct. Continued efforts were made to learn if one or more instruments were available.

Ethical Considerations

I was very aware of ethical issues that could arise at any stage of my study. Before taking the data from the respondents, their consent was taken verbally. Before administrating the questionnaire, the purpose of the research and the meaning of each questionnaire was informed to the respondents. The respondents were assured by saying that the given version of them would be used for academic purposes only and remain confidential. Similarly, gender balance (male 87 and female 95), regional balance and geographical balance (Province 1-7 from Hill, Terai and Mountain) were maintained by choosing the respondents from the schools where CWHI students were studying. Gender, disability, and child rights sensitivity were ensured while discussing with the respondents and children in the schools. The consent was taken before proceeding to the questionnaire. Quantitatively oriented research must meet the three prongs of research ethics: data access, production transparency, and analytical transparency (Franco, 2021). This study is conducted through research ethics, so data access, data transparency, and analytical transparency were ensured. The acknowledgment of the data used through proper citation, the description of the data

generation and collection process, and the link between the data generated and the research conclusion have been delineated in the study for their ethical value.

Chapter Summary

A methodological choice was made based on the study agenda, research questions, and theoretical framework. The study agenda on inclusive education was created per the chapters above, which describe my personal and professional lives. The research agenda helped me to design research questions that let me examine and construct the disability theme as children with hearing impairment in the social construct of disability as soon as it was created. Then, I was inspired to employ a quantitative research strategy with a post-positivist paradigm under descriptive analysis, including correlational and regression analysis as statistical tools to uncover teachers' perceptions of their level of knowledge, attitude, and self-efficacy, as well as their level of use of inclusive educational.

I chose the survey method because it gave me a lot of leeway in addressing teachers' opinions of inclusive education that is CWHI centered. I chose the survey approach to uncover a single reality based on the claims of objective knowledge about inclusive education for people with hearing impairments because the CWHI targeted inclusive education as my research agenda. The research agenda also aided me in including the teachers and heads of 40 Nepalese schools, which span the special, integrated and resource classes and represent seven provinces and twenty districts. I used a questionnaire to gather teachers' perceptions about the level of inclusive education and the status of CWHI-focused inclusive education implementation in schools. I also wanted to know how they felt about CWHI-focused inclusive education regarding their self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude. I created a questionnaire to ensure construct and content validity for this. By examining internal consistency in piloted samples, reliability was ensured.

The chapter explained the philosophical basis of research, followed by a methodological, paradigmatic, and study design approach. The following chapters discussed the research's study area, population and sample, data collection tools and methods, data processing and interpretation, reliability, validity, and ethical issues.

CHAPTER IV
TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY, KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE AND
INCLUSIVE EDUCATION PRACTICES IN THE SCHOOLS

The previous chapter was focused on the research methodology. The research methodology includes the study's philosophical ground and the methods to carry out the study. This chapter presents the results carried out in the field selected by the study. It is based on research questions to find the perceptions of teachers towards inclusive education considering the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education in children with hearing impairment (CWHI) focused schools. The levels of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude are also determined by age, gender, education, experience, types of disabilities school categories and districts of the teachers. The findings are described to determine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in schools. Similarly, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to inclusive education practices is also revealed. Data are analyzed using SPSS to answer the research questions. In addition, the response rate regarding the teachers who participated in the study and their mean and standard deviation are presented to find out the level of self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education practices.

Adopted Strategy for Analysis

This study distributed the questionnaire to the teachers teaching the CWHI. I administrated the questionnaire. After collecting the questionnaire's responses from the respondents, I entered the responses in the SPSS 20 version. With the help of SPSS program software, all respondents' responses are preceded and categorized in their respective disciplines. The output of the SPPS program is presented and interpreted under four sections. In the first and second sections, the levels of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education of CWHI-focused inclusive education in schools are presented in level-wise and demographic variable-wise manner. It is done by mean and standard deviation values of the variables as a description of the Likert Scale's scores on categorical domains as completely disagree, disagree, uncertain, agree and completely agree for each statement. The statements are rated from 1-5 (completely disagree to agree). The mean value from 1

to less than 3 indicates a low level; 3.1 to 4 indicates a medium level, and the value 4.1 to 5 indicates a high level in analyzing the Likert scale (Singh, 2009).

In the third section, the findings of the relationship between the self-efficacy of the teachers and the inclusive education practices of the schools are presented through correlation analysis considering only integrated schools and resource classes. In the fourth section, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the different factors relating to inclusive education practices is figured out by measuring that self-efficacy as an independent variable and the roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness (factors/themes of inclusive education practices) as dependent variable through binary logistic regression analysis considering integrated schools and resource classes only.

Binary Logistic Regression analyses the relationship between multiple explanatory variables and a single binary response variable, a categorical variable with two categories, (Sweet & Martin, 2011). Logistic regression is quite different than linear regression in that it does not make several of the key assumptions that linear and general linear models (as well as other ordinary least squares algorithm based models). These are (1) logistic regression does not require a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables, (2) the error terms (residuals) do not need to be normally distributed, (3) homoscedasticity is not required, and (4) the dependent variable in logistic regression is not measured on an interval or ratio scale (Gregory et al., 2018). Thus here in the study, assumptions were not required to check.

For the study, different demographic variables were included. In the questionnaire there were various demographic variables that involved age, gender, ethnicity, religion, academic qualifications, years of experience in teaching, disability and its types (if any) with the teachers and with their family members, received training related with inclusive education, school category (Special, Resource Class and Integrated Schools) of teachers positions in school (teacher, deputy-head, head-teacher), position status (temporary, permanent), school address, schools location (urban semi-urban, rural) etc,.. Out of all these variables, only age, gender, academic qualifications, years of experience in teaching, types of disabilities of teachers (if any) school category of teachers and districts were included for analysis of the study. The

number of the respondents and their variations in each studied-variable was presented in the analysis part.

Level of Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Knowledge, Attitude and Inclusive Education Themes in CWHI-Focused Schools

The level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge & attitude and inclusive education themes in CWHI-focused schools is analyzed in this section. The level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude belonging to teachers' perceptions toward CWHI-focused inclusive education are presented. In the self-efficacy of teachers, there are nine statements; in the knowledge, there are five statements; and in attitude, there are eight statements. In inclusive education themes, there are 61 statements accommodated in seven different themes (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, and availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness). Each statement's response is presented in mean and standard deviation values.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Table 5 indicates the level of teachers' self-efficacy. The level of self-efficacy is presented in the mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to the self-efficacy of teachers. The aggregate value of nine statements is also presented to figure out the teachers' average self-efficacy level. Here, the self-efficacy of teachers is constructed with nine statements. The first statement indicates teachers' self-efficacy to educate children without changing the teaching process. The second statement is related to the academic qualification of teachers and teachers' confidence to teach with the available qualifications of teachers. The third statement is related to teachers' calmness and patience in teaching the students. The fourth statement is based on teachers' teaching skills in the available school environment. The fifth statement is linked to teachers' preparation in collecting required teaching materials for effective school teaching. The sixth statement is related to the special facility available to school teachers. The seventh statement relates to the diverse category of hearing impairments and teacher competence to deal with their learning needs. The eighth statement is based on the availability of support teachers teaching CWHI. The last statement is linked to teachers' understanding of providing education to the students considering their learning difficulties.

Table 5
Level of Self-Efficacy

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
I can educate the students without changing any process	3.14	15.70	1.37
Students' education will be fulfilled because of my qualifications	4.01	20.05	0.99
I have patience to teach according to the learning style of the students	4.29	21.45	0.72
I can create an appropriate environment for the education of students even if there is no support from the school	3.82	19.10	1.01
I collect essential materials and update on the issue of hearing impairment focused on inclusive education	3.79	18.95	0.95
Without any special facility to me, will teach to the students	3.97	19.85	1.08
I am feeling obstacle in fulfilling the learning need of the students because of their diversity	3.97	19.85	1.01
With the help of support teacher, I can teach them nicely	4.26	21.30	0.82
I have to spend more time for the education of the students	4.24	21.20	1.03
Aggregate	3.94	19.70	0.52

Here, the nine statements aggregate the level of teachers' efficacy as a construct of this study. After analyzing teachers' level of self-Efficacy scale, data revealed that the average self-efficacy level of the school teachers is 3.94 (Weighted 19.70) with the SD of 0.52. When analyzing, each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, which means teachers teaching CWHI have a high sense of self-efficacy. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher efficacy level (21.45) was found in the statement, "*I have the patience to teach according to the learning style of the students.*" It means teachers had more patience

in teaching the students. Similarly, a lower level of self-efficacy (15.70) was found in the statement, “*I can educate the students without changing any process.*” It means teachers were not too confident to teach the students without changing any process. The weighted mean score of 15.70 suggests somewhat a lack of confidence in the ability to educate students without changing any process. Educators may feel uncertain or inadequate in their approach to teaching without modifying existing methods.

Teachers’ Knowledge

Table 6 indicates the level of teachers’ knowledge. The level of knowledge is presented in the mean value, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to teachers' knowledge. The aggregate value of the five statements is also presented to figure out the teachers' average knowledge level. Here, the level of knowledge is constructed with five statements. The first statement indicates a need for training required for teachers to teach the students. The second statement relates to the special knowledge required to teach the students. The third statement is based on a need for a special curriculum for the teachers. The fourth statement relates to teachers' knowledge to exchange information regarding disabled-focused inclusive education. The last statement is related to the knowledge of the need for education counselors for the special teaching to students.

Table 6

Level of Knowledge

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
Need more training for the appropriate education of the students	4.32	21.60	0.97
Need more knowledge to teach them properly	4.17	20.85	1.07
A need for a special curriculum for the students	4.54	22.70	0.78
Need to exchange information regarding disable-focus inclusive education	4.06	20.30	0.94
A need for education consular for the special teaching to the students	4.36	21.80	0.84
Aggregate	4.29	21.45	0.92

Here, the five statements aggregate the level of teachers' efficacy as a construct of this study. After analyzing teachers' level of knowledge, data revealed that the average level of knowledge of the teachers is 4.29 (Weighted 21.45), with the SD 0.92. When analyzing, each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, which means teachers teaching CWHI have a high sense of knowledge of CWHI. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher knowledge level (22.70) was found in the statement, "*There is a need for a special curriculum for the students.*" It means teachers were informed that they need a special curriculum for the students. Similarly, a lower knowledge level (20.85) was found in the statement, "*I need more knowledge to teach them properly.*" It means that teachers realize their need for more knowledge to teach the students in the schools. The weighted mean of 20.85, further emphasizes the strong sentiment among educators regarding the need for additional knowledge. It suggests that, on average, educators feel significantly challenged by their perceived lack of knowledge in teaching. Further, the weighted mean score of 20.30, calculated on the statement "*I need to exchange information regarding disable-focus inclusive education* ", indicates a strong sentiment among respondents regarding the need to exchange information about disability-focused inclusive education. This suggests that educators perceive a significant gap or deficiency in the current exchange of information related to inclusive education for students with disabilities.

Teachers' Attitude

Table 7 indicates the level of teachers' attitudes. The level of attitude is presented in the mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to teachers' knowledge. The aggregate value of the eight statements is also presented to determine the teachers' average level of attitude. Here, the level of attitude is constructed with eight statements. The first statement indicates teachers' negative attitude when there is a concern about the inclusion of CWHI students with other general students. The second statement relates to the feeling of teachers providing special care to the students when there are a lot of students. The third statement is about the attitude of teachers to provide security to the students on possible discriminatory behaviors. The fourth statement relates to teachers' attitudes toward encouraging other students to accept CWHI students. The fifth statement is about equal treatment for all students. The sixth statement is related to giving privilege to the CWHI. The seventh statement is linked to teachers' patience in

inclusive classrooms. The last statement is about ensuring the discipline of the students.

Table 7

Level of Attitude

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
I feel negative towards the students because of their inclusion with other students	2.71	13.55	1.37
I feel obstacle to provide special care to the students because of a lot of students in the class	3.77	18.85	1.23
I have to provide security against discriminatory behaviors toward the students	4.49	22.45	0.77
I have to inspire other students to accept deaf students	4.31	21.55	0.89
I have to treat equally to the students	4.61	23.05	0.77
I do not overlook the misdeeds of the students	3.73	18.65	1.49
I need more patience for the education of the students	4.59	22.95	0.69
I have to make every student disciplined	4.46	22.30	0.83
Aggregate	4.08	20.40	1.00

The above data revealed the average level of attitude of the teachers is 20.40 with an SD of 1.00. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, which means teachers teaching CWHI have a positive attitude toward teaching the students. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher level of positive attitude (23.05) was found in the statement, "*I have to treat the students equally.*" It means teachers were willing to treat the students equally. Similarly, a lower knowledge level (13.55) was found in the statement, "*I feel negative towards the students because of their inclusion with other students.*" It means teachers' negative attitudes could be figured out if the students are included with other students. The weighted mean score of 13.55 indicates a relatively low sentiment among respondents regarding negative feelings towards students due to their inclusion with other students. Despite the presence of negative feelings, the relatively low weighted mean score suggests that these sentiments are not overwhelmingly prevalent among

respondents. However, it still signifies that there are educators who harbor negative emotions towards students as a result of their inclusion with others.

Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education Themes in CWHI-Focused Schools

Table 8 indicates the level of perceptions of teachers towards inclusive education themes in CWHI focused schools. The level is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each theme of inclusive education practices. The seven themes presented here are the themes of inclusive education. The aggregate value of seven themes is also presented to figure out the average thematic level in inclusive education. The first theme of inclusive education is related to the educational authority's roles and responsibilities as SMC available in the schools. The second theme is the important knowledge atmosphere in the schools. The third theme is the available rights needed for teaching in schools. The fourth theme is the status of participation in the schools. The fifth theme is the learning environment available in the schools for CWHI. The sixth theme is the level of equality in the school. The last theme is the level of inclusiveness available in the schools.

Table 8

Level of Inclusive Education Themes Perceived by Teachers

Inclusive Education	Mean	W.Mean	STD
Roles & responsibilities of educational authority (RRE)	3.80	19.0	0.70
Important Knowledge (IK)	3.48	17.40	0.80
Availability of Rights (AR)	4.30	21.50	0.72
Participation (PART)	3.44	17.20	0.94
Learning Environment (LE)	3.85	19.25	0.75
Equality (EQ)	4.10	20.50	0.99
Inclusiveness (IN)	3.63	18.15	0.97

The above table presents the level of inclusive education themes perceived by the teachers in CWHI-focused schools. There are seven themes in inclusive education, roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness. There are altogether 61 statements in inclusive education within the seven themes.

The above data revealed that the average weighted level of RRE, IK, AR, PART, LE, EQ, and IN is found to be 19.0, 17.40, 21.50, 17.20, 19.25, 20.50 and 18.15 respectively. Each of the themes' scale is higher than the set level, which means teachers perceived that the thematic areas of inclusive education seem positive. However, the consistency level is different. Among the themes, a higher level of inclusive education (21.50) was found in the theme "Availability of Rights." It means the level of availability of rights in the schools was found to be high among others. Similarly, a lower level of inclusive education (17.20) was found in the theme "Participation." It means the level of participation in school was found to be low among the others. The weighted mean of 17.20 further confirms relatively minimum level of participation. However, the relatively high standard deviation (0.94) indicates some variability in responses, suggesting differing views among respondents. In summary, data reveals varying perceptions among respondents across different themes of inclusive education. While some areas show strong consensus, others exhibit more variability in responses, highlighting the complexity and diversity of perspectives within the inclusive educational context.

Inclusive Education by the Themes (Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness)

The Tables from 9 to 15 indicate the level of inclusive education themes perceived by the teachers according to the thematic statements of seven themes of the construct of inclusive education and educational theory. The seven themes (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, learning environment, participation, equality and inclusiveness) construct is the construct for inclusive education as indicated by the theory. Each thematic level is presented in mean value and standard deviation value. The aggregate value of seven themes is also presented to figure out the average thematic level in inclusive education. Here, the theme 'roles and responsibilities of educational authority' has 17 statements. The theme 'important knowledge' has eight statements. The theme 'availability of rights' has five statements. The theme 'participation' has five statements. The theme 'learning environment' has 20 statements. The theme 'equality' has two statements, and the theme 'inclusiveness' has four statements.

Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority

Table 9 indicates the level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority in the schools. The level is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to the educational authority's roles and responsibilities. The aggregate value of seventeen statements is also presented to figure out the average level of roles and responsibilities of the authority in the schools. Here, the level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority is constructed with seventeen statements. The first statement indicates SMC's activeness in the education of CWHI. The second statement is about CWHI data management by the SMC. The third statement is related to the work plan managed by SMC. The fourth statement is based on SMC's identification of educational needs. The fifth statement concerns financial aid provided by SMC to students.

The sixth statement concerns the availability of an educational plan for CWHI. The seventh statement is about the schools' admission campaign for non-CWHI students. The eighth statement concerns the use of prescribed textbooks for students. The ninth statement concerns the availability of CWHI's formative and summative exam and report card system. The tenth statement is about providing counseling to disaster-prone children. The eleventh statement refers to providing disaster management training to school staff and teachers. The twelfth statement is about school monitoring mechanisms. The thirteenth statement concerns school coordination for students' medical and health support. The fourteenth statement concerns nutritional assistance for students. The fifteenth statement concerns the availability of child abuse prevention strategies in schools. The sixteenth statement concerns the availability of disabled-friendly and accessible school buildings and grounds, and the final statement concerns CWHI-supporting facilities such as sign language, hearing equipment, speech therapy, CWHI-friendly classes, toilets, libraries, playgrounds, and so on.

Table 9

Level of Roles and Responsibilities of Education Authorities

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
SMC's activeness for the education of CWHI	3.99	19.95	1.03
CWHI data are managed by SMC	3.72	18.60	1.04

Work plan for the education of CWHI is made by SMC	3.39	16.95	1.16
Educational need of CWHI is identified by SMC	3.56	17.80	1.09
Financial aid for the educational development of CWHI is initiated by SMC	3.91	19.55	1.05
Availability of educational plans for CWHI	3.74	18.70	1.05
Admission campaign initiation by schools for out of school hearing impaired children	4.10	20.5	1.16
School uses textbooks prescribed by the education authority	4.23	21.15	1.18
Availability of formative, summative exam and report card system	4.09	20.45	1.12
Availability of counseling facilities to children rescued from disaster	3.54	17.70	1.17
School provides disaster management training to the teachers and staff	3.26	16.30	1.27
School monitors helping staff behavior towards CWHI	4.02	20.10	1.09
School coordinates with concerned organizations for health and medical support to CWHI	3.93	19.65	0.94
School provides nutritional support to CWHI	4.05	20.25	1.38
Availability of child abuse control strategies	3.75	18.75	0.98

Availability of disabled-friendly and accessible school buildings and compound	3.59	17.95	1.26
Supporting facilities to CWHI like sign language, hearing equipment, speech therapy, CWHI friendly class, toilets, library, playground etc.,	3.68	18.40	1.05
Aggregate	3.80	19.0	0.70

The above data revealed the average level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority in the schools, which is found 3.80 (Weighted 19.0) with the SD 0.70. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, meaning the roles and responsibilities of educational authority in the schools are high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher roles and responsibilities level (21.15) was found in the statement, "*School uses textbooks prescribed by the education authority.*" It means schools were using the same prescribed textbooks for children's education. Similarly, the roles and responsibilities level (16.30) was found low on the statement, "*School provides disaster management training to the teachers and staff.*" It means teachers and staff got a minimum level of training in disaster management. The weighted mean of 16.30 underscores the importance of prioritizing disaster management training for teachers and staff within schools. It highlights the need for ongoing efforts to strengthen and improve training programs to ensure preparedness and resilience in the schools.

Level of Knowledge of Teachers

Table 10 indicates the level of knowledge of teachers in the schools. The level is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to the educational authority's roles and responsibilities. The aggregate value of eight statements is also presented to determine the average level of teachers' knowledge in the schools. Here, the level of knowledge is constructed with eight statements. The first statement indicates schools' initiative for research and study on inclusive education. The second statement is about understanding inclusive and special need education among teachers, staff, parents and other school students. The third statement is related to the availability of brochures, prospectus on education policy and programs relating to hearing impairment focused inclusive education in

school. The fourth statement identifies the students' educational and practical need for referrals, counseling, education placement, etc. The fifth statement is about a culture of learning, teaching, and searching from different sources regarding hearing impairment in schools. The sixth statement relates to the school approach for teachers' motivation for online, distance education and study on hearing impairment focused inclusive education. The seventh statement is about the awareness of head teachers, teachers, friends and staff, and management on students' health condition in schools. The last statement is based on teachers' knowhow to integrate CWHI students with other school students.

Table 10

Level of Important Knowledge

Statement	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Research and study initiation on inclusive education in school	3.16	15.80	1.25
Understanding inclusive and special need education among teachers, staff, parents and other students in school	3.75	18.75	1.04
Availability of brochure, prospectus on education policy and programs relating to hearing impairment focused inclusive education in school	3.29	16.45	1.28
Identification of educational and practical need of the students for referring, counseling, education placement etc.	3.74	18.70	1.07
There is a culture of learning, teaching, and searching from diff. sources in school regarding hearing impairment	3.81	19.05	1.05
School motivates teachers for online, distance education and study on hearing impairment focused inclusive education	2.89	14.45	1.25
Headteachers, teachers, friends and staff, and management are known about the health condition of the students in the school	3.95	19.75	1.01

Teachers' knowhow to integrate CWHI students with other students in school	3.27	16.35	1.28
Aggregate	3.48	17.40	0.80

After analyzing the level of important knowledge, data revealed that the average level of important knowledge available in the schools is 17.40, with the SD 0.80. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, meaning important knowledge available in the schools is high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher important knowledge level (19.75) was found in the statement, "*Headteachers, teachers, friends and staff, and management is known about the health condition of the students in school.*" It means teachers were aware of the health condition of the students. Similarly, a lower important knowledge level (14.45) was found in the statement, "*School motivates teachers for online, distance education and study on hearing impairment focused inclusive education.*" It means teachers were not that much motivated for the mentioned classes. The weighted mean value falling below the midpoint of the scale suggests a lack of strong motivation among respondents regarding the school's efforts to motivate teachers in online, distance education, and inclusive education for students with hearing impairments. This implies that the perceived motivation provided by the school in these areas may be insufficient or ineffective.

Availability of Rights on Inclusive Education

Table 11 indicates the level of availability of rights in the schools. The level is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to the availability of rights in the schools. The aggregate value of five statements is also presented to determine the average level of rights available in the schools. Here, the level of availability of rights is constructed with five statements. The first statement indicates the availability of free education opportunities to the students in the schools. The second statement is about the availability of free health checkups for students. The third statement is based on a functional assessment system for the admission of the students. The fourth statement is about the availability of teaching the students in their sign language, and the last statement is based on the availability of hostel facilities.

Table 11*Level of Availability of Rights*

Statement	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Availability of free education to students in school	4.67	23.35	0.79
Availability of free health checkups to the students in school	3.97	19.85	1.26
Functional assessment system for the admission of students in school	4.05	20.25	1.06
Teaching the students in their own sign language	4.30	21.50	0.96
Availability of hostel facility to the students in school	4.53	22.65	0.97
Aggregate	4.30	21.50	0.72

After analyzing the level of availability of rights, data revealed that the average level of availability of rights in the schools is 21.50, with the SD 0.72. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, meaning the availability of rights in the schools is high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher availability of rights level (23.35) was found in the statement, "Availability of free education to the students in school." It means the free education approach was implemented in the schools. Similarly, a lower availability of rights level (19.85) was found in the statement "Availability of free health checkup to the students in school." It means the free health checkup availability was not well implemented. Despite the availability of free health checkups, somewhat minimum score could imply that respondents perceive the healthcare services provided in schools as limited in scope.

Participation

Table 12 indicates the level of participation in the schools. The level is presented in the mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to school participation. The aggregate value of five statements is also presented to figure out the average level in level of participation in the schools. Here,

the level of participation is constructed with five statements. The first statement indicates schools' motivation to the parents to discuss with teachers and staff. The second statement is about regular communication between parents and teachers. The third statement is based on the joint participation of SMC and parents in the conference and seminar on inclusive education. The fourth statement is related to the participation of teachers in the visit of exemplary CWHI focus schools, and the last statement is related to the participation of teachers in professional and practical CWHI focused inclusive education trainings.

Table 12

Level of Participation

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
School motivates parents to discuss with teachers and staff	3.94	19.70	1.10
Regular communication between parents and teachers	3.79	18.95	1.15
Joint participation of SMC and parents in the conference and seminar on inclusive education	3.20	16.0	1.29
Participation of teachers in the visit to exemplary CWHI-focused schools	3.35	16.75	1.33
Teachers are receiving regular professional and practical CWHI-focused inclusive education training	2.91	14.55	1.30
Aggregate	3.44	17.20	0.94

The above data revealed the average level of participation in the schools, which is found 17.20 with the SD 0.94. Each of the statements' scales is higher than the set level, which means the participation approach in the schools seems high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher participation level (19.70) was found in the statement, "*School motivates parents to discuss with teachers and staff.*" It means schools were motivating the parents to discuss. Similarly, the participation level was found low (14.55) in the statement,

“Teachers are receiving regular professional and practical CWHI focus trainings.” It means training receiving practice in the schools seemed minimal. The score suggests that respondents may have doubts or reservations about the consistency and impact of the professional and practical trainings provided to teachers. There may be concerns about the adequacy of the training programs in adequately preparing teachers to support CWHI students effectively in diverse educational settings.

Learning Environment

Table 13 indicates the level of the learning environment in the schools. The level is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each statement related to the learning environment in the schools. The aggregate value of twenty statements is also presented to figure out the average level of the learning environment in the schools. The first statement indicates towards education development plans of the students in SIP. The second statement is about support systems from other organizations for the welfare of the students. The third statement is based on time-to-time meetings of SMC, parents, and experts for appropriate placement of the students. The fourth statement is about teaching methods based on students' needs and curriculum. The fifth statement is related to flexibility in the curriculum to consider the special need of the students. The sixth statement is about the availability of textbooks and materials for CWHI. The seventh statement is based on the identification of the school on the diversity of learning skills of the students. The eighth statement is about teaching with the use of sign language, pictures, gestures and experience sharing. The ninth statement is related to teaching students by grouping and regrouping in class. The tenth statement is about teaching and learning exercises through the use of sign language.

Other ten statements include the availability of a note taker for hard-of-hearing students; teachers following instruction based on individual learning styles and student needs; the school adopting green skills and practical education for quality education as an SDG goal; other friends, canteen staff, and other staff supporting students in school; the use of hearing aids and other devices in teaching to students; and teachers receiving school support for educational development. The availability of a support team in school, such as a caretaker, sign language interpreter, and note taker; adequate fund management by schools for effective student education; and regular discussions between general teachers and resource teachers in schools.

Table 13*Level of Learning Environment*

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
Education development plans of the students are in SIP	3.76	18.80	1.19
Support received from other organizations for the welfare of the students	3.90	19.50	1.06
SMC, parents, and experts meet from time to time for appropriate placement of the students	3.59	17.95	1.16
Teach based on students' needs and curriculum	4.22	21.10	0.93
School is flexible in the curriculum to consider the special need of the students	3.48	17.40	1.24
All CWHI have textbooks and materials	4.34	21.70	0.98
School has identified the diversity of learning skills of the students	4.13	20.65	0.92
Teachers teach students with the use of sign language, pictures, gestures and experience sharing	4.34	21.70	0.84
Teachers teach students by grouping and regrouping in class	3.85	19.25	1.02
Teaching and learning exercises happen through the use of sign language	4.57	22.85	0.84
Availability of note taker for hard-to-hearing students	4.14	20.70	3.96
Teachers have followed the instruction as on the individual	3.93	19.65	0.95

learning style and needs of the students			
School has adopted green skill and practical education for quality education as of SDG goal	3.29	16.45	1.20
Other friends, canteen staff and other staff support the students at school	4.00	20.0	1.07
Use of hearing aid and other devices in teaching the students	2.99	14.95	1.35
Teachers are receiving support from the school for the development of the education of the students	3.96	19.80	1.06
School motivates teachers to make individual education plans (IEP) for the students	3.52	17.60	1.12
Availability of support team like a caretaker, sign language interpreter, and note taker in school	4.07	20.35	3.89
Adequate fund management by schools for effective education of the students	3.36	16.80	1.18
Regular discussions between the general teacher and resource teacher in the school	3.48	17.40	1.31
Aggregate	3.85	19.25	0.75

The above data revealed the average level of the learning environment in the schools, which is found 19.25 with the SD 0.75. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, which means the learning environment in the schools seems high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher learning environment level (22.85) was found in the statement, "*Teaching and learning exercises happen through the use of sign language.*" It means the schools were using mostly sign language to teach CWHI. Similarly, the learning environment

level was found to be low (14.95) in the statement, “*Use of hearing aid and other devices in teaching to the students.*” It means the use of such devices in the schools seemed minimal. The minimum score indicates that there may be a lack of widespread adoption and acceptance of using hearing aids and other devices in teaching students. There may be concerns about whether these devices adequately address the needs of students with hearing impairments or contribute significantly to their educational outcomes.

Equality

The level of learning equality in schools is shown in Table 14. The level of each statement related to equality in schools is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value. The aggregate value of the two statements is also presented in order to calculate the average level of equality in schools. Two statements are used to construct the level of equality in this case. The first statement refers to the availability of equitable opportunities for students to be portfolio members and members of the school's child club. The second statement refers to students having equal access to extracurricular activities and creative activities at their schools.

Table 14

Level of Equality

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
School provides an equitable opportunity to the students for being portfolio and members of child club of the schools	3.91	19.55	1.36
School provides equal opportunity to the students for extra curriculum activities/ creative activities of the schools	4.29	21.45	0.93
Aggregate	4.10	20.50	0.99

The above data revealed the average level of equality in the schools, which is found 20.50 with the SD 0.99. Each of the statements' scales is higher than the set level, which means the equality level in the schools seems high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher equality level (21.45) was found in the statement, “*School provides equal opportunity to the students for extra-curricular activities/ creative activities of the schools.*” It means the schools were providing equal opportunity for the same. Similarly, the equality level was found

low (19.55) in the statement, “*School provides an equitable opportunity to the students for being portfolio and members of child club of the schools.*” It means such practices were minimally introduced in the schools. Further, the score implies skepticism or doubt regarding the school's actual commitment to providing equitable opportunities for all students.

Inclusiveness

Table 15 shows the level of inclusiveness in the schools. The level of each statement related to inclusiveness is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value. The total value of the two statements is also presented in order to calculate the average level of inclusiveness in schools. Four statements are used to construct the level of inclusiveness here. The first statement refers to the participation of men, women, and people with hearing impairments in the structure of the SMC and Resource Center Management Committee. The second statement refers to the collaborative culture of teachers, resource teachers, and others concerned with the support of CWHI-focused inclusive classes in schools. The third statement is based on SMC's involvement in the decision-making process for all stakeholders. The final statement is about inspiring every member of the school to understand and implement the mission of CWHI focused inclusive education.

Table 15

Level of Inclusiveness

Statement	Mean	W.Mean	STD
Participation of males, females and persons with hearing disability in the structure of SMC and Resource Center Management Committee	3.78	18.90	1.30
Teachers, resource teachers and others concerned are working together for the support of CWHI-focused inclusive classes in the schools	3.73	18.65	1.17
SMC involves all stakeholders in the decision-making process in schools	3.43	17.15	1.24
School inspires every member of the school to understand and implement the mission of CWHI-focused inclusive education	3.57	17.85	1.17
Aggregate	3.63	18.15	0.97

After analyzing the level of inclusiveness in the schools, data revealed that the average level of inclusiveness in the schools is 18.15, with the SD 0.97. Each of the statements' scale is higher than the set level, which means the perceived inclusiveness in the schools is found to be high. However, the consistency level is different. Among the statements, a higher inclusiveness level (18.90) was found in the statement *“Participation of male, female and person with hearing disability in the structure of SMC and Resource Center Management Committee.”* It means such a practice of inclusiveness was introduced in the schools. Similarly, a lower inclusiveness level (17.15) was found in the statement, *“SMC involves all stakeholders in the decision-making process in schools.”* It means such practices to ensure inclusiveness were minimally introduced. Despite the relatively low score, it implies that the involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making process is perceived as limited or exclusive. There may be concerns that certain groups of stakeholders are not adequately represented or given a voice in decision-making.

Level of Self-Efficacy According to the Age, Gender, Education, Experience, Disability Types, School Categories and Districts

The level of self-efficacy was also tried according to age, gender, education, experience, types of disabilities with the respondents and school categories. The Tables from 16 to 22 indicate the level of self-efficacy according to age, gender, education and qualifications of teachers, years of experience in teaching, types of disabilities with the respondents (if any), school categories and districts where the teachers teach. The level of self-efficacy according to demographic variables is presented in mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value of each categorical difference in terms of their age, gender, education, experience, type of disabilities and school categories. The aggregate value of each demographic variable is also presented to figure out the average level in a particular category.

Table 16 indicates the level of self-efficacy of teachers by their age. Here, the age group is segregated into five categories as the age from 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and 60 above. For each age group, mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of self-efficacy in the age of the teachers.

Table 16*Self-Efficacy by the Age of the Teachers*

Age	Count	%	Mean	W.Mean	STD
20-30	35	19.20%	4.04	20.20	0.53
31-40	82	45.10%	3.88	19.40	0.53
41-50	34	18.70%	3.87	19.35	0.47
51-60	31	17.00%	4.06	20.30	0.54
61 above	0	0.00%	.	.	.
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the above table, there were 82 teachers between the ages of 31 and 40, which was the most of any age group. Teachers had a higher self-efficacy in schools, with an average self-efficacy of 3.94 (Weighted 19.70). However, only 66 teachers scored higher than four on the self-efficacy scale. The age group 20-30 had a higher self-efficacy level (20.20), while the age group 41-50 had a lower self-efficacy level (19.35). The age group (41-50) had a lower SD (0.47). This means that self-efficacy is more consistent in this age group.

Table 17 indicates the level of self-efficacy of teachers by their gender. Here, the gender is segregated into three categories as male, female and third gender. Each categorical gender's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of self-efficacy by the gender of the teachers.

Table 17*Self-Efficacy by the Gender of the Teachers*

Gender	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Male	87	47.80%	3.88	19.40	0.47
Female	95	52.20%	4	20.00	0.56
Third gender	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the table 17 the schools had 87 male and 95 female teachers. There was no representation of the third gender in the schools. The table shows that self-efficacy for both genders is nearly equal. The female had a higher self-efficacy

level (20), and the male had a lower self-efficacy level (19.40). Males, on the other hand, have a lower standard deviation (0.47 vs. 0.56). This indicates that male self-efficacy is more consistent.

Table 18 indicates the level of self-efficacy in the education of the teachers. Here, the education level of teachers is segregated into six categories as SLC, Plus 2/Pcl, Bachelor, Masters, Mphil and PhD. Each categorical education level's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of self-efficacy by the education level of the teachers.

Table 18

Self-Efficacy by the Education of the Teachers

Education Level	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
SLC	15	8.20%	4.02	20.10	0.34
Plus2/Pcl	57	31.30%	3.96	19.80	0.53
Bachelor	66	36.30%	3.99	19.95	0.56
Masters	44	24.20%	3.83	19.15	0.51
Mphil	0	0.00%	.	-	.
PhD	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the above table, there were 66, 57, and 44 Bachelor's, Plus 2/Pcl, and Master's pass teachers in the schools, respectively. There were only 15 teachers who had completed the SLC. The table shows that the self-efficacy of each education level is nearly identical. SLC graduates had a higher self-efficacy level (20.10), and master level had a lower self-efficacy level (19.15). However, the standard deviation for SLC level is lower (0.34 vs. 0.51). This means that SLC graduates' self-efficacy appears to be more consistent.

Table 19 indicates the level of self-efficacy with the experience of the teachers. Here, the experience of teachers is segregated into five categories as 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20 and 21 above yrs of experience. Each categorical experience's mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean, weighted mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average self-efficacy level with the teachers' experience.

Table 19*Self-Efficacy by the Experience of the Teachers*

Experience	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
1-5 yrs	36	19.80%	3.91	19.55	0.65
6-10 yrs	52	28.60%	4.02	20.10	0.47
11-15 yrs	48	26.40%	3.83	19.15	0.46
16-20 yrs	11	6.00%	3.91	19.55	0.46
21 yrs above	35	19.20%	4.02	20.10	0.55
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the above table, there were 36, 52, 48, 11 and 35 teachers in the schools with 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, and 21 years of experience or more. Teachers have an average self-efficacy level of 19.70. The table also shows that respondents' self-efficacy of experience is nearly identical. There was a higher self-efficacy level (20.10) of 6-10 and 21 years of experience and a lower self-efficacy level (19.15) of 11-15 years of experience. However, experience of (11-20) has a lower standard deviation (0.46). This means that this experience group's self-efficacy is more consistent.

Table 20 shows the level of self-efficacy of teachers based on their disabilities. Teachers' disabilities are classified into five categories: physical, intellectual, hearing, visual, and others. The mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values of each categorical type are calculated, as well as the average mean and standard deviation value, to determine the average level of self-efficacy by the types of disabilities of the teachers.

Table 20*Self-Efficacy by the Types of Disabilities of the Teachers*

Disability Type	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Physical	3	5.30%	3.93	19.65	0.36
Intellectual	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Hearing	54	94.70%	3.90	19.50	0.56
Visual	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Others	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	57	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

Table 20 shows that out of 182 teachers, three were physically and 54 were hearing impaired. The average level of self-efficacy among disabled teachers is 19.70, which appears to be adequate. The above table also demonstrates that respondents' self-efficacy of disability type is nearly identical. Physical disability was found to have a higher self-efficacy level (19.65) while hearing impairments had a lower self-efficacy level (19.50). The standard deviation for physical disability, on the other hand, is lower (0.36). This implies that physical disability self-efficacy is more consistent.

Table 21 indicates the level of self-efficacy by the school category of the teachers. Here, the schools are categorized in line with the categories of Nepal's government for children with disabilities as special, integrated and resource classes. Each categorical type's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of self-efficacy by the school category of the teachers.

Table 21

Self-Efficacy by the School Category of the Teachers

School Category	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Special	106	58.20%	3.97	19.85	0.47
Integrated	39	21.40%	3.84	19.20	0.63
Resource Class	37	20.30%	3.98	19.90	0.55
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the table above, there were 106, 39, and 37 teachers available in the special, integrated, and resource class categories, respectively. The above table also shows that teachers' self-efficacy across school categories is nearly identical. The resource class had a higher self-efficacy level (19.90), while integrated schools had a lower self-efficacy level (19.20). A special school, on the other hand, has a lower standard deviation (0.47). This means that special schools' self-efficacy is more consistent.

Table 22*Self-Efficacy by the Districts*

Districts	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Jhapa	13	7.14%	4.04	20.20	0.54
Morang	15	8.24%	3.80	19.0	0.48
Sunsari	17	9.34%	4.18	20.90	0.62
Bara	6	3.29%	3.85	19.25	0.17
Rautahat	6	3.29%	4.27	21.35	0.55
Siraha	8	4.39%	4.17	20.85	1.02
Saptari	7	3.85%	3.92	19.60	0.23
Kavre	8	4.39%	3.94	19.70	0.52
Sindhupalchowk	6	3.29%	3.80	19.0	0.21
Sindhuli	8	4.39%	4.54	22.70	0.48
Makwanpur	6	3.29%	3.98	19.90	0.30
Kaski	14	7.69%	3.85	19.25	0.48
Baglung	10	5.49%	3.95	19.75	0.55
Syangja	5	2.74%	3.74	18.70	0.45
Gorkha	8	4.39%	4.06	20.3	0.29
Rupendehi	10	5.49%	3.92	19.60	0.55
Dang	6	3.29%	4.22	21.10	0.64
Surkhet	5	2.74%	3.73	18.65	0.32
Doti	4	2.19%	3.33	16.65	1.30
Kathmandu	20	11.00%	3.74	18.70	0.41
Total	182	100.00%	3.94	19.70	0.52

According to the table above, the indicated numbers of teachers were available in each district. The above table also shows that teachers' self-efficacy across district categories is nearly identical. The highest mean value is found in Sindhuli (22.70), indicating that teachers in this district, on average, have a high level of self-efficacy. The lowest mean value is in Doti (16.65), suggesting that teachers in this district, on average, have a relatively lower level of self-efficacy. The overall average mean value of all districts combined is 19.70. The district with the highest standard deviation is Doti (1.30), indicating that there is a wide range of variability in the level of self-

efficacy among teachers in this district. Rautahat (0.55), Rupendehi (0.55), and Baglung (0.55) also show relatively high standard deviations, suggesting variability in the level of self-efficacy among teachers. Districts like Bara (0.17), Sindhupalchowk (0.21), Saptari (0.23), and Gorkha (0.29) have lower standard deviations, indicating that the level of self-efficacy among teachers in these districts is more consistent around the mean. Districts like Sindhuli with a weighted mean of 22.70 and Doti with a weighted mean of 16.65 show a notable contrast in the level of self-efficacy among teachers.

Level of Knowledge & Attitude According to Age, Gender, Education and Types of Disabilities

The level of knowledge and attitude was also tried according to age, gender, education, experience, type of disabilities and districts with the respondents. The tables from 23 to 28 indicate the level of knowledge and attitude according to age, gender, education and qualifications of teachers, years of experience in teaching, types of disabilities with the respondents (if any) and districts. The level of self-knowledge and attitude according to demographic variables is presented in mean weighted mean and standard deviation value of each categorical difference in terms of their age, gender, education, experience, and types of disabilities. The aggregate value of each demographic variable is also presented to figure out the average level in a particular category.

Table 23 indicates the level of knowledge and attitude by the age of the teachers. Here, the age group is segregated into five categories as the age from 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and 60 above. For each age group, mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of knowledge and attitude in the age of the teachers.

Table 23

Knowledge & Attitude by the Age of the Teachers

Age	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
20-30	35	19.20%	4.19	20.95	0.52
31-40	82	45.10%	4.12	20.60	0.50
41-50	34	18.70%	4.17	20.85	0.41
51-60	31	17.00%	4.24	21.20	0.40

61 above	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	182	100.00%	4.16	20.80	0.47

According to the above table, 82 teachers between the ages of 31 and 40 were the most of any age group. Teachers' average level of knowledge and attitude was 20.80, which was higher than the average level of knowledge and attitude in the schools. All teachers had knowledge and attitudes that were above the fourth level. Furthermore, the respondents' knowledge and attitudes are nearly identical in terms of age. The age group 51-60 had a higher knowledge and attitude level (21.20), while the age group 31-40 had a lower knowledge and attitude level (20.60). However, the age group (41-60) has lower standard deviations (0.41 and 0.40). This means that the age group (41-60) appears to have more consistent knowledge and attitudes.

Table 24 indicates the level of knowledge and attitude by the gender of the teachers. Here, the gender is segregated into three categories as male, female and third gender. Each gender category's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of knowledge and attitude by the gender of the teachers.

Table 24

Knowledge & Attitude by the Gender of the Teachers

Gender	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Male	87	47.80%	4.13	20.65	0.46
Female	95	52.20%	4.19	20.95	0.48
Third gender	0	0.00%	.	.	.
Total	182	100.00%	4.16	20.8	0.47

Table 24 shows that the gender-wise knowledge & attitude of the respondents is almost the same. A higher knowledge and attitude level (20.95) of the female was found, and a lower knowledge and attitude level (20.65) of the male was found. However, males have a lower (0.46) standard deviation. This means that the knowledge and attitude of male respondents seem more consistent.

Table 25 indicates the level of knowledge and attitude by the education qualifications of the teachers. Here, education qualifications are segregated into six

categories: SLC, Plus2/Pcl, Bachelor, Masters, M. Phil and PhD. Each category's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of knowledge and attitude by the teachers' education level.

Table 25

Knowledge & Attitude by the Education of the Teachers

Education Level	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
SLC	15	8.20%	4.05	20.25	0.35
Plus2/Pcl	57	31.30%	4.17	20.85	0.53
Bachelor	66	36.30%	4.18	20.90	0.43
Masters	44	24.20%	4.17	20.85	0.50
M.Phil	0	0.00%	.	-	.
PhD	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	182	100.00%	4.16	20.80	0.47

The above table shows that the education-wise knowledge & attitude of the respondents is almost the same. A higher knowledge and attitude level (20.90) of the bachelor level was found, and a lower knowledge and attitude level (20.25) of the SLC graduates was found. However, SLC graduates have a lower (0.35) standard deviation. This means that the knowledge and attitude of SLC graduates seem more consistent.

Table 26 indicates the level of knowledge and attitude by the teachers' years of experience. Here, the experience is segregated into five categories as 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20 and above 21 years of experience. Each category's mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of knowledge and attitude by the experience of the teachers.

Table 26

Knowledge & Attitude by the Experience of the Teachers

Experience	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
1-5 yrs	36	19.80%	4.09	20.45	0.64
6-10 yrs	52	28.60%	4.12	20.60	0.47

11-15 yrs	48	26.40%	4.14	20.70	0.4
16-20 yrs	11	6.00%	4.44	22.20	0.24
21 yrs above	35	19.20%	4.25	21.25	0.39
Total	182	100.00%	4.16	20.80	0.47

According to the above table, the average level of knowledge and attitude by the experience of the teachers is 20.80. The above table also shows that the experience-wise knowledge & attitude of the respondents is almost the same. A higher knowledge and attitude level (22.20) of the 16-20 yrs of experience was found, and a lower knowledge and attitude level (20.45) of the 1-5 yrs of experience was found. Similarly, the experience category (16-20 yrs) has a lower (0.24) standard deviation. This means that the knowledge and attitude of (16-20 yrs) experience seem more consistent either.

Table 27 indicates the level of knowledge and attitude toward the types of disabilities of the teachers. Here, the disabilities are classified into five categories: physical, intellectual, hearing, visual and others. Each category's mean, weighted mean and standard deviation values are calculated, and the average mean and standard deviation value is also calculated to figure out the average level of knowledge and attitude by the types of disabilities of the teachers.

Table 27

Knowledge & Attitude by the Types of Disabilities of the Teachers

Disability Type	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Physical	3	5.30%	4.15	20.75	0.13
Intellectual	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Hearing	54	94.70%	4.05	20.25	0.58
Visual	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Others	0	0.00%	.	-	.
Total	57	100.00%	4.05	20.25	0.57

According to the above table, the average knowledge and attitude of disabled teachers is 20.25. The above table also shows that the disability type-wise knowledge & attitude of the respondents is almost the same. A higher knowledge and attitude level (20.75) of the physical disability was found, and a lower knowledge and attitude

level (20.25) of the hearing disability was found. Similarly, physical disability has a lower (0.13) standard deviation. This means that the knowledge and attitude of physical disability seem more consistent.

Table 28

Knowledge & Attitude by the Districts

Districts	Count	%	Mean	W. Mean	STD
Jhapa	13	7.14%	4.18	20.90	0.48
Morang	15	8.24%	4.32	21.60	0.37
Sunsari	17	9.34%	4.22	21.10	0.48
Bara	6	3.29%	4.31	21.55	0.31
Rautahat	6	3.29%	4.26	21.30	0.26
Siraha	8	4.39%	3.58	17.90	0.38
Saptari	7	3.85%	4.00	20.0	0.46
Kavre	8	4.39%	4.07	20.35	0.22
Sindhupalchowk	6	3.29%	4.46	22.30	0.34
Sindhuli	8	4.39%	4.49	22.45	0.35
Makwanpur	6	3.29%	3.87	19.35	0.43
Kaski	14	7.69%	4.26	21.30	0.43
Baglung	10	5.49%	4.28	21.40	0.29
Syangja	5	2.74%	3.56	17.80	0.75
Gorkha	8	4.39%	4.23	21.15	0.31
Rupendehi	10	5.49%	3.84	19.20	0.61
Dang	6	3.29%	4.09	20.45	0.51
Surkhet	5	2.74%	4.22	21.10	0.34
Doti	4	2.19%	3.67	18.35	1.20
Kathmandu	20	11.00%	4.25	21.25	0.41
Total	182	100.00%	4.16	20.80	0.47

According to the table above, the indicated numbers of teachers were available in each district. The above table also shows that teachers' knowledge and attitude across district categories is nearly identical. Among the districts, the highest mean value is found in Sindhuli (22.45), indicating that teachers in this district, on average, have a high level of knowledge and attitude. The lowest mean value is in Syanja

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 29 reveals the correlation between the self-efficacy of teachers and the themes of inclusive education practices (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness).

The Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.378 ($r = 0.378$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and roles and responsibilities of educational authority. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in roles and responsibilities of educational authority and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is weak because the correlation coefficient is 0.37, which falls under the weak range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

Similarly, the Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.437 ($r = 0.437$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and important knowledge. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in to increase in important knowledge and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is moderate because the correlation coefficient is 0.43, which falls under the moderate range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

Further, the Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.346 ($r = 0.346$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and availability of rights. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in the availability of rights and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is weak because the correlation coefficient is 0.34, which falls under the weak range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

The Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.363 ($r = 0.363$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and participation. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in participation and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is weak because the correlation coefficient is 0.36, which falls under

the weak range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

Similarly, the Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.463 ($r = 0.463$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and learning environment. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in the learning environment and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is moderate because the correlation coefficient is 0.463, which falls under the moderate range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

Further, the Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.334 ($r = 0.334$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and equality. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in equality and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is weak because the correlation coefficient is 0.33, which falls under the weak range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

Lastly, the Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.263 ($r = 0.263$) in the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusiveness. This means the direction of the relation between the two variables is positive. This relationship shows that the increase in self-efficacy results in an increase in inclusiveness and vice versa. However, the strength of the relationship is weak because the correlation coefficient is 0.26, which falls under the weak range. The correlation finding between the two variables is highly significant.

The Contribution of Self-Efficacy of Teachers to Inclusive Education Practices

Here, the binary logistic regression was applied to find out the contribution of the self-efficacy of teachers to different factors/themes (roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness) of the inclusive education practices in the schools. For this, self-efficacy was the independent variable, whereas the different factors of inclusive education practices were the dependent variables. For logistic regression analysis, first, the mean value of both independent and dependent variables was figured out. The mean value of self-efficacy (independent variable) was categorized into three categories as high (3), medium (2), and low (1), dividing the high Likert scale 5 by 3. Thus, the low level falls between 1-1.66, the

medium level falls between 1.66-3.32 and the high level falls between 3.32-5. Then, the three categories were transferred to two categories, low/medium as the first category and high as the second category. Similarly, the mean values of the dependent variables (roles and responsibilities of educational authorities, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness) were categorized into two categories. It was categorized that a scale of 1-3 falls under low-level (1), and a scale of 3-5 falls under high level (2). After doing all these, the binary logistic regression analysis was done through the SPSS. Here, for determining the contribution of self-efficacy of the teachers to the inclusive education practices, integrated and resource class teachers' perceptions (Table 30) were taken into consideration removing the perceptions of special school teachers. And, the contribution of self-efficacy of the teachers to the practices was also figured out (Table 31) by considering integrated schools, resources classes and special schools' responses. The output of the logistic regression reveals accordingly;

Table 30

Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness (Considering integrated schools and resource classes)

Dependent Variables	B	S.E.	Exp (B) (Odds Ratio)	Nagelkerke R Square
Roles and Responsibilities of Education Authority	-1.099	.720	.333**	.044
Important Knowledge	-.427	.699	.652**	.007
Availability of Rights	-1.897	.775	.150**	.129
Participation	-.495	.681	.610	.009
Learning Environment	-.999	.778	.368**	.034
Equality	-.833	.687	.435	.026
Inclusiveness	-.288	.736	1.333	.003

The table 30 shows the R Square value and the odds ratio value with its significance level. The R Square shows how much each predictor (self-efficacy) contributed to the dependent variables. The odds ratio value, which is also known as the binary logistic regression value.

The binary logistic regression analysis performed between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and their level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority level reveals that teachers with low or medium level of self-efficacy are 0.333 times less likely to have high level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority on CWHI than those with a high level of self-efficacy. If teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, their chances of contributing to roles and responsibilities are 0.333 times lower. In this case, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 4.4%.

The binary logistic regression analysis performed between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and their level of important knowledge reveals that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy are 0.652 times less likely to have high levels of important knowledge on CWHI than teachers with low or medium levels of self-efficacy. That is, if teachers have low/medium self-efficacy, their chances of contributing to important knowledge are reduced by 0.652 times. In this case, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 0.7%.

The binary logistic regression analysis done between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and the availability of rights level reveals that in comparison to teachers with low or medium level of self-efficacy to those of having high level of self-efficacy are 0.150 times less likely to have high level of availability of rights in the schools. That means, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the availability of rights are less likely to 0.150 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 12.9%.

The binary logistic regression analysis done between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and the participation level reveals that in comparison to teachers with a low or medium level of self-efficacy, those having a high level of self-efficacy are 0.610 times less likely to have a high level of participation in the schools. That means if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the participation are less likely to be 0.610 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 0.9%.

The binary logistic regression analysis done between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and the learning environment level reveals that in comparison to teachers with low or medium level of self-efficacy to those of having high level of self-efficacy are 0.368 times less likely to have high level of learning environment in the schools. That means, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributors to the learning environment are less likely to 0.368 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 3.4%.

The binary logistic regression analysis done between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and the equality level reveals that in comparison to teachers with low or medium level of self-efficacy to those of having high level of self-efficacy are 0.435 times less likely to have high level of equality in the schools. That means, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the equality in the schools are less likely to 0.435 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 2.6%.

The binary logistic regression analysis done between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and the inclusiveness level reveals that in comparison to teachers with a low or medium level of self-efficacy, those having a high level of self-efficacy are 1.333 times less likely to have a high level of inclusiveness in the schools. It means if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributing to the inclusiveness are 1.333 times less. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 0.3%.

The contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the inclusive practices was also figured out by considering all types of available schools (Integrated, resource classes and special schools) for children with hearing impairments. The relationship reveals accordingly;

Table 31

Relationship between Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Roles and Responsibilities of Educational Authority, Important Knowledge, Availability of Rights, Participation, Learning Environment, Equality and Inclusiveness (Considering integrated schools resource classes and special schools)

Dependent Variables	B	S.E.	Exp (B) (Odds Ratio)	Nagelkerke R Square
Roles and Responsibilities of Education Authority	-1.193	.594	.303**	.034
Important Knowledge	-1.289	.548	.276**	.043
Availability of Rights	-1.959	.630	.141**	.098
Participation	-.712	.542	.491	.013
Learning Environment	-1.698	.615	.183**	.072
Equality	-.746	.582	.474	.013
Inclusiveness	-.274	.574	.760	.002

Here, the above table shows the binary logistic regression analysis performed between different levels of self-efficacy of teachers and their level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority level reveals that teachers with low or medium level of self-efficacy are 0.303 times less likely to have high level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority on CWHI than those with a high level of self-efficacy. If teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, their chances of contributing to roles and responsibilities are 0.303 times lower. In this case, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 3.4%.

In case of self-efficacy and important knowledge, if teachers have low/medium self-efficacy, their chances of contributing to important knowledge are reduced by 0.276 times. In this case, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 4.3 %. In case of teachers' self-efficacy and availability of rights, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of

contribution to the availability of rights are less likely to 0.141 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 9.8%. Similarly, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the participation are less likely to be 0.491 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 1.3%.

In case of teachers' self-efficacy and learning environment, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributors to the learning environment are less likely to 0.183 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 7.2%. Further in case of teachers' self-efficacy and equality, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the equality in the schools are less likely to 0.474 times. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 1.3%. Finally, in case of teachers' self-efficacy and inclusiveness, if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributing to the inclusiveness are 0.760 times less. Here, the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is 0.2%.

It is found that when special schools' responses are incorporated, teachers' self-efficacy appears influential in facilitating rights availability (9.8%) and nurturing conducive learning environments (7.2%). Conversely, without special schools' responses, the emphasis shifts slightly, with teachers' self-efficacy being attributed greater significance in fostering rights availability (12.9%). Additionally, its role extends to delineating the roles and responsibilities of educational authorities (4.4%), alongside its continued influence on optimizing learning environments (3.4%).

Chapter Summary

This chapter examined the general level of teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and self-efficacy, as well as the degree of inclusive education in the classrooms. Similar to this, the correlation was used to examine the connection between teachers' self-efficacy and schools' inclusive education practices. Binary logistic regression was also used to determine the influence of teachers' self-efficacy on the various aspects of inclusive education practices.

High levels of self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude among instructors, as well as inclusive educational in schools, were discovered. The levels were discovered to be less consistent in some instances across all themes, though. Results showed a generally weak but favorable connection between self-efficacy and inclusive educational practices. However, there was a substantial link between the variables.

Results showed that self-efficacy contributed to the various themes of inclusive

educational practices. The self-efficacy predictor's contribution to the roles and responsibilities of educational authority, significant knowledge, and accessibility to rights, engagement, learning environment, equality, and inclusivity ranged from 0.3 to 12.9 percent. These conclusions, problems, and contributing variables will be further discussed in the next discussion chapter.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of the present study was to find the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude and the inclusive education in the schools. The perceptions of teachers teaching to special, integrated and resource classes as a practice of inclusive education was the study area. In addition, the correlation between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in the schools was examined. Further, the contributions of self-efficacy to the different themes relating to inclusive education practices in schools were revealed. This chapter is completed by interpreting data from the results of research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4. Elaborations are given for each research question, and the thematic concerns are used to make implications from the results. The conceptual and theoretical ideas of the study are linked and elaborated in this chapter for the research questions.

Level of Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Knowledge, Attitude and Inclusive Education Themes in the Schools

Regarding self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude, all teachers were judged to be highly competent, informed, and attitude-driven. The degree of inclusive education themes was also found to be above the predetermined level value in terms of the duties and responsibilities of educational authority, significant knowledge, accessibility to rights, participation, learning environment, equality, and inclusiveness. The level of consistency for each claim about self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude, and inclusive educational themes, however, was discovered to be unstable.

When self-efficacy for each statement was compared, it was discovered that teachers who were patient with their students' learning styles had higher self-efficacy. The kids' preferred learning styles were taught by the teachers with tolerance. The level of teachers' self-efficacy is found to be a minimum when teachers have to educate the children without changing the existing process in the schools. It means the existing process of teaching in the schools seems not satisfactory even to the teachers as they perceive themselves as less self-efficacious in the teaching process. Educators may feel that rigid adherence to existing processes could lead to stagnation in teaching methods, hindering innovation and limiting opportunities for student engagement and learning. It was discovered that instructors' efficacy in educating the

kids without altering the way things are done in the schools had a lower degree of self-efficacy. This indicates that teachers in CWHI-focused schools would not be as confident in their ability to instruct the students if the current teaching methodology were to continue unchanged.

When teachers' knowledge was compared to the available statements in the theme, it was discovered that teachers had a better degree of understanding regarding the necessity for a unique curriculum for CWHI students. It was also discovered that teachers had a lower knowledge level and required more training to instruct CWHI students. It denotes that educators have come to terms with the fact that the CWHI information that was at their disposal was insufficient to appropriately instruct students in the classroom. Overall, it underscores the significant challenge educators face in feeling confident and competent in their teaching roles without adequate knowledge. It highlights the importance of ongoing professional development and support to address these perceived knowledge gaps and enhance educators' confidence and effectiveness in the classroom.

The self-efficacy of teachers found different in different districts of Nepal. Some districts found highly self-efficacious and others have minimum level of self-efficacy. Districts with higher self-efficacy levels among teachers may exhibit better classroom outcomes and student achievement. There could be several reasons why there are differences in the self-efficacy of teachers among different districts in Nepal. Some possible factors contributing to these variations may include resource allocation, professional development opportunities to teachers, support from administration, community engagement, socio-economic factors, culture and beliefs, and geographic factors. Geographical differences such as accessibility to training centers, exposure to best practices, and urban-rural divide can also contribute to variations in teachers' self-efficacy across districts.

When teachers' attitudes were compared to the assertions, it was discovered that teachers had a greater level of attitude when it came to treating children equally. It indicates teachers' attitudes about treating all pupils fairly in the classrooms. It was also discovered that teachers have a lower level of attitude toward the pupils as a result of their inclusion with other students. It indicates that even though the students were integrated with other students, the teachers were not satisfied. It was also discovered that teachers' negative attitudes could be figured out if the students are included with other students. The potential concerns here are that negative feelings

towards students can have detrimental effects on the learning environment and the well-being of students. Such emotions may stem from various factors, including challenges associated with inclusive education, personal biases, or lack of support and resources.

The possibility of including students with disabilities or CWHI in schools in Nepal and the attitudes of teachers towards this inclusion depend on a variety of factors, including policy, cultural beliefs, and societal attitudes. In Nepal, there have been efforts to promote inclusive education for students with disabilities, and there are policies in place to support their inclusion in mainstream schools. The Ministry of Education has taken steps to develop inclusive education strategies and training programs for teachers to create a more inclusive learning environment. However, cultural factors and societal attitudes can also play a significant role in determining the success of inclusive education in Nepal. Some cultural beliefs may stigmatize disability or view it as a sign of shame, which can lead to discrimination and exclusion of students with disabilities from mainstream schools. Changing these deep-rooted cultural attitudes and beliefs may take time and require comprehensive social and educational reforms including better understanding of inclusive education among teachers.

In Nepal, cultural and social backgrounds play a significant role in shaping the acceptance of various forms of disabilities. Traditional Nepalese communities often view disabilities as karmic consequences from past lives, equating them with divine punishment. This belief contributes to reluctance among teachers within communities to embrace the inclusion of students with disabilities (Aryal, 2013). The severity of the disability and the lack of resources consistently impact teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, regardless of cultural differences. In cases of severe disabilities or CWHI, teachers tend to view the regular classroom as an unsuitable educational setting. Research by Kafle (2007) underscores the crucial role of adequate material and human resources, as well as appropriate training and technology aids.

When inclusive education practices were compared across the themes, it was discovered that the theme availability of rights had a greater level of inclusive education practices. This indicates that instructors at CWHI schools thought there was a good degree of rights available in the schools. The topic participation showed a lower level of inclusive educational practices. It indicates that the level of participation in the classrooms was not as high as the teachers thought it should have

been. It signals the need for educators to reflect on their practices, address concerns, and explore ways to promote more positive and effective forms of student involvement in the learning process.

Thematically, inclusive education practices perceived by the teachers provide some hints on how inclusive education is put into effect in the classrooms. The level of functions and responsibilities of educational authority was found to be high in all claims, according to the study's findings (Aggregate 3.80 with an SD 0.70). However, 12 of the statements had mean values below 4, compared to 5 of the statements having mean values over 4. (not below 2). When comparing mean values above and below 4, there was no discernible difference in the level of consistency.

According to the study, the statement "School uses textbooks prescribed by the education authority" had a higher level of roles and responsibilities than other statements. This indicates that there were no textbooks created specifically for the education of CWHI in schools. This study also showed that the statement "School provides disaster management training to the teachers and staff" had a lower level of roles and responsibilities for educational authorities. That indicates that, in the opinion of the teachers, disaster management-related trainings in the schools was not carried out satisfactorily. This also indicates a positive perception of such training, there may be opportunities for further improvement to enhance preparedness and response capabilities within the school community.

Furthermore, all of the claims in the theme "important knowledge" had a high level of significant knowledge. The school did not effectively encourage teachers to online, distant learning, and studies on inclusive education because the score was below 3, or a mean of 2.89 there. This indicates that teachers were not sufficiently motivated to take advantage of these facilities in the classrooms to advance their knowledge of CWHI. The lack of motivation and support from the school may negatively impact the quality of teaching and learning experiences for students, particularly those with hearing impairments. Without adequate training and encouragement, teachers may struggle to effectively implement inclusive practices and utilize online learning platforms, resulting in diminished educational outcomes.

In every statement, it was discovered that there were several rights available in schools. One of the claims, though, had a mean value that was less than 4. It suggested that there weren't as many free health exam services available to pupils in schools. It indicates that despite being one of their fundamental rights, children were

not receiving enough free health checks in schools. It reflects a perception that free health checkups alone may not effectively address the broader health needs of students. Respondents may feel that additional support systems or interventions are necessary to address underlying health issues or promote long-term health and well-being of the children.

The degree of participation in the schools was found to be high (Aggregate mean 3.44 with an SD 0.94). One of the claims, however, had a minimum mean value. It suggested that the instructors in the schools were not receiving sufficient frequent professional and hands-on CWHI focused trainings. This indicates that teachers were not given enough chances to take part in professional development sessions focused on CWHI. It means that teachers may not receive trainings consistently, leading to concerns about the reliability and effectiveness of professional development efforts needed for CWHI.

All statements indicated that the learning environment in schools was of a good caliber. However, one of the statements was less than 3 mean values. It showed that there were not enough gadgets, including hearing aids, available in the schools for those who needed them for their teaching. There may be disparities in access to and support for hearing aids and other assistive devices among students with hearing impairments. Some students may face barriers to obtaining or using these devices, leading to concerns about inequities in educational opportunities and outcomes.

In all statements, the degree of equality in schools was determined to be high. One of the claims, though, had a mean value less than others. It suggested that the children were not given a sufficient amount of equally distributed opportunities to participate in the school's child club and portfolio. It concerns about the school's approach to student participation and equity, highlighting potential gaps in inclusivity, support, and accountability. It emphasizes the importance of critically examining existing practices and implementing meaningful changes to ensure that all students are afforded genuine opportunities for engagement and leadership within the school community.

In all assertions, it was discovered that the schools had a high level of inclusivity. Among the statements, one statement indicated that SMC didn't always incorporate all interested parties in school decision-making. This can be compared to the other factors that the inclusion of all stakeholders in the decision-making process for the support of CWHI appears to be rather low. It could raise concerns about power

imbalances within the decision-making process. There may be criticisms that certain stakeholders, such as school administrators or influential community members, hold disproportionate influence or decision-making authority, marginalizing the voices of others.

The degree of self-efficacy about inclusive education varied by age, gender, education, experience, different kinds of disabilities, school types and districts. In all age categories, the level of self-efficacy appeared to be higher than the set mean values. In contrast to other age groups, the consistency level appeared to be lower for all age groups but higher for those between the ages of 41 and 50.

Similar to this, statistics showed that female teachers appeared to have high levels of self-efficacy when it came to instructing CWHI students (mean 4). But male teachers' self-efficacy was shown to be highly consistent. This indicates that, while consistency levels may vary, female instructors show higher self-efficacy than male teachers. There could be several reasons why female teachers may exhibit higher self-efficacy than male teachers in teaching children with disabilities.

When the level of self-efficacy among instructors with various academic backgrounds was compared, the data surprisingly showed that the self-efficacy of SLC graduates was high with a high consistency level. This indicates that SLC graduates who are teaching CWHI students have higher levels of self-efficacy than teachers with degrees of +2, bachelor's, and master's.

When the teachers' levels of experience were compared, it was observed that instructors with experiences of 6 to 10 and above 21 years had high levels of self-efficacy but that teachers with experiences of 11 to 20 years had high levels of consistency. This indicates that teachers with an initial stage and more experience were discovered to have high self-efficacy.

Data comparing the self-efficacy levels of teachers with different types of disabilities showed that across all types of disabilities, teachers with physical disabilities had the highest self-efficacy and consistency in teaching than other types of disabilities. This indicates that teachers with physical disabilities consistently teach students with a high self-efficacious level.

Comparing teachers' levels of self-efficacy across several types of schools revealed that resource class teachers had the highest levels of self-efficacy with the others, but the consistency level seemed high with the special school teachers. This

indicates that, despite any differences in consistency level, resource class teachers reported higher levels of self-efficacy than the others.

Self-efficacy according to age, gender, education, experience, disability types and school categories indicates different logic. By age, self-efficacy is found to be high at moderate age. By gender, the efficacy is found to be high with females. By education, it is found to be high with SLC graduates, meaning the number of training received by the teachers' matters in teaching rather than qualification. By experience, the moderate years of experience seem high. By disability types, a teacher with a physical disability is found to have high self-efficacy in teaching the students. By school categories, it is found to be high with the teachers of the resource class. By district categories, Sindhuli, Rautahat and Dang have high self-efficacy whereas Doti, Syangja and Surkhet have somewhat minimum self-efficacy.

Talking about knowledge and attitude levels, all were found to be greater than the established mean value of 2.5, regardless of the teachers' age, gender, education, experience, and types of disabilities. However, it was discovered that the variables' levels of consistency varied.

Data comparing the knowledge and attitude levels of instructors in different age groups showed that the knowledge and attitude levels of the 51–60 age group were among the highest, while the consistency levels were among the highest in the 41–60 age group. This indicates that people in the age range of 41 to 60 have a solid understanding of inclusive education and a positive attitude toward the academic demands of CWHI students.

Similarly, statistics showed that female teachers appeared to have high levels of knowledge and attitude when instructing CWHI children when comparing the degree of knowledge & attitude in different genders (mean 4.19). However, the knowledge and attitude of male teachers were found to be consistently high. This indicates that, despite potential differences in consistency, female teachers have higher knowledge and attitudes than male teachers.

The data showed that the bachelor level qualification's knowledge & attitude were found to be high when comparing the level of knowledge & attitude in other academic degrees of teachers. However, it was discovered that SLC passed teachers had a high consistency level. This indicates that bachelor's degree holders have had strong knowledge and attitude, while the consistency level high with the SLC graduates.

When knowledge and attitude levels were compared among teachers with varying levels of experience, the results showed teachers with 16 to 20 years of experience scored highly and consistently well. This indicates that educators with more than fifteen years of experience were found to have high levels of knowledge about inclusive education and student-centered attitudes.

When the level of knowledge and attitude of the instructors were compared according to the different types of disabilities, the results showed that teachers with physical disabilities scored the highest and had the highest consistency level. This indicates that instructors with physical disabilities have a good understanding of inclusive education and a positive attitude toward CWHI students. This may be due to the fact that more teachers with physical disabilities than those with other sorts of disabilities were hired to teach CWHI.

In nutshell, the level of knowledge is found to be minimum in teachers' knowledge teaching to CWHI students. It means the teachers have accepted that with their limited knowledge, it will be hard for them to teach properly and adequately in the schools. The level of attitude is found somehow negative when the teachers have to incorporate the CWHI students with other general students. It means teachers' negative level can be possible when there is an issue of inclusion of such students with other students in the schools.

The knowledge and attitude according to age, gender, education, experience, and disability types indicate different logic. By age, knowledge and attitude are found to be high in 40-60 years. By gender, it is found to be high with females. By education, it is found high with bachelor level qualification than others. By experience, the moderate years of experience seem high. By disability types, a teacher with a physical disability is found high to teach the students. By district categories, Sindhuli, Sindhupalchowk and Morang have higher level of knowledge and attitude and Syangja, Siraha and Doti have minimum level of knowledge and attitude as perceived by the teachers. All these findings are also supported by different studies done previously in different countries. By districts,

Finally, the level of inclusive education practices in the schools is found to be minimum in the theme/factor 'participation.' The environment for the participation of teachers, parents and students is found to be minimum in the schools, as perceived by the teachers. Several factors may contribute to differences in self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude among educators teaching children with hearing impairments in Nepal.

These factors can vary based on background variables such as education level, teaching experience, training in inclusive and special education, cultural beliefs, and access to resources including societal expectation and gender roles, empathy and emotional intelligence, personal experience and exposure, training and professional development, support, network and collaboration and perceived expectations etc.

Discussion

The findings of the study indicated that the perceptions of teachers considering the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education themes in Nepal are found to be high in most cases. However, there are some cases/statements in which the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education is found to be minimum.

Teachers' self-efficacy differs according to their demographic variables. According to studies, teacher efficacy varies depending on age and gender. Female teachers were reported to be more effective in the classroom than male teachers (Edwards et al., 1991). In-service female science teachers, on the other hand, exhibited lower efficacy beliefs in science instruction than male instructors (Riggs, 1991). Similarly, teachers who taught with younger students had higher efficacy levels than those who taught with older students (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). These findings are also in line with those of this study.

Differences in teachers' self-efficacy levels will depend on the academic level of the teachers, according to Wolters and Daugherty (2007). Teachers in the upper classes have reduced self-efficacy, but teachers in the elementary grades have a high level of self-efficacy. Teachers' sense of efficacy among elementary and secondary teachers is compared by Lee, Cawthon, and Dawson (2013) as part of a larger study.

They discovered that elementary teachers had a considerably higher sense of efficacy than secondary teachers. Teachers with bachelor's degrees are more effective than those with master's degrees, according to this report. Teachers with a Bachelor's degree are more effective in the classroom than those with a Master's degree (Alrefaei, 2015). The finding of this study is similar to the findings of the mentioned studies. This indicates that the qualification of teachers is not the only determinant to enrich the self-efficacy of teachers.

In terms of experience, Loreman et al. (2013) explored the antecedents of pre-service teachers' self-efficacy for inclusion in four countries, including two South East Asian countries (Hong Kong and Indonesia). Prior teaching experience with children

with disabilities, engagement with disabled persons, and understanding of inclusive education policies and laws were found to have a substantial impact on their self-efficacy for inclusion. Another study found that instructors' efficacy levels dropped with experience, with pre-service teachers having the highest levels of teaching efficacy (Dembo & Gibson, 1985). Klassen and Chiu (2010) found that as teachers' experiences grew, their self-efficacy views shrank. As a result, it can be inferred that the teaching experience of results teachers has no bearing on their efficacy level (Alrefaei, 2015).

Changes in efficacy among experienced teachers, according to Bandura (1997), are more difficult to achieve and maintain. Ross (1994) discovered that even after completing efficacy workshops, experienced teachers' self-efficacy remained stable. After attending an efficacy seminar, an experienced teacher's efficacy increased, according to Ohmart (1992). Bandura (1997) proposed that when people learn a new skill, they compartmentalize their capabilities while putting it to the test.

Thus, this study finding is inclined to other studies. Some studies revealed that experience matters, and others revealed that experience does not matter to have self-efficacy. As this study figured out, the higher efficacy can be seen with the teachers of minimum years and adequate years of experience with the teachers, not basically at moderate years of experience.

Talking about teachers' attitude, according to Sharma's (2020) research in Nepal, male teachers had a somewhat more positive attitude toward inclusive education than female teachers. Male teachers had an average attitude of 3.37, while female teachers had an average attitude of 3.27. Furthermore, younger (under 40) teachers were shown to have a more favourable attitude toward inclusive education than older (over 40) instructors. The average attitude toward inclusive education among younger teachers was 3.46, whereas the same among older teachers was 3.14.

The study carried out by Sharma was in general schools, so the results came differently. However, in the schools where CWHI students study, the female teachers' attitude was found to be high in comparison to male teachers.

Another study conducted by Ahmmed et al. (2012) in Bangladesh found that male teachers in government elementary schools in Bangladesh have a somewhat more favourable attitude toward including students with impairments ($M = 56.48$) than their female counterparts ($M = 54.46$). However, this is contrary finding to the finding of this study. Furthermore, a study conducted in Tanzania found that older

teachers had more favorable views toward disabled students than younger teachers, which could indicate that Tanzanian teachers' working experience leads to more positive attitudes toward disabled students in inclusive education (Hofman & Kilimo, 2014). This finding is similar to the finding of this study.

In other studies, teachers' attitudes about including students with impairments in regular settings were revealed. Female teachers were found to have more positive views toward students with disabilities (Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001) and had higher expectations of them than their male colleagues (Hodge & Jansma, 2000). Other studies, on the other hand, found that male teachers were either much more confident in their ability to educate children with disabilities than female teachers (Jobe et al., 1996), or had more positive attitudes toward inclusive education (Jobe, et al., 1996). Findings associating gender as a variable to analyze reactions to inclusive education are often linked to cultural issues, according to Lampropoulou and Padelliadu (1997), with some cultures ascribing the care of students with disabilities to female teachers. In the finding of this study, too, the consistency level of male teachers was found good than female teachers, which means males seemed confident in teaching the children, but from an attitude perspective, female teachers' attitudes were found to be high in comparison to male teachers.

In connection with female teachers, it was discovered that pre-service female teachers are more supportive of inclusive education than their male colleagues. Forlin et al. (2009) conducted a study to compare pre-service teachers' views on inclusive education in Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and Singapore. According to their research, female pre-service teachers in all four nations exhibited more favorable attitudes toward inclusive education than their male counterparts. Studies conducted in Israel (Romi & Leyser, 2006) and Australia (Woodcock, 2008) also corroborated this conclusion. Similar findings were found in numerous other research (Kuyini & Mangope, 2011; Loreman, Sharma, Forlin, & Earle, 2005; Tait & Purdie, 2000), which found that female pre-service teachers were more inclined to favor inclusive education than their male counterparts. Contrary to this, Carroll, Forlin, and Jobling (2003), Haq and Mundia (2012), and Rana (2012) did not discover a connection between participants' attitudes toward IE and their gender.

Park and Chitiyo (2011) concluded that there were varying results regarding gender differences in teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities, citing several studies (e.g., Hadjidakou and Mnasonos, in press; Parasuram, 2006), though a

large number of studies showed higher levels of positive attitudes in females than in males. In line with these findings, this study also figured out that female teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education seemed high though the consistency and confidence level might differ.

Knowledge and attitude according to the qualifications differ. The study carried out by Ahmmed et al. (2012) found a statistically significant association between teachers' educational qualifications and their attitudes toward inclusion in a study conducted in Bangladesh. Teachers with a Master's degree or higher qualifications have lower attitudes ($M = 53.59$) than teachers with a below Bachelor's degree ($M = 55.77$) or Bachelor's degree ($M = 55.91$). However, Sharma (2020) discovered that instructors with better qualifications (e.g., a Master's degree) were more enthusiastic about inclusive education than teachers with lower qualifications (SLC to Bachelor). Teachers with a Master's degree had an average attitude of 3.40, whereas teachers with an SLC to Bachelor's degree had an average attitude of 3.18.

Heiman (2001) and Kuester (2000) concluded that a teacher's level of educational qualification had no significant impact on that teacher's attitude toward including students with disabilities in regular classes, whereas Stoler (1992) found that teachers with higher levels of education had less positive attitudes toward inclusion than those without a master's degree.

This conclusion conflicts with Parasuram's (2006) findings, which revealed that teachers with a Master's degree had higher positive attitudes than teachers with Bachelor's and lower Bachelor's degrees. This conclusion could be explained by the fact that universities in Bangladesh cover very little information concerning inclusive education at the master's level, and so the participants' attitudes reflect their lack of understanding about teaching in such classes.

This finding is also compatible with the planned behavior theory. According to the theory of planned behavior, ideas about conduct serve as the fundamental basis for attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). According to the theory, among people with high levels of education, attitudes toward the activity, subjective norms with regard to the conduct and a sense of control over the action are typically found to accurately predict behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 2019).

Similarly, the aforementioned results are in line with Ajzen's (2005) idea of TPB, which argued that demographic factors, including age, educational background,

and other demographic factors, have an impact on how teachers assess their own teaching efficacy. Additionally, the subjective norm component (Ajzen, 1991, 2005) proposed in the TPB could be used to explain how the educational background of teacher educators influences teachers' readiness for IE.

The context and settings of specific countries might affect the results in determining the level of knowledge and attitude toward inclusive education. The expertise and attitude of the teachers instructing CWHI are based on cultural and behavioral factors. The results of this study showed that, from a consistency standpoint, SLC graduates could also contribute to teaching the students, but from a performance standpoint, the degree of education matters, as indicated by several studies, which this study also determined. Teachers' attitudes toward inclusion, according to Avramidis and Norwich (2002), are critical determinants for successful inclusive education methods. Furthermore, Jerlinder, Danermark and Gill (2010) stated that if teachers have a favorable attitude toward inclusive education, the aims of inclusive education (all students participating in all social and educational opportunities available in a school) can be met. However, if they have a poor perception of inclusive education, it will create barriers between them and students with disabilities, especially in the classroom (Koster, Pijl, Nakken & Van Houten, 2010). Most teachers, according to Avramidis and Kalyva (2007), agree that having enough knowledge and skills about inclusive education can help them deal with teaching issues and obstacles.

Knowledge and attitude according to the years of experiences also differ. Teachers having more than 10 years of teaching experience are shown to be more optimistic than teachers with less experience, according to Sharma (2020). Teachers with more than 10 years of experience have a 3.42 average, while those with less experience have a 3.29 average.

Having prior experience as an inclusive educator appears to be a favorable indicator of a favourable attitude toward inclusive education (Avissar, 2000; Avramidis et al., 2000; Harvey, 1985; Hodge & Jansma, 2000; Jobe et al., 1996). It appears that having prior expertise in this field assists teachers in feeling more at ease in the inclusive classroom (Avissar, 2000; Harvey, 1985). Teachers' attitudes regarding inclusive settings appeared to be shaped by direct experiences of including students with disabilities in mainstream settings (Avramidis et al., 2000; Giangreco, et

al., 1993; Villa, et al., 1996). Briggs et al. (2002) argue that previous contact should be positive because it leads to positive attitudes toward inclusive education.

In the same way, a study conducted in the United States by Everington, Steven, and Winters (1999) discovered that teachers with prior experience with inclusive education were significantly more positive toward disabled students than those with less experience. Malinen et al. (2013) discovered that when comparing three countries – China, Finland, and South Africa – experience teaching students with disabilities was the strongest predictor of teacher self-efficacy in all three countries, while the predictive power of other variables varied depending on the country context.

Similarly, the knowledge and attitude according to different types of disabilities also differ. This finding is apparent in another research carried out in Nepal by Sharma (2020). Teachers with some disabilities had an average attitude of 3.59, whereas other teachers on the same scale had an average attitude of 3.30.

The inclusive education policy, 2017 of Nepal is based on non-discrimination concept. It is anticipated that a master plan will be created to implement the policy regarding the infrastructure's accessibility, teacher preparation, and curriculum flexibility (UNESCO, 2017). Since the master plan has not been made so far in Nepal to operationalize inclusive education policy, there seems dilemma to implement the strategies and programs of the policy effectively. Similarly, The National Education Policy 2019 has a separate policy on inclusive and special education for children with disabilities with its programmatic approach in ensuring the learning needs of children with disabilities. However, there also seems no effectiveness in implementing the notion of the policy.

In analyzing the scenario of teachers' perceptions toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in classrooms in Nepal, despite the existence of inclusive education based policies several critical observations can be made basically in the practices of inclusive education.

One primary issue could be resource constraints. Implementation of inclusive education requires adequate funding, specialized training for teachers, accessible infrastructure, and appropriate teaching materials. If these resources are lacking or insufficiently allocated, teachers may struggle to effectively accommodate students with disabilities in their classrooms. Despite the policy emphasis on teacher preparation, there may be gaps in the training provided to teachers regarding inclusive

education strategies and techniques for supporting students with disabilities. Without adequate training, teachers may feel ill-equipped to meet the diverse needs of their students, leading to frustration and reluctance towards inclusion. Attitudes and perceptions towards disability within society, including among educators, can significantly impact the success of inclusive education efforts. Negative attitudes, stereotypes, and misconceptions about disabilities may influence teachers' beliefs about the capabilities of students with disabilities and their potential to succeed in mainstream classrooms.

Inclusive education requires a supportive environment where teachers have access to ongoing guidance, mentorship, and collaboration with special education professionals. In the absence of such support structures, teachers may feel isolated and overwhelmed, further contributing to negative perceptions towards inclusion. Cultural beliefs and societal norms surrounding disability can also shape teachers' attitudes and behaviors towards inclusive education. In some cultures, there may be a stigma attached to disability, leading to marginalization and discrimination against individuals with disabilities. Addressing deep-rooted cultural and social stigma requires comprehensive societal changes and awareness-raising efforts.

To address these challenges and improve the implementation of inclusive education policies in Nepal effectively, several recommendations can be made in terms of investment in resources, comprehensive teacher training, promotion of positive attitudes, establishment of support networks, policy review and implementation regularly by involving stakeholders, including teachers, parents, students, and disability rights advocates in the policy-making process to ensure their perspectives can be considered.

When analyzing the level of inclusive education perceived by teachers thematically in terms of roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality and inclusiveness, most of the statements' levels are found to be high. However, there are some statements in the themes where the minimum levels are traced as perceived by the teachers. The minimum levels perceived by the teachers in the statements of different themes are;

- School provides disaster management training to the teachers and staff
- School motivates teachers for online, distance education and study on hearing impairment focused inclusive education

- Availability of free health checkups to the students in school
- Teachers are receiving regular professional and practical CWHI focus training
- Use of hearing aid and other devices in teaching the students
- School provides an equitable opportunity to the students for being portfolio and members of child club of the schools
- SMC involves all stakeholders in the decision-making process in schools

These are the major problem areas in inclusive education in the schools in Nepal as perceived by the teachers, which are directly related to curtailing quality education and learning opportunities for the children in the schools.

As we all know, the 15th Plan of Nepal has a working policy to ensure quality education for children by prioritizing disable-friendly education. If there are some problematic areas in inclusive education, as revealed by the study, the strategic thought of the 15th plan will be questionable in CWHI-focused schools in Nepal. Even the Education Policy (2019) explains the opportunity for learning professional skills the teachers, availability of support devices and materials, including audiovisual and support materials, and alternative and appropriate use of technology/devices by not limiting only to sign language. However, the policy level adjustments are also not found in line with the policy pronouncement revealed by the study.

One of the major concerns of the human rights-based approach is the right to education in terms of access and quality, equality and efficiency. The major focus of the approach is on child rights of access to education; the right to quality education; and the right to respect within the learning environment, which are mainly focused on the 4As (Available, Accessible, Acceptable and Adaptable) also identified by International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). It has been mentioned that the functioning of educational institutions has to be available in sufficient quantity, including school buildings, trained teachers and teaching materials. Here, the study has figured out some problematic areas in terms of quality, accessibility and availability. The level of effective inclusive education practices in CWHI-focused schools is challenging, which means the strategy of the right to education for all remained challenged and has eventually been curtailed to ensure effective inclusive education practices in the schools.

We can further go to sustainable development goal no. 4, which is basically for ensuring quality and inclusive education strategy in the schools. SDG targets 4.5 and 4 (A) have the target to build and upgrade education facilities that are child,

disability and gender are sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.

When analyzing SDG 4 is composed of 7 outcome targets and three means of implementation. SDG4's ten targets constitute the backbone to ensure educational rights. The first target: Universal primary and secondary education. The second target: Early childhood development and universal pre-primary education. The third target: Equal access to technical/ vocational and higher education. The fourth target: Relevant skills for decent work. The fifth target: Gender equality and inclusion. The sixth target: Universal Youth Literacy. The seventh target: Education for sustainable development and global citizenship. The means of implementation are Effective learning environments; Scholarships; and Teachers and educators (United Nations, 2018).

Out of seven targets, this study is more focused on the fifth target. The target is focused on inclusion & equality and gender equality: In inclusion and equality, there is a provision that all people, irrespective of sex, age, race, colour, ethnicity, language, religion, political or other opinions, national or social origin, property or birth, as well as persons with disabilities, migrants, indigenous peoples, and children and youth, especially those in vulnerable situations or another status, should have access to inclusive, equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities. In gender equality, there is a provision that all girls and boys, women and men, should have equal opportunity to enjoy education of high quality, achieve at equal levels and enjoy equal benefits from education (United Nations, 2018).

According to the Sustainable Development Goal Progress Assessment Report 2016-19 of Nepal on goal 4, there has been progress in enrolments (primary 97.2 percent), a ratio of girls to boys, and in primary completion rates (89.5 percent) and continuation rates but these achievements remain below expectations. Learning achievement outcomes remain extremely poor (Maths 35%, Nepali 34%, English 41%). Gross enrolment in ECD has also improved but is short of expectations. There have been improvements in the ratio of girls' enrolment and technical and vocation and tertiary education, but the coverage of vocational education itself is too limited. The proportion of the working-age population with relevant skills for employment is improving but remains low (31 percent). The Gender Parity Index for primary and secondary school enrolment is getting better, at 1.05 and 0.95, respectively. Data on literacy and numeracy, in general, is not available. Public spending on education is

much lower than expected and needs to be improved. Overall, there has been important progress in SDG 4 and target 4.5, but rapid improvements are needed – particularly in learning outcomes of children with disabilities and disadvantaged groups, quality of teaching, expansion of vocational education and general literacy and numeracy (NPC, 2020).

Since this study has indicated that there are problematic areas in a learning environment and inclusive practices in terms of participation in the schools, the expected target of SDG (target 4.5), seems challenging in the schools, as indicated by the findings of the study. The SDG progress report's indication is also in line with the findings of this study in revealing challenges to children with disabilities in ensuring learning outcomes.

As we all know that Nepal's education system has brought special needs education under the inclusive education framework. When we talk about the children with hearing impairments, they are primarily belonged to special needs education. The most recent trend in special education is that of "inclusive schools" (MoE, 1997). The fundamental principle of the inclusive school is that all children should learn together, wherever possible, regardless of any difficulties or differences they may have. Inclusive schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnerships with their communities (MoE, 1997). As the study finding reveals that there are problematic areas in a learning environment and inclusive practices in the schools even in special schools, the special needs education of the children also seems problematic as assumed by special needs education of the country.

As indicated in the theoretical framework of the study, effective inclusive education can be assured through the effective roles and responsibilities of educational authority; important knowledge available in the schools; availability of rights in the schools; participation environment for teachers, students and parents; learning environment, equality and inclusiveness in the schools' approach along with teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude. Through the theoretical framework, it can be said that the level of different themes of inclusive education practices, along with self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, should be at a high level so that effective inclusive education practices can be assured. This study has revealed that the level of

inclusive education practices and level of self-efficacy, along with knowledge and attitude in CWHI-focused schools, are found high in most of the cases, though there are some areas that seem problematic in ensuring effective inclusive education practices in the schools. Thus, the overall effective inclusive education practices in the schools can be said to be challenging in Nepal.

These challenges can also be linked to the CWDs and their learning difficulties. We can say that disability is more or less equated with a learning difficulty in most countries because of the hindering factors associated with it. The World Bank Report (2009) noted that people with disabilities are subject to multiple deprivations and that they are the most excluded from education. It further revealed that the more severe a child's disability, the lower the chances of the child attending school. This indication was supported by a study in the USA, which revealed that having a positive attitude toward inclusion can be challenging when teachers do not have the basic skills (e.g., the ability to modify the curriculum, understanding of student disabilities, manage challenging behaviors) necessary to facilitate inclusion (Allday et al., 2013)

The learning difficulties faced by children with disabilities are because of the perspectives of society, community and individuals. In disability, Rioux (1997) mentioned that there is a need for right based approach in education to ensure the right to education for every child regardless of their gender, age, ethnicity, disability etc. A rights-based approach to education necessitates a rigorous approach to establishing the entitlement of every child to education, together with a systematic approach to identifying and removing the barriers and blockages that impede access. This approach needs to be supported by a broad strategic commitment across the government to create the necessary environment for ensuring the rights of CWDs; then only the right to education of the children can be ensured (UNICEF, 2012). Actually, everyone's perspective should be the right outcome or right-based approach to enhance learning opportunities, but different entities (community, society, individuals, teachers) see disabilities through different lenses, so the problems associated with disabilities have failed to see any solutions and remain where they are.

These perspective discrepancies can be linked to Giddens' Structuration theory. As argued by Giddens (1984), an individual's autonomy is influenced by the structure of society. Giddens (1984) argues that both 'structure' and 'agency' are associated with 'society' and the 'individual' (p. 162). Giddens' theory seeks to show

that the knowledgeable actions of human agents discursively and recursively form a set of rules, practices and routines. So, we have sensed through different studies how CWDs are influenced or affected by the school structures in the set of rules and practices applied mostly in developing countries. Here, we can link Giddens' explanation of the interaction of human actors and social structures in providing or curtailing learning opportunities for children. Thus, we can say that how the structure is formed and how is it functioning by the actions and interactions of humans will determine the learning opportunities for the children and thereby ensure inclusive education practices in the schools.

When we talk about learning opportunities for children basically in developing countries, the structural problems created by the human actors/agencies and social structures are there, and these are evident from the studies too. Thus, by and large, there is a learning challenge for children with disabilities, and so is there for CWHI in Nepal. The learning challenges can be addressed through the teaching perspectives also. When we talk about teaching perspectives, there are five perspectives, as suggested by Pratt and Collians (2006). The five teaching perspectives include transmission, apprenticeship, developmental, nurturing and social Reform.

An intense dedication to the subject matter is necessary for effective teaching, according to the transmission perspective. Understanding the topic matter or content well is necessary there. The fundamental duties of teachers are to effectively and accurately represent the material (Pratt & Collians, 2006). Effective teaching in an apprenticeship involves introducing students to new behavioral standards and efficient working practices. Effective educators are accomplished doers of the subjects they teach. They are respected for their experience and professional knowledge. The inner workings of a skilled performance are revealed by them over time, and they translate this into language that is relevant and approachable for students (Pratt & Collians, 2006).

Effective education from a developmental perspective must be planned and carried out "from the learner's point of view." According to this viewpoint, good teachers must comprehend how their students reason about the material that has to be learned. The main objective is to aid students in building more sophisticated and complex cognitive structures related to the subject matter (Pratt & Collians, 2006). Effective education from a nurturing perspective believes that long-term, difficult, continuous effort to accomplish comes as much from the heart as it does from the

intellect. This viewpoint holds that people learn more effectively and are motivated when the expectations for success are explicit and balanced emotional and academic support is provided (Pratt & Collians, 2006).

Effective education aims to make meaningful changes to society in social reform perspective. According to this viewpoint, teachers are interested in altering social or professional standards where they help students become aware of the beliefs and ideas that are ingrained in books and standard procedures within their field or profession (Pratt & Collians, 2006). When it comes to children with hearing loss, the nurturing, developmental, and apprenticeship perspectives are all better suited to their learning complexity and needs.

When we talk about the mentioned perspectives, these are inclined to social model of disability. The social model believes that disability is caused by social oppression and prejudices, a reaction of society to impairments that subsequently initiate environmental barriers and attitudinal discrimination and oppression (Beaudry, 2016). It gives opportunity for flexibility towards the needs of all learners and their families (Kattari et al., 2017). Since the medical model of disability talks about cure, normalization and professional control without considering the effective education promotion and its consideration to the CWHI, the effective inclusive education practices thus to be inclined to social model of disability. As we know that social model encourages acceptance and encouraging for all children with disabilities, the perspectives of nurturing, developmental, and apprenticeship are better suited in social model of disability, which is a major concern of this study.

Relationship between Self-Efficacy of the Teachers and Inclusive Education Practices in the Schools

The analysis showed a relatively weak but positive correlation between the self-efficacy of the teachers and roles and responsibilities of educational authority ($r=0.378^{**}$), availability of rights ($r=0.346^{**}$), participation ($r=0.363^{**}$), equality ($r=0.334^{**}$) and inclusiveness ($r=0.263^{*}$). However, the analysis also showed a relatively moderate and positive correlation between the self-efficacy of the teachers and important knowledge ($r=0.437^{**}$) and the learning environment ($r=0.463^{**}$) in the schools. The correlations between the variables were highly significant. This result suggests that teachers who have good self-efficacy can contribute effectively to enriching the inclusive education practices in the schools.

The study explored the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. Out of seven themes in the inclusive education practices, the moderate and positive correlation with a high significance level is found in two themes only, namely important knowledge and learning environment. However, the other five themes are found to be weak, but positive correlations with high significance levels exist. That means the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and important knowledge available in the schools and learning environment is established moderately (Not Strongly) in the schools. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and roles and responsibilities of educational authority, availability of rights, participation, inclusiveness and equality is established but weakly. Different studies have also evidenced that there is a strong relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and the learning environment of the schools. However, previous studies could not go further to figure out whether there is a relationship between self-efficacy and roles and responsibilities of educational authority, self-efficacy and participation; self-efficacy and important knowledge; self-efficacy and availability of rights; self-efficacy and inclusiveness; and self-efficacy and equality.

Contribution of Teachers' Self-Efficacy to the Different Factors/Themes Relating to Inclusive Education Practices in the Schools

When examining the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the different factors/themes relating to inclusive education practices indicated that the contributions of predictors ranged differently. The contribution of low or medium levels of self-efficacy of the teachers was less likely to have a high level of contribution to the factors/themes of inclusive education practices. It means if the teachers have a low or medium level of self-efficacy, there is less chance of contribution to the inclusive education practices in CWHI focus schools in Nepal. The study revealed that in comparison to teachers with a low or medium level of self-efficacy to those of having a high level of self-efficacy are 0.333 times less likely to have a high level of roles and responsibilities of educational authority on CWHI, 0.652 times less likely to have a high level of important knowledge; 0.150 times less likely to have a high level of availability of rights; 0.610 times less likely to have a high level of participation; 0.368 times less likely to have a high level of the learning environment; 0.435 times less likely to have a high level of equality; and 1.333 times less likely to have a high level of inclusiveness in the schools. The total contribution

of self-efficacy seemed high in the theme “availability of rights (12.9%)” and “roles and responsibilities of educational authority (4.4%)” and “learning environment (3.4%)” of inclusive education practices than others (Important knowledge (0.7%), participation (0.9%), equality (2.6%) and inclusiveness (0.3%)). It means if teachers’ self-efficacy can be enriched, it will contribute highly to the the availability of rights of the schools ensuring roles and responsibilities of educational authorities and learning environment of the schools.

Previously, it was revealed the relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and other factors/themes of inclusive education practices. Out of the available themes, a moderate relationship was seen between the learning environment and important knowledge. The relationship with other themes was found to be weak but positive and significant.

Since we found out that the relationship with the learning environment was moderate in correlation, the contribution of teachers’ self-efficacy to the learning environment was also found to be somehow higher here. It is found that if teachers’ self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the learning environment are less likely to be a minimum percentage, but the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is found to be high. Similarly, the contribution of teachers’ self-efficacy to the availability of rights was also found to be higher than others. It was found that if teachers’ self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributors to the availability of rights are less likely to be a minimum percentage, but the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is found higher than all other factors.

The study revealed that the contribution of teachers’ self-efficacy to inclusiveness, participation, equality and important knowledge was very low compared to other factors. It was found that if teachers’ self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contributions to inclusiveness, participation, equality and important knowledge are less likely to a maximum percentage (133.3, 61, 43.5 and 65.2), respectively. The total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is found very low than the other in these factors. The meaning of these findings is that teachers’ self-efficacy has a minimum level of contribution to inclusiveness, participation, equality and important knowledge in the CWHI-focused schools than other factors/themes.

The study contributed to exploring the contribution of teachers’ self-efficacy to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices. In general, it is found that self-efficacy is the strongest contributor to upgrade inclusive education practices in

the CWHI-focused schools in Nepal though the contribution to different factors differs. The study found that the contribution of self-efficacy to the availability of rights in the schools, roles and responsibilities of educational authority and learning environment seems high. That means if teachers' self-efficacy is high, the chances of contribution to ensure the availability of rights in the schools and enriching learning environment and ensuring roles and responsibilities of educational authorities for CWHI students is possible significantly. So, it can be concluded that it is better to ensure teachers' self-efficacy to enrich the quality of CWHI schools to ensure the availability of rights, a learning environment and roles and responsibilities of educational authorities.

Discussion

Different studies have indicated that teachers' self-efficacy, including knowledge and attitude, are the essential features to ensure inclusive education practices in schools, which has also been indicated in the theoretical framework of this study. It has here been proved also that self-efficacy will contribute to ensuring effective inclusive education practices in schools, which has been justified and proved by different previous research studies carried out in different parts of the world.

In terms of relationship, Basereh and Pishkar (2016) pointed out that among advanced students there was a significant positive association between self-efficacy and learning. Mirzawati, et al. (2020) found a positive and significant association between self-efficacy and the learning environment, as well as self-directed learning among students. According to the study's findings, the stronger one's self-efficacy, the better one's learning environment, and vice versa.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) looked at the relationship between teachers' perception of efficacy and school environment, which they defined as having six dimensions: institutional integrities, principle influences, consideration, resource support, moral, and academic emphasis. Their specific purpose is to investigate teachers' views of school climate aspects and link these perceptions to their feeling of personal and general teaching efficacy. They believe that the school environment, which includes institutional integrities, academic emphasis, resource support, and principal influences, influences both general and personal teaching efficacy. It has been suggested that efficacy beliefs influence instructors' decisions about classroom practices, which influences students' accomplishments (Rowan et al., 1997). Self-efficacy (perceptions of skills for pre-determined levels of learning and

performances) is a crucial component impacting both motivation and engagement, according to Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory. People's judgments of their capacities to organize and execute courses of action are required to achieve designated types of performances (Bandura, 1986).

Increased motivation to pursue goals and comfort coping with unpleasant conditions are both predicted by high self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). It is obvious that the perceived effectiveness of a teacher's instruction and students' academic progress is related (Woolfolk, 2007). The performance of instructors is correlated with changes in teaching-efficacy beliefs (Woolfolk, 2007). High-performing teachers employ a variety of behavior control tactics, engage in more practical activities, and adhere to effective teaching and learning techniques (Woolfolk et al., 1990; Guskey, 1988).

They take greater initiative to address the educational requirements of all kids and establish higher standards for both themselves and their pupils (Mergler & Tangen, 2010). Additionally, teachers with high teaching efficacy typically exhibit behavioral traits including exerting effort, making decisions, remaining patient in trying circumstances and enhancing students' motivation, which contributes to their students' good accomplishments (Paneque & Barbetta, 2006).

Educators who believe they are teaching in a supportive environment have a higher sense of teaching efficacy (Sharma & George, 2016). Collins (1982), Bouffard-Bouchard (1990), and Bouffard-Bouchard et al. (1991) all show that self-efficacy has an independent impact on learning outcomes. Another study found that teachers with high self-efficacy were more open to learning and implementing new educational strategies that could help provide a successful inclusive environment for students with autism (Morrison et al., 1994).

Other research found that school climate/environment, which includes school resources, support and cooperation in teaching, student behavior, and autonomy, increased teacher self-efficacy in inclusion schools in Ireland (Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2015). Jamaiah (2008) also explained that the learning environment influences student achievement, satisfaction, and success in learning. McFarland (2012) emphasizes that a positive learning environment is when students feel that they are supported and valued in whatever students do so that learning can easily occur. Also, all students with exceptional personal challenges can study very well if students get full support and motivation. This emphasizes that creating a positive learning environment can stimulate student learning (McFarland, 2012). Through all these discussions, we can

easily figure out the positive relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and the learning-environment as revealed by this study.

Through this study, a positive relationship was established between self-efficacy and the knowledge of the teachers. When we discuss teachers' knowledge, it is an obvious influencing factor in the success of students. One of the strongest influences on student reading success is the teacher's knowledge of research-based principles and their effective application (Snow et al., 2005). The linkage of teacher knowledge to the effectiveness of instruction for students has been confirmed for decades. For instance, in the landmark report *Becoming a Nation of Readers: A Report of the Commission of Reading*, it is stated that teacher knowledge and performance account for 15 percent of the variation among children in reading achievement (Anderson et al., 1985). Of all the factors considered possible contributors to student success, teacher knowledge made the biggest difference in student scores. Students' academic growth is affected more by a knowledgeable teacher's instruction than any other single factor, including families, neighborhoods, and the schools that students attend (Rowan et al., 2002; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). The theoretical framework of this study has conceptualized that to deliver effective inclusive education practices as propounded by inclusive education and educational theory, there is a need for teachers' self-efficacy. It means there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and the factors/themes of inclusive education practices propounded by the theory. This study found that out of seven factors of inclusive education practices, self-efficacy has a significant positive and moderate relationship with the learning environment and important knowledge mainly. The relationship with the other five factors of inclusive education was found to be positive but weak.

It is always inclined to provide better education to the children while talking about the learning environment. Since there is a positive relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and the learning environment revealed by this study, there is a need to prioritize teachers' self-efficacy to ensure the learning environment in the school. Bandura (1997) mentioned that high self-efficacy is linked with numerous benefits to daily life, such as resilience to adversity and stress, healthy lifestyle habits, improved employee performance, and educational achievement. Thus, the self-efficacy of the teachers is directly linked to the educational achievements of the students. Educational achievements can be linked to the social cognitive or social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) also. Social learning theory believes that people

learn from other people and add their personal or cognitive factors, the behavior itself, and the environment as combination factors for determining learning and behavior. Bandura broadens the theory by saying that humans aren't just shaped by their environment and inner forces, but they also shape their environment and inner force (Bandura, 1977).

Through these discussions, self-efficacy is an even more crucial area of the social cognitive theory, which is inclined directly to the educational achievements of the students, and it is even more crucial for the students who have disabilities. These educational achievements of the students can be connected to teachers' beliefs too. Teachers' instructional choices and subsequent student performance are influenced by their conceptions of teaching and learning (Bohlmann & Weinstein, 2013). Additionally, it has been discovered that particular types of teaching strategies are encouraged and that student success may be predicted by teacher assumptions about the nature of students' intelligence. According to Dweck (1999) and Hong et al. (1999), teacher attitudes about intelligence essentially fall into two categories: entity (i.e., fixed) mindset and incremental (i.e., changeable) mindset. Further, it has been discovered that teachers' mindsets affect their teaching methods and self-perceptions. Teachers who support an incremental mindset (as opposed to a fixed mindset) are more likely to support students' needs for autonomy, competence, and empathy in the classroom and to encourage students' intrinsic motivation. They also tend to have higher levels of self-efficacy (teachers who believe they can help students overcome challenges in school) (Leroy et al., 2007).

So on the basis of the findings, we can conclude that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices indicated by the theory. The self-efficacy theory i.e is social

Self-efficacy theory developed by Bandura posits that individuals' beliefs about their own capabilities to perform tasks and achieve goals influence their behavior, motivation, and perseverance in the face of challenges. In the context of inclusive education practices, self-efficacy theory suggests that teacher' beliefs in their ability to effectively teach diverse learners, including those with disabilities or special needs, can significantly impact their instructional practices and the outcomes of inclusive education. As of self-efficacy theory, teachers with high self-efficacy in inclusive education are more likely to adapt inclusive practices, persist in the face of challenges, provide effective support and collaborate with others (Bandura, 1997).

Since this study has established a relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices as in line with the self-efficacy theory of Bandura, the theoretical perspective has been substantiated.

However, this study is silent to figure out whether the moderate and weak levels of relationship will be adequate to deliver effective inclusive practices in the schools or not. Through different findings, teachers will have a crucial role whether to ensure the educational achievements of the students. Talking about hearing impairments, the incremental mindset of the teachers is needed to ensure the performance of the students. Since this study has established the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices as other previous studies, we can assure that the conceptual framework of the study is deliberate to ensure a better strategy for inclusiveness in education as assumed by the conceptual framework of this study in the schools.

In supporting to the findings on teachers' self-efficacy and its contribution to inclusive education practices, compared to teachers with lower self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices in the classroom, Sharma et al. (2012) found that teachers with higher self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices are more likely to engage in teaching-learning practices that ensure effective learning of students with additional learning needs. Ahmmed et al. (2012) found that perceived school support for implementing inclusive practices is a strong predictor of teachers' self-efficacy for inclusion in a large sample of in-service primary school teachers in Bangladesh.

According to Ashton and Webb (1986), teachers with high levels of efficacy are more likely to have high expectations of learning and success, while teachers with low levels of effectiveness are more likely to have high expectations of failure. Self-efficacy is related to a person's evaluations of his or her abilities and what can be accomplished, according to Bandura (1997). Self-efficacy beliefs influence behaviors, according to research on efficacy beliefs. Teachers' decisions and classroom instructions are influenced by their efficacy beliefs (Brophy, 1986; Hunt, 1976; Kagan, 1992; Nussbaum, 1992; Rowan et al., 1997). Furthermore, efficacy belief is situation-specific (Bandura, 1997). As a result, teachers' self-efficacy views had a significant impact on their ability to meet the challenges of implementing inclusive practices (Bandura, 1997).

Teachers with high self-efficacy are thought to be more likely than teachers with low self-efficacy to apply educational innovations in the classroom, use

classroom management strategies, and employ appropriate teaching methods (Chacon, 2005; Korevaar, 1990). Through all these study findings, we can say that self-efficacy seems to be the strongest predictor to ensure better inclusive education practices in schools.

The self-efficacy of teachers is also influenced by their knowledge. The mastery of teaching and learning is also influenced by factors related to motivation, attitudes, and skills. In their 2012 model, Blomeke and Delaney identified cognitive skills and affective-motivational traits as the two primary elements of teachers' professional competence. Cognitive ability includes professional knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. The affective and motivational characteristics include motivation, self-regulation, professional beliefs about teaching and learning, and the subject content (Blomeke & Delaney, 2012). As revealed by Hill, Rowan and Ball (2005), Baumert et al. (2010), and Voss, Kunter and Baumert (2011), pedagogical content knowledge has more impact on student achievement than content knowledge. Similarly, higher general pedagogical/psychological knowledge will have an impact on higher cognitive activation, better instructional pacing and better student-teacher relationships. Through this study, it is established that the learning environment and availability of rights in terms of inclusive education practices are more influenced by the level of self-efficacy of the teachers. When we talk about inclusive education practices, it is undoubtedly the constructivism-based inclusive education practices as angled by inclusive education and educational theory.

According to Hulin and Drake (2011), inclusive education requires a constructivist approach to teaching and learning. They mentioned that constructivism rejects the notion that there are instructional strategies, and it acknowledges and respects the comprehensiveness and particularity of learning as contextually constructed. An example of constructivism-based inclusive education practices is active learning (Steele, 2005). Steele suggested that practices such as “teaching students to summarize, paraphrase, predict, and use visual images, helps students with learning disabilities understand and remember” (2005, p. 2). Some practices, such as summarizing, predicting, and using visuals, have also been found to have high to medium effects on students with special needs (Hattie, 2008).

In the constructive inclusive classroom, the belief is that students learn from experience and real-life application. The students will benefit most from following

best practices, as reported by Hattie (2008), such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning.

When we talk about constructivist approach, it is more focused to the social model of disability. The social constructionist epistemology of the model explained disability in terms of social arrangements, and culturally produced norms of the body (Vehmas and Makela, 2009). The social arrangements are related to the factors for ensuring inclusive education practices in the schools. The social model of disability considers all factors when identifying a child having special education needs (SEN). It views all SEN children in a more holistic manner, taking into account any emotional, behavioral, physical or social needs they may have, as opposed to diagnosing a medical condition. All teachers should expect to teach children with special educational needs (SEN) and all schools should play their part in educating children from their local community, whatever their background or ability. The teachers' ability or self-efficacy matters to teach the children in holistic manner as presume by social model of disability.

When we analyze the findings to the theoretical framework of the study, different literatures showed the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. This study contributed to revealing that even though self-efficacy is the strongest predictor to ensure inclusive education practices, the level of contribution of self-efficacy to different factors of inclusive education practices differs. The contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different factors of inclusive education practices will not be the same. Here, the major contribution is seen to the learning environment and availability of rights more than the other factors of inclusive education practices. Thus, through these findings, we can undoubtedly say that if we enrich the self-efficacy of teachers in the schools, that will contribute effectively to enhance the learning environment of the schools and ensure the availability of rights required for inclusive education practices in the schools. This phenomenon has been further established by this study as proven by previous literatures.

This study is guided by the theory of inclusive education and educational (democratic theory) where seven thematic areas of the theory contribute to ensure effective inclusive practices. Besides, the theory of self-efficacy and theory of planned behavior also contribute to ensure effective inclusive education practices. From quantitative aspects, the theorization of the study is objectivity and quantifiable analysis where the role of self-efficacy and inclusive education practices in schools is

established as assured by the theory. Here, the findings are matched with the theorization aspects that there is role of self-efficacy to enhance the learning environment in the schools. In terms of learning environment Baron and Byrne (2004) asserted that self-efficacy has a key impact on learning activity. They further revealed that self-efficacy is critical for completing the school's tasks and responsibilities successfully. Similarly, Whalen (2009) found that understanding and addressing teacher self-efficacy is a critical component for integrating students with autism into general education classrooms. Another study concluded that to conduct effective inclusive education practices, a system to increase teacher and professional efficacy is needed (Ahsan & Malak, 2020). A recent study on the ' impact of teachers' self-efficacy on learning outcomes' concluded that self-efficacy is the main predictor of English language learning outcomes in blended learning courses during the pandemic. Additionally, the role of self-efficacy played a more effective role in improving English language learning outcomes (Chen et al., 2022).

This, we can say that a strong sense of self-efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. As indicated by these studies, the self-efficacy of teachers not only contributes to the learning environment of schools but also contributes to ensuring educational rights in schools. It is considered as an accurate predictor of performance and an important cognitive skill that ensures success in the life of the students.

With all these findings above, it can be concluded that teachers with high self-efficacy will contribute effectively to enhance educational practices in the schools basically to the learning environment and availability of rights of the CWHI-focused schools.

CHAPTER VI

RECAPITULATION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Recapitulation

This study aimed to find the perceptions of school teachers towards CWHI (special, integrated and resource class schools) focused inclusive education in terms of the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude along with the level of inclusive education thematic areas. Similarly, it aimed at examining the relationship between the teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices and finding out the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different factors/themes of inclusive education practices. The study was based on inclusive education and educational theory. The perceptions of teachers toward CWHI-focused inclusive education as the major determinant in special, integrated and resource class schools where the CWHI students study was ascertained by a number of literatures. As the main focus of inclusive education for CWHI, the level of perceptions of teachers in terms of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, including the level of inclusive education themes (successful implementation of CWHI-focused inclusive education) in terms of roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important knowledge, availability of rights, participation, learning environment, equality, and inclusiveness in schools were mainstreamed from the post-positivist world view of quantitative approach with the description of the situation and assessing the relations between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices along with the contribution of self-efficacy to different factors of inclusive education practices. Thus, this study was related to the natural model of objective reality. The study was focused on getting the perceptions of teachers toward CWHI and the implementation of CWHI-focused inclusive education in the schools. The major respondents were the teachers teaching to CWHI in the sampled 20 district's schools representing all provinces of Nepal.

This study was intended to find out the answers to four major research questions. The first question was to find the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education in CWHI-focused inclusive education in the schools. The second question was to find the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude toward inclusive education according to age, gender, education, experience, disability types and school categories of the teachers. The third

question was to explore the relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and inclusive education practices in schools. The fourth question was to predict the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the different factors/themes relating to inclusive education practices in schools.

The major seven themes/factors with their 61 statements were devised to find out the level of inclusive education in the schools in terms of the implementation status of the CWHI-focused inclusive education in the schools. Similarly, the study explored the level of perceptions of teachers toward CWHI-focused inclusive education in terms of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude with their 22 statements.

The relational and significant level of teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, separately from the factors/themes of inclusive education were further investigated. Further, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to different themes of inclusive education was predicted. Among the demographic variables, the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude were checked according to age, gender, education, experience, disability types and school categories were also revealed out in the study.

Using the quantitative approach, considering single reality as an ontological base and epistemologically considering that perceptions can be measured objectively, I adopted survey research using a structured questionnaire (with Cronbach alpha value 0.852 for inclusive education practices in terms of successful implementation of CWHI-focused inclusive education and 0.764 for perception towards CWHI focused inclusive education) in special, resource class schools and integrated schools of seven provinces of 20 districts. There were three bases (Up to 10+2 school, Up to Basic level, and Kathmandu Valley) for the selection of schools. The schools were selected where the children with hearing impairments study from ECD to 10+2, from ECD to Basic, and Kathmandu Valley-based schools. The major purpose of determining the category was to have the response from the maximum no. of teachers who teach to the CWHI. Disabled Focus Inclusive Education Simplifier Book, 2018, published by Education and Human Resource Development Center, served as the base for this study from where the categorical schools were visited. Out of 290 teachers in selected schools, the largest percentage of responses were tried to collect through sample size determination formula. It was tried to collect the responses from all (100%) teachers available in the schools, but the responses were collected from the respondents who

were present on the particular date of the survey. Thus, the total number, i.e., the population of teachers in selected schools was 290, from which a total of 182 responses were collected through sampling. For checking the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, the special schools' responses were removed. The data were collected, maintaining a higher level of ethical issues. Using the software assistance of the SPSS 20 version, the data were analyzed and interpreted when and where necessary. Descriptive analysis was used for analyzing the collected data. Further, correlation and binary logistic regression statistical tools were used to check the relationship and predict the contribution of the predictor.

Through these analyses, the perceptions of teachers considering the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education in Nepal are found to be high in most cases. However, there are some cases/statements in which the level of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education is found to be minimum. By gender, the efficacy is found to be high with females. By education, it is found to be high among SLC graduates. By experience, the moderate years of experience seem high. By disability types, a teacher with a physical disability is found to have high self-efficacy in teaching the students. By school categories, it is found to be high with the teachers of the resource classes. Further, the self-efficacy of teachers seems more consistent on their level with the special schools than the other categories of schools but the self-efficacy appears to be high in resource classes.

Teachers have accepted that with their limited knowledge, it will be hard for them to teach properly and adequately in schools. Teachers' negative level can be possible when there is an issue of inclusion of such students with other students in the schools. The environment for the participation of teachers, parents and students is found to be minimum in the schools, as perceived by the teachers. When analyzing the level of inclusive education thematically, most of the statements' levels are found to be high. However, there are some statements in the themes where the minimum levels are traced as perceived by the teachers.

Out of seven themes in the inclusive education, the moderate and positive correlation with a high significance level is found in two themes only, namely important knowledge and learning environments. However, the other five themes are found to be weak, but positive correlations with high significance levels exist.

Further, it is found that if teachers' self-efficacy is low/medium, the chances of contribution to the availability of rights are less likely to be a minimum percentage, but the total contribution of the predictor (self-efficacy) is found to be high (12.9%). Similarly, the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to the roles and responsibilities of educational authority was also found to be higher (4.4%) than others.

Limitations of the Study

There will always be certain limitations of any study. This study is specifically based and designed on the idea of inclusive education and educational theory only. However, it has tried to provide arguments from the angle of self-efficacy theory and TPB in the discussion section minutely. When we talk about teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude, the self-efficacy theory and TPB could be directly used as other researchers have used so far. This might be a different angle of this study in that it has used the theoretical base of inclusive education and educational theory, which have rarely been used by any previous studies. However, it can be accepted as a limitation of the study that it is more focused on the parameter determined by inclusive education and educational theory with its thematic seven areas, and conclusions have been drawn from the same theoretical base mainly. Even though the study was designed from the angle of inclusive education and educational theory, other theories' linkage to inclusive education practices is also discussed by this study in the discussion section of each chapter. Thus, it is a claim that this study has also shed light on the inclination of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude to the inclusive education practices in the schools as postured by the theory of self-efficacy and TPB. Another limitation of the study is that the study could not deal with the students' perspectives toward inclusive education practices directly. However, students' perspectives towards inclusive education were slightly incorporated in the discussion section. Furthermore, this study explores teachers' perceptions of inclusive education, encompassing various themes of inclusive education and self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude. It investigates the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices. To gauge perceptions in terms of level, a sample size of 182 was drawn from special schools, integrated schools, and resource classes catering to children with hearing impairments. Notably, responses from special schools were omitted from the analysis to ensure accuracy in assessing the relationship between self-efficacy of teachers and inclusive education practices. This consideration might be seen from the angle of limitation of the study. The study

analyzed the data both with and without responses from special schools when using binary logistic regression analysis. However, the discussion and conclusion focused mainly on the analysis without special schools' responses to accurately assess the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy to inclusive education practices. This approach, while ensuring accuracy, can be seen as a limitation of the study.

Conclusion

The study reveals that the levels of self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude among teachers in CWHI-focused schools in Nepal exhibit notable inconsistencies, posing some challenges to the effective implementation of inclusive education practices. These discrepancies may hinder the ability of educators to adequately support students with hearing impairments and may contribute to disparities in educational outcomes. Consequently, there is a pressing need for targeted interventions aimed at enhancing the consistency and adequacy of teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, and attitude towards inclusive education.

The study identifies a concerning trend wherein teachers exhibit lower levels of self-efficacy in delivering effective inclusive education practices, primarily due to their minimal confidence levels in teaching students using the existing processes available in schools. This lack of confidence may stem from various factors, such as limited training in inclusive education strategies, inadequate resources, or insufficient support systems. Addressing this issue is paramount to ensuring the successful implementation of inclusive education initiatives. The study highlights a critical realization among teachers that they require additional knowledge to effectively teach students in schools, particularly in the context of inclusive education. The identified knowledge gaps emerge as a significant constraint hindering the successful implementation of inclusive practices in schools. Addressing these knowledge gaps is imperative to foster more effective and inclusive educational environments.

Further, the study identifies a concerning association between teachers' negative attitudes and the inclusion of students with other students in the school environment. This suggests that the presence of inclusive practices may exacerbate negative attitudes among teachers, potentially hindering the effective implementation of inclusive education initiatives. Addressing teachers' negative attitudes towards inclusion is crucial to fostering a supportive and inclusive school environment. The study highlights concerning disparities in the levels of several key themes in inclusive education, including the roles and responsibilities of educational authority, important

knowledge, participation, inclusiveness, and learning environment. Addressing these shortcomings is crucial to fostering a more inclusive and supportive educational environment for all students. Without utmost levels on these themes as prescribed by the theory, effective inclusive education practices in CWHI schools can be said challenging in Nepal.

The identification of problematic areas related to quality, accessibility, and availability underscores the challenges faced in achieving effective inclusive education in CWHI-focused schools. These challenges may include inadequate resources, limited access to specialized support services, and barriers to participation and engagement for students with hearing impairments. The significance of these challenges lies in their direct impact on the application of a human rights-based approach to education, aligning with Sustainable Development Goal's target no. 4.5, which emphasizes participation. These hurdles directly undermine the fundamental principles of effective inclusive education practices in Nepalese schools. Without strategic interventions from stakeholders, the attainment of quality education and inclusive practices for children with hearing impairments in Nepal remains daunting.

The study establishes a meaningful relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and inclusive education practices, drawing from inclusive education and educational theory. The identified positive correlation, albeit moderate and weak according to theoretical deliberations, underscores the significance of teachers' confidence and belief in their ability to effectively implement inclusive practices in the classroom. Recognizing and nurturing teachers' self-efficacy is essential for promoting a culture of inclusivity and equity in education. This highlights the importance of integrating theoretical insights into practical strategies to promote inclusive education and enhance educational outcomes for all students. The study establishes self-efficacy as a significant predictor of contributing effectively to the availability of rights, roles and responsibilities of educational authorities, and the learning environment in schools. This underscores the pivotal role of teachers' belief in their ability to positively influence various aspects of the educational environment.

The success of inclusive education hinges on the unwavering commitment of educators across all levels of the system to translate its core principles into action. This necessitates the cultivation of an inclusive culture within educational institutions, where there exists a shared understanding and commitment to values of diversity and equal access to learning opportunities for every student, as emphasized by Ainscow &

Miles (2008). Moreover, the Convention on the Rights of Disabled Persons (United Nations, 2006) underscores the global commitment to inclusive education by recognizing the right of individuals with disabilities to education devoid of discrimination, ensuring equal opportunities for all. By aligning educator dedication with legal mandates, inclusive education can truly become a transformative force, empowering every student to thrive in an equitable and supportive learning environment.

This study has identified several challenging areas within the framework of inclusive education, shedding light on critical issues that demand attention. It reveals the formidable task of implementing a human rights-based approach to education, particularly concerning quality, availability, and accessibility, especially for Children with Hearing Impairments (CWHI). Furthermore, the study underscores the difficulty in realizing Sustainable Development Goal's target 4.5, which focuses on participation and fostering conducive learning environments. Moreover, the study highlights shortcomings in aligning educational practices with the overarching ideals of effective inclusive education for CWHI in Nepalese schools.

Additionally, the study brings to light concerns regarding the availability of alternative and appropriate technology/devices, beyond just sign language, as outlined in the Education Policy of 2019 of Nepal. This finding underscores the need to address systemic issues that hinder the provision of quality education for children with disabilities. By illuminating these problematic areas, the study provides valuable insights that can inform targeted interventions and policy reforms aimed at fostering more inclusive and equitable educational practices for all children, particularly those with hearing impairments, in Nepal's educational landscape. Viewed through the lens of inclusive education's transformative potential, these challenges can be effectively mitigated. By embracing the transformative essence of inclusive education, Nepal's educational framework can aspire to a central goal: providing every child with enhanced learning opportunities of exemplary quality.

As per the study's findings, prioritizing and bolstering teachers' self-efficacy emerges as a critical factor in fostering a conducive learning atmosphere. This entails ensuring the availability of rights and upholding the roles and responsibilities of educational authorities within classrooms, regardless of whether they adhere to integration or segregation models of inclusive education. By doing so, we can move closer to realizing the visionary concept of inclusive education.

Interestingly, the study notes that teachers' self-efficacy remains consistently high within special education settings, even in instances of segregation models being employed, suggesting some degree of effectiveness. However, it's noteworthy that the integration model, particularly in resource classes, exhibits significantly higher levels of teacher self-efficacy. Therefore, it's imperative to prioritize and bolster teachers' self-efficacy across both models of inclusive education for children with disabilities in Nepal.

Addressing these challenging areas is paramount to ensuring that children with hearing impairments and other disabilities in Nepal receive quality education. By acknowledging and addressing these factors, we can take meaningful steps towards creating more inclusive and equitable educational environments that cater to the diverse needs of all students.

New Knowledge Contribution

The study contributes novel insights by establishing the relationship between self-efficacy and inclusive education practices within the Nepali context. It is noteworthy that this investigation, conducted through the lens of inclusive education and educational theory, marks the first of its kind in Nepal and is a rarity within Asian countries. This distinction underscores the significance of the study's primary claim. Further, high self-efficacy will contribute effectively to enhance educational practices in the schools basically to the availability of rights, roles and responsibilities and learning environment of the CWHI-focused schools. Thus, if the schools will be made sensitive to the fact that how to improve the learning environment, availability of rights and roles and responsibilities of educational authorities in the schools, that will be highly supportive to ensure effectively inclusive education practices in the schools.

One of the research gaps gathered by this study was that there were limited studies on children with hearing impairments with objective analysis in Nepal. This study has put an effort to trail a way for a new discourse on children with hearing impairments and their problematic areas considering the existing inclusive education practices in the schools from the self-perceived ideas of teachers teaching with the students. Besides, perceptions used to be dealt in the continuum of subjective analysis. However, through this study, the objective basis for evaluating teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude along with inclusive education practices made possible with the theoretical backup used by this study.

Through this study, another level of discourse could be possible in terms of “inclusion in special education” as proposed by The University of Arizona (2021). As of the practice of Nepal on both segregation and integration models of inclusive education (Regmi, 2017) along with available inclusivity within the same group of CWHI and others, assured by WHO (2021) and Norwich (2013), the possible inclusivity in special education setting is another knowledge contribution created by this study.

The findings suggested and discussed by this study will definitely create an atmosphere for ensuring better rights to education for children with hearing impairments along with other children with disabilities in Nepal.

Implications

This research has established that teachers' self-efficacy is the main predictor to ensure the availability of rights, roles and responsibilities of educational authorities and a learning environment in the schools, which is the crux of the study. This study has also proved that self-efficacy will contribute moderately to the learning environment of the schools and important knowledge in the schools. Thus, if there are programs and approaches for teachers' self-efficacy along with knowledge and attitude that will contribute effectively to improve the quality of CWHI-focused inclusive education in the schools.

The study also indicated some concerning areas where the study implications can be directed basically to the policy and school authority levels to ensure effective inclusive practices in the schools. Based on the findings, this research has opened the door for the educational authority, teachers, parents in schools, future researchers, policymakers and concerned ones to make further investigations and actions for the education of the students.

Policy Implications

It is found that the moderate age, females, minimum academic qualifications, moderate years of experience (even fresher), and physically disabled teachers have a high level of self-efficacy, knowledge and attitude than others to ensure effective inclusive education scenario. If the policy as such encourages such teachers to teach the students by providing them with different training and exposure opportunities, the students will be benefited more in the schools.

High self-efficacious teachers are found in the resource classes, and high consistency in teaching is found in special schools. If there is a provision of more than

one resource class teacher in the schools and special schools as per the need of the areas, that will eventually contribute to encouraging the learning environment in the schools.

The teachers have accepted that with their limited knowledge of inclusive education, it will be very hard for them to teach properly and adequately in the inclusive settings of schools. Even they have agreed that their negative attitude can be possible when there is an issue of inclusion of such students with other general students in the schools. When we talk about CWHI, the inclusivity is obvious within the same group (Regmi, 2017; Norwich, 2013 & Jairaj, 2020). As of the definition of WHO (2021) also, the CWHI can be distinguished from mild to severe to profound. It was found that all CWHI in Nepal are either segregated in special education setting or integrated with other general students in the school without considering their level of hearing impairments. Thus, the severe and profound level of CWHI can only be segregated in special education setting and the mild-moderate level of CWHI can be integrated with general students by providing them hearing aid. Such provision will be more supportive for the education of CWHI in Nepal.

For hard of hearing students, there is a need for hearing aid and other devices in teaching to ease their learning process, but the availability of such hearing aid and other devices in the concerned area seems problematic in the schools. If there is a policy to maintain such devices obligatory in schools, the entire hard of hearing (mild to moderate) children will be benefited. It is found that school provides a less equitable opportunity to the students for being portfolios and members of child club of the schools. If there is the availability of a reservation policy that CWHI students, along with CWDs, must be the member of child clubs and other structures of children in the schools, that will encourage support for active involvement of CWHI students and CWDs in the schools so that they can feel non-discriminatory.

Implications for School Management Committee (SMC)/Educational Authority

It is found that the existing process of teaching in the schools seems not satisfactory enough even to the teachers. If the teaching-learning approach and process can be improved as per the learning needs of the particular students, that will encourage the teachers to deliver as per the learning needs of the students. The environment for the participation of teachers, parents and students in inclusive education is found to be minimum in the schools. If the school authority can understand the essence of participation of all to gain the result of inclusive education,

that will eventually support to ensure the provisions and plan of action for good learning outcomes for the students.

The CWHI students seem more vulnerable to possible disasters in the schools. The concerned area figured out by the study is less no. of disaster management training for the teachers in the schools. Disaster management training is prioritized in other schools to safeguard the children. If such training can be provided, the vulnerability of the teachers and students can be minimized.

Another concerning area found by the study is less motivation to teachers for online, distance education and study opportunities on CWHI-focused inclusive education. If there is an adequate learning environment for the teachers, it will contribute to a better education for the children.

The concerned area is less free health check-up facilities available to the students in the schools. As education is the right of children, so is health. The health checkup camp can be initiated with the coordination of local government and organizations working for the rights of children. It is found that teachers are receiving less no. of regular professional and practical CWHI focus training to be supportive of inclusive education in the schools. If such professional training can be managed at a local level with the initiative of SMC in coordination with local government, that will boost the confidence of teachers' knowledge and attitude along with the self-efficacy as per the need and policy of inclusive education.

The concerned area is that SMC minimally involves all stakeholders in the decision-making process in the schools. If there is a rule of joint meeting of all teachers every month along with the parents, the core problems of the children's learning can be identified and proceed for joint action to support the learning achievements of the students and eventually effective inclusive education scenario.

Implications for Future Researchers

There are broad areas to do further research on teachers' self-efficacy, knowledge, attitude and inclusive education practices in the future so that children with disabilities can be benefited more from their learning outcomes, which is the major target of our current education policy either. The limitations indicated by the study basically student perceptions toward inclusive education, student attitude, knowledge and the relationship between knowledge and attitude to the self-efficacy of both teachers and students, along with the contribution of the teaching-learning process to ensure inclusive education practices in the schools are the areas of concern

for further researches in coming days. For further research, these could be some of the titles; Students and teachers' perceptions of inclusive education; Teachers' self-efficacy and its relation to knowledge and attitude of teachers; Knowledge and attitude as predictors contribute to ensuring effective inclusive education practices in the schools.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed, M., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. M. (2013). Impact of demographic variables and school support on teacher efficacy in inclusive classrooms in Bangladesh. *The International Journal of Diversity in Education*, 12(2), 1–14.
- Ahmed, M., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. M. (2012). Variables affecting teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Bangladesh. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 12(3), 132–140.
- Ahsan, M., & Malak, M. (2020). *Teaching efficacy and inclusive practices in Asian countries. The oxford encyclopedia of inclusive and special education*. Oxford University Press.
- Ahsan, M. T., & Sharma, U. (2018). Pre-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with high support needs in regular classrooms in Bangladesh. *British Journal of Special Education*, 45(1), 81-97.
- Ahsan, M. T., Deppeler, M. J., & Sharma, U. (2013). Predicting pre-service teachers' preparedness for inclusive education: Bangladeshi pre-service teachers' attitudes and perceived teaching efficacy for inclusive education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 43(4), 517–535.
- Ahsan, M. T., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. M. (2012). Exploring pre-service teachers' perceived teaching-efficacy, attitudes and concerns about inclusive education in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 8(2), 1-20.
- Ainscow, M., & Miles, S. (2012). Making education for all inclusive: Where next? *Prospect: Quarterly Review of Comparative Education*, 38(1), 15–34.
- Ainscow, M. (2005). Understanding the development of inclusive education System. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 3(3).
- Ajzen, I. (2005). *Attitudes, personality and behaviour*. Open University Press.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 179–211.
- Albrecht, G. L. (2002). American pragmatism, sociology and the development of disability studies. In: Barnes, C., Oliver, M. and Barton, L. (Eds). *Disability Studies Today*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

- Alrefaei, N. A. (2015). *Teachers' sense of efficacy: Examining the relationship of teacher efficacy and student achievement* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Arkansas, USA.
- Allday, R.A., Neilsen-Gatti, S., & Hudson, T.M. (2013). Preparation for inclusion in teacher education pre-service curricula. *The Journal of the Teacher Education Division of the Council for Exceptional Children*, 36(4), 298-31.
- Anastasiou, D., & Keller, C. E. (2014). Cross-national differences in special education coverage: An empirical analysis. *Exceptional Children*, 80, 353–367.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0014402914522421>
- Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. F., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson I. A. G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the commission of reading*. The National Institute of Education.
- Arduin, S. (2015). A review of the values that underpin the structure of an education system and its approach to disability and inclusion. *Oxford Review of Education*, 41 (1), 105–121.
- Aryal, S. (2013). *Teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in Nepal* [Doctoral dissertation]. Daegu University.
- Ashton, P., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Teachers' sense of efficacy, classroom behaviour, and student achievement*. In P. Ashton & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*, 125–144.
- Avissar, G. (2000). *Views of general education teachers about inclusion: An international perspective* [Paper presentation]. The ISEC Conference, London.
- Avramidis, E., & Kalyva, E. (2007). The influence of teaching experience and professional development on Greek teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22, 367-89.
- Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: A review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17(2), 129-147.
- Avramidis, E., Bayliss, P., & Burden, R. (2000). A survey into mainstream teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary school in one local education authority. *Educational Psychology*, 20(2), 191-121.
- Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research* (12th ed). Wadsworth Cengage.

- Baglieri, S., & Knopf, J. H. (2004). Normalizing difference in inclusive teaching. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 37*, 525–529.
- Baker, P. (2005). Managing student behavior: How ready are teachers to meet the challenge? *American Secondary Education, 33*(3), 51-64.
- Baker, J. A. (2006). Contributions of teacher-child relationships to positive school adjustment during elementary school. *Journal of School Psychology, 44*(3), 211–229.
- Bamu, B.N., Schauwer, E.D., Verstraete, S., & Hove, G.V. (2017). Inclusive education for students with hearing impairment in the regular secondary schools in the North-West region of Cameroon: Initiatives and challenges. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*.
- Bandura, A., & Locke, E. A. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(1), 87–99.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V.S. Ramachandran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol 4, pp. 71-81). (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.] (1998.). *Encyclopedia of mental health*. Academic Press.
- Bandura, A., & Jourden, F. J. (1991). Self-regulatory mechanisms governing the impact of social comparison on complex decision-making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*, 941-951.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Banks, L. M., Zuurmond, M., Monteath–Van Dok, A., Gallinetti, J., & Singal, N. (2019). Perspectives of children with disabilities and their guardians on factors affecting inclusion in education in rural Nepal: "I feel sad that I can't go to school." *Oxford Development Studies, 47*(3), 289-303.
- Baral, R. (2018). Historical policy review on disability. *Research Nepal Journal of Development Studies, 1*(1), 73-82. <https://doi.org/10.3126/rnjds.v1i1.21276>
- Barnes, C., Mercer, G., & Shakespeare, T. (2010). The social model of disability. In A. Giddens & P. Sutton (Eds.), *Sociology: Introductory readings*, (3rd ed., 161–166). Polity Press.
- Barnes, C. (1991). *People with disabilities in Britain and Discrimination: A case for anti-discrimination legislation*. Hurst/Calgary.

- Baron, R. S., & Byrne. (2004). *Social psychology*. Erlangga.
- Barton, L. (1997). Inclusive education: romantic, subversive or realistic? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1, 231-242.
- Basereh, N., & Pishkar, K. (2016). Self-directed learning and self-efficacy belief among Iranian EFL learners at the advanced level of language proficiency. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*.
- Basnet, S., & Banskota, M. (2010). Inclusive education for transhumance groups in Himalayas: Educational policy challenge for Nepal. *Journal of Education and Research*, 2(1), 26-29.
- Baumert, J., Kunter, M., Blum, W., Brunner, M., Voss, T., Jordan, A., Klusmann, U., et al. (2010). Teachers' mathematical knowledge, cognitive activation in the classroom, and student progress. *American Education Research Journal*, 47(1), 133-180.
- Beaudry, J. (2016). Beyond (models of) disability? *Journal of Medicine & Philosophy*, 41(2), 210-228.
- Bell, D. (2013). *Investing teaching and learning support for students with hearing impairment at a university in the Western Cape* [Doctoral dissertation], Stellenbosch University.
- Bell, S. (1996). *Learning with information systems: Learning cycles in information systems development*. Routledge.
- Berlach, R. G. & Chambers, D. J. (2011). Inclusivity imperatives and Australian national curriculum. *The Education Forum*, 75, 52-65.
- Bernstein, D.A. (2010). *Essentials of psychology*. Cengage Learning.
- Blomeke, S. & Delaney, S. (2012). Assessment of teacher knowledge across countries: A review of the state of research. *ZDM Mathematics Education*, 44, 223-247.
- Bohlmann, N. L., & Weinstein, R. S. (2013). Classroom context, teacher expectations, and cognitive level: Predicting children's math ability judgments. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 34, 288-298.
- Bouffard-Bouchard, T., Parent, S., & Larivée, S. (1991). Influence of self-efficacy on self-regulation and performance among junior and senior high-school aged students. *International Journal of Behavior Development*, 14, 153-164.
- Bouffard-Bouchard, T. (1990). Influence of self-efficacy on performance in a cognitive task. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 130, 353-363.

- Briggs, J. D., Johnson, W. E., Shepherd, D. L., & Sedbrook, S. R. (2002). Teacher attitudes and attributes concerning disabilities. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*, 6(2), 85-89.
- Brockett, R.G., & Hiemstra, R. (1991). *Self-direction in adult learning: Perspectives on theory, research, and practice*. Routledge.
- Brookfield, S. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. Jossey-Bass.
- Brophy, J. (1986). Teacher influences on student achievement. *American Psychologist*, 41(10), 1069-1077.
- Burkett, J. A. (2013). *Teacher perception on differentiated instruction and its influence on instructional practice*. [Doctoral Thesis]. Oklahoma State University.
- Carr, L. T. (1994). The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research: What method for nursing? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 20(4), 716-721.
- Carroll, A., Forlin, C., & Jobling, A. (2003). The impact of teacher training in special education on the attitudes of Australian preservice general educators towards people with disabilities. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 30, 65–79.
- Center for Education and Human Resource Development (CEHRD). (2023). *Flash report (2022-23)*. Author.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). (2011). *Nepal living standards survey 2010/11*. Government of Nepal.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). (2022). *National population census report-2022*. Government of Nepal.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). (2012). *National population census report-2022*. Government of Nepal.
- CERID. (2006). *Situation of inclusive classrooms in Nepal: Education for all (2004 09), Formative Research Project, Study Report 10*. Author.
- Chacon, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teacher in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 257–272. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.01.001>
- Chao, C. N. G., Forlin, C., & Ho, F. C. (2016). Improving teaching self-efficacy for teachers in inclusive classrooms in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20(11), 1142-1154.

- Charema, J. (2010). Inclusion of primary school children with hearing impairments in Zimbabwe. *Africa Education Review*, 7(1).
<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/18146627.2010.485810>
- Chauhan, Neelan. (2018). Inclusive education: Need of the day. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention (IJHSSI)*, 07 (10), 24-32.
- Chen R, Iqbal J., Liu Y, Zhu M., & Xie Y. (2022). Impact of self-concept, self-imagination, and self-efficacy on English language learning outcomes among blended learning students during COVID-19. *Front. Psychol.* 13.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.784444>.
- Clough, P., & Corbett, J. (2000). *Theories of inclusive education*. Sage.
- Collins, J.L. (1982). *Self-efficacy and ability in achievement behavior* [Paper presentation]. The annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.
- Cologon, K. (2016). "What is disability? It depends whose shoes you are wearing": parent understandings of the concept of disability. *Disability Studies Quarterly*, 36(1), 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.18061/dsq.v36i1.4448>.
- Cologon, K. (2013). *Inclusion in education: Towards equality for students with disability*. Australia, Institute of Early Childhood: Macquarie University.
- Constitution of Nepal*, 2015. Nepal Government.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V.P. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage.
- Crotty, M. (2003). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspectives in the research process*. Sage.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.
- Cupples, L. (2014). Predictors of early reading skill in 5-year-old children with hearing loss who use spoken language. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 49(1), 85–104. Macquarie University, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia.
- Cushman P., & Cowan, J. (2010). Enhancing student self-worth in the primary school learning environment: Teachers' views and students' views. *Pastoral Care in*

- Education*, 28, 81–95.
- Daniels, H. & Garner, P. (1999). *Inclusive education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Daulay, D.A, & Rahmawati, A. (2016). Social adjustment of adolescents with hearing impairment. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR)*, 81.
- Dawadi, D. (2019). *Inclusion of children living with disability in early childhood education and development programs in Nepal: Construction of a stakeholder informed framework* [Doctoral dissertation]. Flinders University, Adelaide, South Australia.
- Dembo M. H., & Gibson S. (1985). Teachers' sense of efficacy: An important factor in school improvement. *The Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 173-184.
- Department of Education (DoE). (2016). *Inclusive education policy for person with disability, 2016*. Author.
- Department of Education (DoE). (2015). *Inclusive education in Nepal*. Inclusive Education Division.
- Department of Education (DoE). (2015). *Flash report I (2015-16)*. Author.
- Department of Education (DoE). (2014). *Analyzing educational status of children with disability and identifying critical intervention to promote their enrollment, retention and success in schools*. Dynamic Institute of Research and Development.
- Department of Education (DoE). (2011). *Samahit sikshya suchana samagri (In Nepali)*. Bhaktapur, Nepal.
- Disability Resource Center. (2016). *Disability atlas of Nepal*. School of Arts, Kathmandu University.
- Dweck, C. S. (1999). *Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality and development*. Philadelphia, PA: Taylor & Francis/Psychology Press.
- Dyson, A. (1999). Inclusion and inclusions: Theories and discourses in inclusive education. In H. Daniels & P. Garner (Eds.), *World Year Book of Education 1999: Inclusive Education*, 36-53. Kogan.
- Eads, A. (2022). *Extraneous variables: Examples, types and controls*. Indeed. <https://www.indeed.com/career-advice/career-development/extraneous-variable>
- Education and Human Resource Development Center. (2018). *Disabled focus inclusive education simplifier book*. Government of Nepal.

- Edwards, J. L., Green, K. E., & Lyons C.A. (1991). *Teacher efficacy and school and teacher characteristics* [Paper presentation]. The annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.
- Engelbrecht, P. (1999). *A theoretical framework for inclusive education*. In P. Engelbrecht, L., Green, S. Naicker & L. Engelbrecht (Eds.), *Inclusive Education in Action in South Africa*, 3-11. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Everington, C., Stevens, B., & Winters, V. R. (1999). Teachers' attitudes, felt competence, and need of support for implementation of inclusive educational programs. *Psychological Reports*, 85, 331-338.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2466/PR0.85.5.331-338>
- Ewing, D.L., Monsen, J.J., & Kielblock, S. (2018). Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: a critical review of published questionnaires. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 34 (2), 150-165.
- Ferguson, D. (2008). International trends in inclusive education: The continuing challenge to teach one and everyone. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 23 (2), 109–120.
- Fiala-Butora, Janos. (2019). *Financing Inclusive Education Lessons from Developing Countries*. European University Institute.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316392881.010>
- Finkelstein, V. (1980). *Attitudes and people with disabilities: Issues for discussion*. New York: World Rehabilitation Fund.
- Forlin, C., & D. Chambers. (2011). Teacher Preparation for Inclusive Education: Increasing Knowledge but Raising Concerns. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education* 39 (1), 17–32.
- Forlin, C., Cedillo, I. G., & Romero-Contreras, S. (2010). Inclusion in Mexico: Ensuring supportive attitudes by newly graduate teachers. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14 (7), 723-739.
- Forlin, C., Loreman, T., Sharma, U., & Earle, C. (2009). Demographic differences in changing pre-service teachers' attitudes, sentiments, and concerns about inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 13, 195–209.
- Franco, J. (2021). *Research ethics in quantitative research*. The LibreTexts libraries. The UC Davis Library, the California State University.
- Gallagher, D., Connor, D., & Ferri, B. (2014). Beyond the far too incessant schism:

- Special education and the social model of disability. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(11), 1120-1142. doi:10.1080/13603116.2013.875599
- Giangreco, M. F., Dennis, R., Cloninger, C., Edelman, S., & Schattman, R. (1993). I've counted on Jon: Transformational experiences of teachers educating students with disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 59(4), 359-372.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The theory of structuration, the constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Oxford Polity Press.
<https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/abs/10.1086/228358?journalCode=ajs>
- Goodley, D. & Runswick, C. K. (2011). Problematizing policy: Conceptions of child disabled and parents in social policy in England. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15 (1), 71-85.
- Government of Nepal. (2017). *The act relating to rights of persons with disabilities, 2074 (2017)*. Nepal Law Commission.
- Government of Nepal. (2013). *Accessible physical structure and communication service directive for people with disabilities, 2013*.
- Government of Nepal. (2008). *Disability identification card distribution guidelines 2008*.
- Government of Nepal. (1994). *The protection and welfare of the disabled persons rules 2051 (1994)*.
- Government of Nepal. (1982). *Protection and welfare of the disabled persons act, 2039 (1982)*.
- Government of Nepal. (1971). *Education act 1971*.
- Graham, L. J., & Jahnukainen. M. (2011). Wherefore are thou, inclusion? Analysing the development of inclusive education in new South Wales, Alberta and Finland. *Journal of Education Policy* 26 (2), 263–288.
- Gregory, S., Deanna., & Karlen, B. (2018). *Logistic and linear regression assumptions: Violation recognition and control*.
- Guardino, C. (2015). Evaluating teachers' preparedness to work with students who are deaf and hard of hearing with disabilities. *American Annals of the Deaf*, 160(4), 415-426.
- Guba, E.G., Lincoln, Y.S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Sage.
- Guskey, T. R. (1988). *Improving student learning in college classrooms*. Charles C. Thomas Publishers.

- Hadjikakou, K., & Mnasonos, M. (2012). Investigating the attitudes of head teachers of Cypriot primary schools towards inclusion. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 12*(2). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-3802.2010.01195>
- Haegele, J., & Hodge, S. (2016). Disability discourse: Overview and critiques of the medical and social models. *Quest, 68*(2), 193-207.
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?>
- Hande, Z., Baris, S., Sariisik, Y., & Duskun, Y. (2016). *The right of children with disabilities to education: Situation analysis and recommendations for Turkey*. Education Reform Initiative. Turkey.
- Harvey, D. H. P. (1985). Mainstreaming: teachers attitudes when they have no choice about the matter. *Exceptional Children, 32*, 163-173.
- Haq, F. S., & Mundia, L. (2012). Comparison of Brunei pre-service student teachers' attitudes to inclusive education and specific disabilities: implications for teacher education. *The Journal of Educational Research, 105*, 366–374.
- Hattie, J. (2008). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. Routledge.
- Haug, P. (2014). The practices of dealing with children with special needs in school: A Norwegian perspective. *Emotional and Behavioral Difficulties 19* (3), 296-310.
- Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evid Based Nurs, 18* (3), School of Nursing, Laurentian University, Ontario, Canada.
- Heiman, T. (2001). Inclusive schooling: Middle school teachers' perceptions. *School Psychology International, 22*(4), 451-462.
- Hellmich, F., Loeper, M., & Gorel, G. (2019). The role of primary school teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs for everyday practices in inclusive classrooms: A study on the verification of the 'Theory of Planned Behaviour', *Journal in Research in Special Educational Needs, 19*(S1), 36-48.
- Heward, W. L. (2013). *Exceptional children: An introduction to special education (10th edition)*. USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 42*(2), 371-406.

- Hodge, S. R., & Jansma, P. (2000). Physical education majors' attitudes toward teaching students with disabilities. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 23(3), 211-224.
- Holmström, I. and Schönström, K. (2017). Resources for Deaf and Hard-Of-Hearing Students in Mainstream Schools in Sweden. A survey. *Deafness & Education International*, 19(1), 1-11.
<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14643154.2017.1292670>
- Holmström, I. and Schönström, K. (2017). Resources for Deaf and Hard-Of-Hearing Students in Mainstream Schools in Sweden. A survey. *Deafness & Education International*, 19(1), 1-11.
<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14643154.2017.1292670>
- Holmström, I. and Schönström, K. (2017). Resources for Deaf and Hard-Of-Hearing Students in Mainstream Schools in Sweden. A survey. *Deafness & Education International*, 19(1), 1-11.
<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14643154.2017.1292670>
- Hofman, R. H., & Kilimo, J. S. (2014). Teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusion of pupils with disabilities in Tanzanian schools. *Journal of Education and Training*, 1(2), 177-198. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jet.v1i2.5760>
- Holmström, I., & Schönström, K. (2017). Resources for deaf and hard-of-hearing students in mainstream schools in Sweden: A survey. *Deafness & Education International*, 19(1), 1-11.
- Hong, Y. Y., Chiu, C. Y., Dweck, C. S., Lin, D. M. S., & Wan, W. (1999). Implicit theories, attributions, and coping: A meaning system approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 588–599.
- Honkasilta, J., Ahtiainen, R., Hienonen, N., & Jahnukainen, M. (2019). Inclusive and Special Education and the Question of Equity in Education: The Case of Finland. *SAGE Handbook of Inclusion and Diversity in Education*, 481-495.

- Hosford, S., & O'Sullivan, S. (2015). A climate for self-efficacy: The relationship between school climate and teacher efficacy for inclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20(6), 1-18.
- Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk, A. E. (1993). Teachers' sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 4, 355-372.
- Hulgin, K. M., & Drake, B. M. (2011). Inclusive education and the No Child Left Behind Act: Resisting entrenchment. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(4), 389–404.
- Human Rights Watch. (2019). *World report 2019*. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019>
- Human Rights Watch. (2018). *Barriers to inclusive education: segregation, lack of accessibility for children with disabilities*. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2018/09/13/nepal-barriers-inclusive-education>.
- Human Rights Watch. (2012). *Education for disabled in Nepal*. <http://southasia.oneworld.net/resources/education-for-disabled-innepal#.U0pYnlWSzL8>
- Human Rights Watch. (2011). *Futures stolen barriers to education for children with disabilities in Nepal*. Author.
- Hunt, D. E. (1976). Teachers are psychologists, too: On the application of psychology to education. *Canadian Psychological Review/Psychologie Canadienne*, 17(3), 210-218.
- Hurlock. E. B. (1997). *Developmental psychology: study of life-span development*. Erlangga.
- Hyde, M. (2000). From welfare to work? Social policy for people with disabilities of working age in the UK in the 1990s. *Disability & Society*, 15 (2), forthcoming.
- Instrument reliability. (2001). http://www.windsor.igs.net/~nhodgins/instrument_reliability.html
- International Disability Alliance (IDA). (2021). *Universal design for learning and its role in ensuring access to inclusive education for all*. UK Aid.
- Jairaj, S. (2020). *The nuances of inclusive education*. <https://www.shikshacentre.com/the-nuances-of-inclusive-education>
- Jamaiah, I. (2008). Review of research in the learning environment. *Journal of Health and Translational Medicine*, 11 (1), 7–11.
- Jangira, N.K., & Kapoor, S. (2017). *Quality indicators for inclusive education*. SIEDI.

- Jerlinder, K., Danermark, B., & Gill, P. (2010). Swedish primary-school teachers' attitudes to inclusion. The case of PE and pupils with physical disabilities. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 25*, 45-57.
- Jobe, D., Rust, J. O., & Brissie, J. (1996). Teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms. *Education, 117*(1), 148-157.
- Johnstone, D. (2012). *An introduction to disability studies*. Taylor and Francis.
- Kafle, B. D. (2007). Teacher management in inclusive education, a study report: Research & Educational Information Management Section Department of Education, Sanothimi, Bhaktapur.
- Kafle, B. D. (2002). *Including the excluded: A critical evaluation of special needs education programme in Nepal* [Doctoral thesis]. Banaras, India: Banaras Hindu University.
- Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implication of research on teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist, 27*(1), 65-78.
- Kartika, D., & Kuroda, K. (2019). Implications for teacher training and support for inclusive education: Empirical evidence from Cambodia. *SAGE Handbook of Inclusion and Diversity in Education, 446-480*.
- Kattari, S., Lavery, A., & Hasche, L. (2017). Applying a social model of disability across the life span. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 27*(8), 865-880. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2017.1344175>.
- Kim, J.-R. (2006). *The influence of different types of teacher preparation programs on preservice teachers' attitudes toward inclusion, their self-efficacy and their instructional practices*. Graduate School of Syracuse University, MI, USA.
- Klassen, R. M., & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(3), 741-453.
- Klassen, R. M., Tze, V. M. C., Betts, S. M., & Gordon, K. A. (2011). Teacher efficacy research 1998-2009: Signs of progress or unfulfilled promise? *Educational Psychology Review, 23*(1), 21-43.
- Klassen, R. (2004). Optimism and realism: A review of self-efficacy from a cross-cultural perspective. *International Journal of Psychology, 39*(3), 205-230.
- Knight, T. (1999). *Inclusive education and educational theory, inclusive for what?* [Paper presentation]. British Educational Research Association Conference, University of Sussex, at Brighton.

- Korevaar, G. (1990). *Secondary school teachers' courses of action in relation to experience and sense of self-efficacy* [Paper presentation]. The annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston.
- Korkmaz, I. (2011). Elementary teacher's perceptions about implementation of inclusive education. *US- China Education Review*, 8 (2), 177-183.
- Koster, M, Pijl, S. J., Nakken, H., & Van Houten, E. (2010). Social participation of students with special needs in regular primary education in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 57, 59-75.
- Kreitz-Sandberg, S. (2015). As an educator, you have to fix many things on your own: Teachers' perspectives on organizing inclusions in various welfare contexts. In G. H. Jacobsen, *Rights of Children in the Nordic Welfare States*, 145–167. NSU Press.
- Krejcie, R.V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. 30, 607- 610.
- Kuester, V. M. (2000). *10 Years on: Have teacher attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities changed?* [Paper presentation]. The ISEC, London.
- Kunwar, R., & Adhikary, S. (2023). Understanding the multifaceted dimensions, socio-psychological aspects, and current practices of inclusive education in Nepal: A comprehensive analysis. *South Asian Research Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 5 (4), 144-152.
- Kuyini, A.B., & Mangope, B. (2011). Student teachers' attitudes and concerns about inclusive education in Ghana and Botswana. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 7, 20–37.
- Kyle, J. G. (2006). Integration of deaf children. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 8(3), 201-220. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0885625930080303>
- Lalvani, P. & Broderick, A. A. (2013). Institutionalized ableism and the misguided “Disability Awareness Day”. *Transformative Pedagogies for Teacher Education in Equity and Excellence in Education*, 46(4), 468-483 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2013.838484>.
- Lamichhane, K. (2015). *Disability, education and employment in developing countries*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lampropoulou, V., & Padelidu, S. (1997). Teachers of the deaf as compared with other groups of teachers: Attitudes toward people with disabilities and

- inclusion. *American Annals of the Deaf*, 142(1), 26-33.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/aad.2012.0245>
- Lather, P. (2006). Paradigm proliferation as a good thing to think with: Teaching research in education as a wild profusion. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 19(1), 35–57.
- Lather, P. (1986). Research as praxis. *Harvard Educational Review*, 56(3), 257-277.
<https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.56.3.bj2h231877069482>
- Lee, B., Cawthon S., & Dawson, K. (2013). Elementary and secondary teacher self-efficacy for teaching and pedagogical conceptual change in a drama-based professional development program. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 30, 84-98.
- Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical research: Planning and design*. Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Leroy, N., Bressoux, P., Sarrazin, P., & Trouilloud, D. (2007). Impact of teachers' implicit theories and perceived pressures on the establishment of an autonomy supportive climate. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 22, 529–545.
- Leyser, Y., & Tappendorf, K. (2001). Are attitudes and practices regarding mainstreaming changing? *A Case of Teachers in Two Rural School Districts*, 121(4), 751–61.
- Li, Y. (2016). *Expatriate manager's adaption and knowledge acquisition: Personal development in multi-national companies in china*. Springer Publications.
- Lopes, J. (2004). Teachers' perceptions about teaching problem students in regular classrooms. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 27(4), 394-419.
- Loreman, T., Sharma, U., & Forlin, C. (2013). Do pre-service teachers feel ready to teach in inclusive classrooms? A four-country study of teaching self-efficacy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(1), 27-44.
- Loreman, T., Sharma, U., Forlin, C., & Earle, C. (2005). Pre-service teachers' attitudes and concerns regarding inclusive education [Conference Presentation]. *ISEC Conference*, Glasgow.
- Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues In Educational Research*, 16, 1-15.
- Macmillan, R., & Meyer, M. J. (2006). *Inclusion and guilt: The emotional fallout for teachers*. Exceptionality Education.

- Main, S., Chambers, D. J., & Sarah, P. (2016). Supporting the transition to inclusive education: teachers' attitudes to inclusion in the Seychelles. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20 (12), 1-16.
- Margaret, E. (2013). *Inclusive education policy, the general allocation model and dilemmas of practice in primary schools* [Docoral dissertation]. National University of Ireland.
- Malinen, O.P, Savolainen, H., Engelbrecht, P., Xu, J., Nel, M., & Tlale, D. (2013). Exploring teacher self-efficacy for inclusive practices in three diverse countries. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 33, 34-44.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2013.02.004>
- Manchaiah, V. K. C., & Stephens, D. (2011). Models to represent communication partners within the social networks of people with hearing impairment. *Audiological Medicin*, 9(3), 103–109. <http://www.tandfonline>
- McIntyre, L. J. (1999). *The practical skeptic: Core concepts in sociology*. Mayfield Publishing.
- McFarland, M. (2012). *Children responding to a Positive Learning Environment*. London: Kogan Page.
- McMillan, J. H. (2000). *Educational research: Fundamentals for the consumer* (3rd ed.). Addison Wesley Longman.
- Mergler, A. G., & Tangen, D. (2010). Using microteaching to enhance teacher efficacy in pre-service teachers. *Teaching Education*, 21(2), 199-210.
- Miles, S., & N.Singal. (2010). The education for all and inclusive education debate: Conflict, contradiction or opportunity? *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 14 (1), 1–15.
- Minghat, A.D., Abdullah, S. A., Hamid, Y.K., & Zulkifli, M.F. (2015). Interest and confidence of hearing-impaired students toward vocational education: A preliminary study. *Journal of Asian Vocational Education and Training*, 8, 59-63. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia.
- Ministry of Education (MoE).(2013). *Education statistics of Nepal (2012-13)*. Kathmandu.
- MoE. (2009). *School sector reform plan (2009-2015)*. Kathmandu.
- MoE. (1992). *National education commission report*. Kathmandu.
- MoE. (1956). *Nepal national educational planning commission report*. Kathmandu.

- Ministry of Education. (1997). *The basic and primary education master plan for 1997-2002*. Author.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2019). *National education policy, 2019*. Author.
- Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP). (2008). *National childhood disability management strategy, 2008*. Kathmandu: Government of Nepal.
- Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare. (2006). *National policy and plan of action on disability, 2006*. Author.
- Miesera, S., & Gebhardt, M. (2018). Inclusive vocational schools in Canada and Germany. A comparison of vocational pre-service teachers' attitudes, self-efficacy and experiences towards inclusive education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 33* (5), 707-722.
- Mirzawati, N., Neviyarni, N., & Rusdinal, R. (2020). The relationship between self-efficacy and learning environment with students' self-directed learning. *Jurnal Aplikasi IPTEK Indonesia, 4*(1), 37-42. doi: 10.24036/4.14343
- Mittler, P. (2000). *Working towards Inclusive Education: Social Context*. London: David Fulton.
- Mol, T. I., Van Brakel, W., & Schreurs, M. (2014). Children with Disability in Nepal: New Hope Through CBR? *Disability, CBR & Inclusive Development, 25*(1), 5-20.
- Montgomery, A., & Mirenda, P. (2014). Teachers' self-efficacy, sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about the inclusion of students with developmental disabilities. *Exceptionality Education International, 24*(1), 18-32.
- Moore, W. P., & Esselman, M. E. (1992). *Teacher efficacy, empowerment, and a focused instructional climate: Does student achievement benefit?*
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED350252.pdf>
- Morris, J. (1991). *Pride against prejudice*. London: The Women's Press.
- Morrison, G. M., Wakefield, P., Walker, D., & Solberg, S. (1994). Teacher preferences for collaborative relationships: Relationship to efficacy for teaching in prevention-related domains. *Psychology in the Schools, 31*(3), 221-231.
- Murray, C. (2008). University faculty perceptions of students with learning disabilities: Correlates and group differences. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 31*(3), 95-113.

- Naraian, S., & Schlessinger, S. (2017). When theory meets the “reality of reality”: Reviewing the sufficiency of the social model of disability as a foundation for teacher preparation for inclusive education. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 44(1), 81-100.
<http://web.a.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?>
- National Institute for Research and Training. (2017). *Nepal education sector analysis*. Author.
- National Planning Commission (NPC). (2020). *Sustainable development goals progress assessment report 2016-19*. Author.
- Neupane, N.R., & Niure, D. P. (2023). Special education teachers' knowledge on inclusive education provision in Nepal. *ILAM*, 19 (1), 83-98.
- Norwich, B. (2013). *Addressing tensions and dilemmas in inclusive education: Living with uncertainty*. London: Routledge.
- NPC. (2020). *The fifteenth plan (fiscal year 2019/20-2023/24)*.
- NPC. (2016). *Fourteenth three year plan*. Kathmandu.
- NPC. (2013b). *Thirteen third year plan*. Kathmandu.
- NPC. (2011). *Millennium development goal: Progress report*.
- NPC. (2002). *The tenth plan*. Kathmandu.
- Nussbaum, J. F. (1992). Effective teacher behaviors. *Communication Education*, 41(2), 167-180.
- Nuthall, G. (2007). *The hidden lives of learners*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER Press.
- Ohmart, H. E. (1992). *The effects of an efficacy intervention on teachers' efficacy feelings* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Kansas.
- Oliver, M. (1990). *The politics of disablement: A sociological approach*. London: Palgrave.
- Oosterlee, A.S. (2012). *The accessibility to basic education for children with disabilities in Baglung district, Nepal* [Master's thesis]. Utrecht University, the Netherlands.
- Owens, J. (2015). Exploring the critiques of the social model of disability: The transformative possibility of Arendt’s notion of power. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 37(3), 385-403. doi:10.1111/1467-9566.12199.
- Oxfam. (2020). *India: extreme inequalities in numbers*. Author.

<https://www.oxfam.org/en/india-extreme-inequality-numbers>

- Paneque, O. M., & Barbeta, P. M. (2006). A study of teacher efficacy of special education teachers of English language learners with disabilities. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 30(1), 171-193.
- Parasuram, K. (2006). Variables that affect teachers' attitudes towards disability and inclusive education in Mumbai, India. *Disability and Society*, 21(3), 231–242.
- Park, M., & Chitiyo, M. (2011). An examination of teacher attitudes towards children with autism. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 11(1), 70–78.
- Pop, D. (2012). *Education policy and equal education opportunities*. Open Society Foundations.
- Powell, D., Hyde, M., & Punch, R. (2014). Inclusion in postsecondary institutions with small numbers of deaf and hard-of-hearing students: Highlights and challenges. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 19(1), 126-140.
- Pratt, D., & Collins, J. (2006). Five perspectives on teaching. *Teaching Perspectives Inventory*. University of British Columbia.
- Rahaman, M.M. (2017). *Inclusive education aspirations: Exploration of policy and practice in Bangladesh secondary schools* [PhD Thesis]. University of Canterbury, College of Education, Health, and Human Development, New Zealand.
- Rana, N. (2012). Pupil teachers' perceptions towards inclusive education. *Indian Streams Research Journal*, 2, 1–9.
- Rasinger, S. M. (2013). *Quantitative research in linguistics: An introduction*. A & C Black.
- Rees, K. (2017). Models of disability and the categorization of children with severe and profound learning difficulties: Informing educational approaches based on an understanding of individual needs. *Educational & Child Psychology*, 34(4), 30-39.
<http://web.a.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?>
- Regmi, N. P. (2017). *Inclusive education in Nepal from theory to practice* [Doctoral dissertation]. Ludwig-Maximilians-University.
- Reiser, R. (2012a). The Struggle for Disability Equality. In Cole, M. (Ed.). *Education, Equality and Human Rights*. Routledge.

- Rekkedal, A.M. (2017). Factors associated with school participation among students with hearing loss. *Scandinavian Journal of Disability Research*, 19 (3), 175-193. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15017419.2016.1167771>.
- Resource Center for Rehabilitation and Development Nepal (RCRD), & Save the Children. (2014). *Disability service mapping with special focus to children with disabilities*.
- Retief, M. & Letšosa, R., (2018). Models of disability: A brief overview. *HTS Theologiese Studies/Theological Studies* 74(1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/hts.v74i1.4738>.
- Richmond, D., & Irvine, A. (2013). Teachers' perspectives on inclusive education in rural Alberta, Canada. *Canada Journal of Education*, 36(1), 195-239.
- Riddell, S. (1996). Theorising special educational needs in a changing political climate. In: Barton, L (Ed.), *Disability and society: Emerging issues and insights*. Addison Wesley Longman.
- Riggs, I. M. (1991). *Gender differences in elementary science teacher self-efficacy* [Paper presentation]. The annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.
- Rioux, M. H. (1997). When myths masquerade as science. In L. Barton & M. Oliver (Eds.), *Disability studies: Past, present and future*. The Disability Press.
- Rodriguez, C.C., & Gil, N.G. (2014). Inclusion and integration on special education. *Procedia Soc. Behav. Sci*, 191, 1323–1327.
- Roffey, S. (2011). *Changing Behaviour in Schools: Promoting Positive Relationships and Wellbeing*. Sage Publications.
- Romi, S., & Leyser, Y. (2006). Exploring inclusion preservice training needs: a study of variables associated with attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 21, 85–105.
- Ross, J. A. (1994). The impact of an in-service to promote cooperative learning on the stability of teacher efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 381-394.
- Rowan, B., Chiang, F. S., & Miller, R. J. (1997). Using research on employees' performance to study the effects of teachers on students' achievement. *Sociology of Education*, 256-284.
- Rowan, B., Correnti, R., & Miller, R. J. (2002). What large-scale, survey research tells us about teacher effects on student achievement: Insights from the

- Prospectus study of elementary schools. *Teachers College Record*, 104 (8), 1525-1567.
- S. R., & Jansma, P. (2000). Physical education majors' attitudes toward teaching students with disabilities. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 23(3), 211-224.
- Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Center.
- Sattler, J.M. (2002). *Assessment of children: Behavioral and clinical applications*. San Diego.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students* (6th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.
- Savolainen, H., Engelbrecht, P., Nel, M., & Malinen, O. (2011). Understanding teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy in inclusive education: implications for pre-service and in-service teacher education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*.
- Sedgwick, P.M. (2014). *Cluster sampling*. BMJ Clinical, Research. St George's, University of London.
- Schacter, D. (2011). *Psychology*. Worth Publishers.
- Shah, D.B., Bhattarai, P.C., & Wagle, M.P. (2023). Construction and validation of Nepali teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management practices instruments through the E-Delphi technique. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 23(9), 287-305.
- Shah, D.B., & Bhattarai, P.C. (2023). Factors Contributing to Teachers' Self-Efficacy: A Case of Nepal. *Educ. Sci.* 13 (91). <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13010091>.
- Shah, D.B. (2022). *Teachers' self- efficacy and classroom management practices: A survey of secondary level school teachers of Nepal* [PhD thesis]. Kathmandu University, School of Education, Dhulikhel, Nepal.
- Shahi, B.B. (2022). Practices of inclusive education in Nepal. *Marsyangdi Journal* 3 (1), 100-109.
- Shakespeare, T. (2010). The social model of disability. In L. J. Davis (Ed.). *The disability studies reader*. Routledge.
- Shakespeare, T. (2006). *Disability rights and wrongs*. Routledge.

- Sharma, P. (2020). Teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in Nepal. *Interdisciplinary Research in Education, 4*(2), 173-189.
- Sharma, U., & George, S. (2016). Understanding teacher self-efficacy to teach in inclusive classrooms. *Asia-Pacific Perspectives on Teacher Self-Efficacy, 37*–51.
- Sharma, U., Shaukat, S., & Furlonger, B. (2014). Attitudes and self-efficacy of pre-service teachers towards inclusion in Pakistan. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 12*(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1471-3802.12071>.
- Sharma, U., Loreman, T., & Forlin, C. (2012). Measuring teacher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 12*(1), 12-21.
- Sharma, U., Forlin, C., & Loreman, T. (2007). What concerns pre-service teachers about inclusive education: An international viewpoint. *Korean Educational Development Institute Journal of Educational Policy, 4*(2), 95–114.
- Sharma, U., Forlin, C., Loreman, T., & Earle, C. (2006). Pre-service teachers' attitudes, concerns and sentiments about inclusive education: An international comparison of the novice pre-service teachers. *International Journal of Special Education, 21*(2), 80-93.
- Shore, K. (1986). *The Special education handbook: A comprehensive guide for parents and educators*. Teachers College Press.
- Shrestha, P. & Bhattarai, P.C. (2024). How “Inclusive” has the inclusive education been? *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice, 24*(2), 216-225.
- Shrestha, P. & Bhattarai, P.C. (2022). Application of case study methodology in the exploration of inclusion in education. *American Journal of Qualitative Research, 6* (1), 73-84.
- Shrestha, P. (2019). *Exploring the learning experiences of girls with visual disability: A case study approach* [MPhil dissertation]. Kathmandu University.
- Shrestha, S. (2017). *Teachers' attitude towards inclusion of students with intellectual disability in community schools* [Mphil dissertation]. Kathmandu University.
- Shrestha, E., & Nilsson, A. (2012). *Mainstreaming disability in the new development paradigm*. Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation.
- Siebalak, S. (2002). *Educators' perceptions of inclusive education* [Docoral dissertation]. University of Zululand.
- Silver, R. B., Measelle, J. R., Armstrong, J. M., & Essex, M. J. (2005). Trajectories of

- classroom externalizing behavior: Contributions of child characteristics, family characteristics, and the teacherchild relationship during the school transition. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43(1), 39–60.
- Simon, M., & Goes, K. (2012). *Sample size matters*. Dissertation Success.
- Simpson, R. L., de Boer-Ott, S. R., & Smith-Myles, B. (2003). Inclusion of learners with autism spectrum disorders in general education settings. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 23(2), 116-133.
- Singh, A.K. (2009). *Tests, Measurements and Research Methods in Behavioural Sciences*. New Delhi: Bharati Bhawan.
- Slee, R. (2001). Driven to the Margins: Disabled students, inclusive schooling and the politics of possibility. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 31(3): 385- 397.
- Smith, J. D. (2012). *Sekolah inklusif: konsep dan penerapan pembelajaran* [N. Denis, Trans.]. Nuansa Cendekia (Original work published 1998).
- Smith, S. (2009). *Social justice and Disability: Competing interpretations of the medical and Social Models*. In: Kristiansen, K. Vehmas, S. and Shakespeare, T. *Arguing about disability: Philosophical perspectives*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Snow, C. E., Griffin, P., & Burns M. S. (2005). *Knowledge to support the teaching of reading: Preparing teachers for a changing world*.
- Steele, M. M. (2005). Teaching students with learning disabilities: Constructivism or behaviorism? *Current Issues in Education*, 8(10), 1–5.
- Stinson, M. S., & Antia, S. D. (1999). Considerations in educating deaf and hard-of-hearing students in inclusive settings. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 4, 163–175.
- Stinson, M. S., & Liu, Y. (1999). Participation of deaf and hard-of-hearing students in classes with hearing students. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 4(3), 192-202. <https://academic.oup.com/jdsde/article/4/3/191/440895>
- Stoler, R. D. (1992). Perceptions of regular teachers towards inclusion of all handicapped students in their classrooms. *The Clearing House*, 66(1), 60-62.
- Sugimura, M., & Takeuchi, M. (2017). *Rethinking implications of inclusive and special needs education in the context of Nepal*. USJI Seminar, Washington DC., Sophia University, JICA Research Institute.
- Sweet S., & Martin K. (2011). *Data analysis with SPSS: A first course in applied statistics*. Fourth Edition: Pearson publisher.

- Tait, K., & Purdie, N. (2000). Attitudes toward disability: teacher education for inclusive environments in an Australian university. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 47, 25–38.
- Talmor, R., & Kayam, O. (2011). Changing teachers' attitudes towards students with special needs and their inclusion: Research findings. *Issues in Special Education & Inclusion*, 26(1), 21-34.
- Terzi, L. (2014). Reframing inclusive education: Educational equality as capability equality. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 44(4), 479-493.
- Thapa, M. (2017). *English language teaching practices for visually impaired students: An ethnographic study* [MPhil dissertation]. Kathmandu University.
- Thapa, B. (2012). *Schooling of girls with disability: A phenomenological study of Nepali girls* [Doctoral dissertation]. Kathmandu University.
- Thapaliya, M. (2024). Challenges and opportunities to implementing inclusive education: a case from Nepal. *SN Soc Sci* 4 (8).
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s43545-023-00808-2>
- Thapaliya, M.P. (2018). *Moving towards inclusive education: How inclusive education is understood, experienced and enacted in Nepali higher secondary schools* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Canterbury.
- The World Bank. (2009). *People with disabilities in India: from commitments to outcomes*. Human Development Unit, South Asia Region.
- Thomas, C. (2002). Disability Theory: key ideas, issues and thinkers. In: Barnes, C., Oliver, M. & Barton, L (Eds.), *Disability studies today*. Polity Press.
- Thomas, G. (1997). Inclusive school for an inclusive society. *British Journal of Special Education*, 24 (3), 103-107.
- Thorndike, R. M. (1997). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education* (6th ed.). Prentice-Hall.
- Tungaraza, F. (2014). The arduous march toward inclusive education in Tanzania: Head teachers' and teachers' perspectives. *Africa Today*, 61(2), 108-123.
- Tuohimaa, K., Loukusa, S., Lopponen, H., Valimaa, T., & Kunnari, S. (2022). Communication abilities in children with hearing loss views of parents and daycare professionals. *Journal of Communication Disorders*, 99.
- UNESCO. (2020). *Inclusion and Education: Global Education Monitoring Report*.
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373662>

- UNESCO. (2019). *Towards inclusion in education: Status, trends and challenges (The UNESCO Salamanca Statement 25 years on)*.
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000374246>
- UNESCO. (2018). *Out-of-school rates and numbers by SDG region*. Institute for Statistics database. <https://uis.unesco.org/en/topic/out-school-children-and-youth>.
- UNESCO. (2017). *Inclusion- education profiles Nepal*.
- UNESCO. (2017). *Defining the scope of inclusive education*.
- UNESCO. (2009). *Policy guidelines on inclusion in education*.
- UNESCO. (2008). *Towards inclusion in education: Status, trends and challenges*.
- UNESCO. (2005). *Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all*.
- UNESCO. (2003). *Overcoming exclusion through inclusive approaches in education*.
- UNESCO. (2002). *Open file on inclusive education: Support materials for managers and administrators of inclusive education*.
- UNICEF. (2016). *Global initiative on out of school children. Nepal Country Report*.
- UNICEF. (2015). *Annual results report 2015 education*.
- UNICEF. (2012). *The right of children with disabilities to education: A rights-based approach to Inclusive Education, Position Paper*. UNICEF Regional Office for CEECIS, Geneva.
- UNICEF, & UNESCO. (2007). *A human rights-based approach to education for all*.
- United Nations. (2018). *Sustainable development goals*. <http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/>.
- United Nations. (2006). *Convention on the rights of persons of with disabilities*.
<https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html>.
- United Nations Economic and Social Council. (2017). *Progress towards the sustainable development goals*.
<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/files/report/2017/secretary-general-sdg-report-2017--EN.pdf>.
- University of Arizona. (2021). *What is inclusion in special education?*
<https://www.uagc.edu/blog/what-inclusion-special-education>
- UNHR. (1989). *Convention on the rights of the child*.
<https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx>.

- Vanreusen, A. K., Shoho, A. R., & Barker, K. S. (2000). High school teacher attitudes toward inclusion. *The High School Journal*, 84(2), 7-20.
- Vehmas, S. and Makela, P. (2009). The ontology of disability and impairment. In: Kristiansen, K. Vehmas, V. and Shakespeare, T. (Eds.), *Arguing about disability: philosophical perspectives*. Routledge.
- Vehmas, S. (2004). Ethical analysis of the concept of disability. *Mental Retardation*, 42(3), 209-222.
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/ehost/command/detail?>
- Villa, R., Thousand, J., Meyers, H., & Nevin, A. (1996). Teacher and administrator perceptions of heterogeneous education. *Exceptional Children*, 63, 29-45.
- Voss, T., Kunter, M., & Baumert, J. (2011). Assessing teacher candidates' general pedagogical/ psychological knowledge: Test construction and validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(4), 952-969.
- Wang, M., Zan, F., Liu, J., Liu, C., & Sharma, U. (2012). A survey study of Chinese in-service teachers' self-efficacy about inclusive education. *Journal of International Special Needs Education*, 15(2), 109 - 116.
- Wehmeyer, M. L. (2009). Self-determination and the third generation of inclusive practices. *Revista de educacion (Madrid)*, 349.
- Weisel, A., & Dror, O. (2006). School climate, sense of efficacy and Israeli teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of student with special needs. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice*, 1(2), 157- 174.
- Winzer, M. A. (2007). Confronting difference: An excursion through the history of special education. In L. Florian (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of special education*, 20-30. Sage Publications.
- Whalen, C. (2009). *Real life, real progress for children with autism spectrum disorders: Strategies for successful generalization in natural environments*. Brookes Publishing Company.
- Wolters, C. A., & Daugherty, S. G. (2007). Goal structures and teachers' sense of efficacy: Their relation and association to teaching experience and academic level. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(1), 181-193.
- Woodcock, S. (2011). A cross sectional study of pre-service teacher efficacy through the training years. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (10), 23-34.
- Woodcock, S. (2008). *Diagnosing potential: preservice teachers' understanding and expectations of students with learning disabilities*. University of Wollongong.

- Woolfolk, A. (2007). *Educational psychology* (10th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.
- Woolfolk, A. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 81-91.
- WHO. (2019). *World report on vision*. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/blindness-and-visual-impairment>
- WHO. (2021). *World report on hearing*.
<https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240020481>.
- WHO, & World Bank. (2011). *World report on disability*.
- Yada, A., & Savolainen, H. (2017). Japanese in-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 64, 222-229.
- Zaretsky, L. (2005). From practice to theory: Inclusive models require inclusive theories. *American Secondary Education*, 65-86.

APPENDIX

A1: Data collection Tool (Questionnaire in Nepali)

प्रश्नावली:

काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालय , स्कुल अफ एजुकेशन

Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education with a Focus on Hearing Impairment

अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षामा शिक्षकहरूको धारणा
(बहिरा विद्यार्थीका शिक्षकहरूको सर्वेक्षण, २०७६)

नमस्कार

आदरणीय सर/मेडम,

म किरण चालिसे, काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालय स्कुल अफ एजुकेशन, हात्तिवन, ललितपुरमा विद्यावारिधिको लागि अध्ययनरत छु। मेरो शोधपत्रको शीर्षक बहिरोपनामा केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षामा शिक्षकहरूको धारणा (Perceptions) रहेको छ। यस शोधपत्रको लागि तथ्यांक संकलनमा यहाँको सहयोगको अपेक्षा गर्दछु।

बहिरा बालवालिकालाई पढाउने शिक्षकहरू मेरो शोधपत्रको लागि उत्तरदाता हुनुहुन्छ। तसर्थ, यस विद्यालयको हकमा मेरो शोधपत्रको लागि तपाईं एक उत्तरदाता हुनुहुन्छ।

यो प्रश्नावली ३ भागमा विभाजित रहेको छ। पहिलो भागमा व्यक्तिगत विवरण हुनेछ, दोस्रो भागमा समावेशी शिक्षाको कार्यान्वयनमा यहाँको कस्तो अनुभव भन्ने रहेको छ भने तेस्रो भाग बहिरा विद्यार्थीहरू प्रति यहाँको दृष्टिकोण वा धारणामा केन्द्रित रहेको छ। यहाँले दिनुभएको सबै सूचनाहरू/जानकारी गोप्य रहनेछन्। कुनैपनि विद्यालय तथा शिक्षकहरूको विवरण अध्ययनको निष्कर्षमा उल्लेख गरिने छैन। यहाँले दिनु भएको जानकारी विशुद्ध प्राज्ञिक उद्देश्यको लागि मात्र प्रयोग गरिनेछ।

बहिरा विद्यार्थीको शिक्षाको लागि यो अध्ययन निकै महत्वपूर्ण छ। तर, शोधकर्ताको लागि तपाईंको सहयोग पूर्णतया स्वेच्छिक रहनेछ। त्यसैले, अध्ययनको जुनसुकै बेलामा पनि प्रश्नको उत्तरदिने प्रकृयाबाट बाहिरिन सक्नुहुनेछ।

म यो शोधकार्यमा तपाईंको सक्रिय सहयोगको अपेक्षा गर्दै हार्दिक आभार व्यक्त गर्दछु। धन्यवाद।

किरण चालिसे

विद्यावारिधि विद्यार्थी

काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालय, स्कूल अफ एजुकेशन

फोन नं : ९८५९२४७५९९, ईमेल: kchalise@gmail.com

खण्ड एक: उत्तरदाताको ब्यक्तिगत विवरण		
१.१ लिंग	<input type="checkbox"/> पुरुष	<input type="checkbox"/> महिला
१.२ उमेर:		
१.३ जातजाती	१.४ धर्म :	१.५ जन्म स्थान :
<input type="checkbox"/> ब्राम्हण <input type="checkbox"/> नेवार	<input type="checkbox"/> एसएलसी <input type="checkbox"/> प्रमाण पत्र तह /प्लस टु <input type="checkbox"/> स्नातक <input type="checkbox"/> स्नातकोत्तर <input type="checkbox"/> एमफिल <input type="checkbox"/> पीएचडी	१.६ शैक्षिक योग्यता :
<input type="checkbox"/> क्षेत्री <input type="checkbox"/> मधेसी		
<input type="checkbox"/> दलित <input type="checkbox"/> जनजाति <input type="checkbox"/> अन्य	१.७ शिक्षा पेशामा भए विताएको वर्ष संख्या:	
१.८ आफुमा कुनै अपांगता	१.९ छ भने कस्तो अपांगता (उल्लेख गर्नुहोला)	
<input type="checkbox"/> छ <input type="checkbox"/> छैन ?		
१.१० तपाईंको घर परिवार वा निकटतम परिवारमा अपांगता भएका ब्यक्ति	१.११ छ भने कस्तो अपांगता : <input type="checkbox"/> शारीरिक <input type="checkbox"/> बौद्धिक <input type="checkbox"/>	
<input type="checkbox"/> छ <input type="checkbox"/> छैन ?	सुन्ने समस्या <input type="checkbox"/> दृष्टिविहीन <input type="checkbox"/> अन्य(उल्लेख गर्नुहोला)	
१.१२ अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षा तालिम लिएको <input type="checkbox"/> छु <input type="checkbox"/> छैन		
१.१३ तालिम लिएको भए कति दिनको लिनुभएको छ ?	१.१४ कुन संस्थाबाट :	
.....	<input type="checkbox"/> सरकारी <input type="checkbox"/> गैरसरकारी <input type="checkbox"/> निजी	
१.१५ पद :	१.१६ पदको किसिम :	
<input type="checkbox"/> प्रधानाध्यापक <input type="checkbox"/> प्राथमिक शिक्षक	<input type="checkbox"/> स्थायी <input type="checkbox"/> अस्थायी <input type="checkbox"/> अन्य(उल्लेख गर्नुहोला)	
<input type="checkbox"/> आधारभुत कक्षा शिक्षक <input type="checkbox"/> माध्यमिक शिक्षक		

१.१७ विद्यालयको नाम र ठेगाना :										१.१९ विद्यालय रहेको स्थान:												
१.१८ विद्यालयको किसिम : <input type="checkbox"/> विशेष <input type="checkbox"/> एकिकृत <input type="checkbox"/> स्रोत कक्षा										<input type="checkbox"/> शहरी <input type="checkbox"/> अर्ध शहरी <input type="checkbox"/> ग्रामीण												
१.२० विद्यालयमा रहेका बहिरा विद्यार्थीहरूको विवरण :																						
कक्ष	शिशु		१		२		३		४		५		६		७		८		९		१०	
	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा	छा
सं	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र	त्र
।																						

खण्ड दुई: समावेशी शिक्षाको विषयबस्तु (समावेशी शिक्षाको कार्यान्वयन)

तल दिइएको संकेतको आधारमा आफुलाई ठीक लागेको अंकमा चिनो लगाउनु होस् ।

५=पूर्ण सहमत , ४=सहमत , ३ = अनिर्णित , २ = असहमत , १ = पूर्ण असहमत

क्रम संख्या	मैले पढाउने विद्यालयमा					
	Roles & responsibilities of educational authority (शिक्षा अधिकारीको भूमिका र जिम्मेवारी)					
१.	वि.व्य.स बहिरा बालबालिकाको शिक्षाका लागि सकृय रुपमा लागेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२.	वि.व्य.स ले बहिरा बालबालिकाको तथ्यांकको आधारमा उनीहरूको शैक्षिक आवश्यकता पहिचान गर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
३.	वि.व्य.स ले बहिरा बालबालिकाको शिक्षाको लागि कार्यविधि निर्धारण गरेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
४	वि.व्य.स ले बहिरा बालबालिकाको शैक्षिक आवश्यक विकासको नियम तथा विनियमहरू पहिचान गरेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५	वि.व्य.स बहिरा बालबालिकाको शैक्षिक विकासको लागि आवश्यक वित्तीय सहयोग जुटाउन हरदम लागेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
६.	बहिरा बालबालिकाको विकासका आवश्यकताहरू पहिचान गरी शैक्षिक योजनाहरू बनाइन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
७.	विद्यालय बाहिर रहेका बहिरा बालबालिकाका लागि भर्ना अभियान	५	४	३	२	१

	संचालन गरिन्छ ।					
८.	पाठ्यक्रम विकास केन्द्रले सबै विद्यार्थीलाई निर्धारण गरेको पाठ्यक्रम प्रयोग गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
९.	एकै किसिमको मुल्यांकन (फर्मेटिभ, समेटिभ) परिक्षा तथा रिपोर्ट कार्ड प्रणाली प्रयोग गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१०.	विपत्तबाट उद्धार गरिएका बहिरा बालबालिकालाई परामर्श, मनोसामाजिक सुभावहरु दिने व्यवस्था छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
११.	विद्यालय भित्र र बाहिर हुने विपत्त व्यवस्थापनका लागि उचित प्रकृया, तालिम सबै शिक्षक तथा कर्मचारीहरुलाई दिने गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१२.	सहयोगी कर्मचारीले बालबालिकाप्रति गर्ने व्यवहारमा निगरानी गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१३.	बहिरा बालबालिकाको नियमित स्वास्थ्य जाँच तथा सहयोगी सुविधा सरसामानको लागि सम्बद्ध निकायसंग पहल तथा समन्वय गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१४.	यस्ता बालबालिकाको पोषणको लागि क्यान्टीन, दिवा खाना आदिको निशुल्क व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१५.	यस्ता बालबालिकाका विरुद्ध हुनेसक्ने दुर्व्यवहार रोक्ने रणनीतिहरु छन् र यस्ता दुरव्यवहार निरुत्साहित गर्ने विभिन्न प्रकृयाहरु छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
१६.	विद्यालय भवन तथा परिसर अपांग बालबालिकाको पहुँच योग्य र मैत्री छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
१७.	बहिरा बालबालिकाका लागि सहयोगी सुविधाहरु जस्तै सांकेतिक भाषा, श्रवण यन्त्र, स्पिच थेरापी, अपांगता मैत्री कक्षा कोठा, लाइब्रेरी, शौचालय, पुस्तकालय, खेल्ने चौर जस्ता सुविधाहरु छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
Important Knowledge (आवश्यक ज्ञान)						
१८.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षा वारे अनुसन्धान तथा अभ्यास गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१९.	विद्यालयका कर्मचारी, शिक्षक, अभिभावक तथा समावेशी विद्यार्थीहरुमा अपांगता तथा विशेष आवश्यकता शिक्षा सम्बन्धी बुझाई छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२०.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाका नीति तथा कार्यक्रमहरु वारे सूचना सामग्रीहरु जस्तै ब्रोसर, प्रष्पेक्टस् आदि राखिएका छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
२१.	विद्यालयले विद्यार्थीको तथ्यांक प्रयोग गरी उनीहरुका शैक्षिक तथा व्यवहारगत आवश्यकता पहिचान गर्दछ । जस्तै, रिफर गर्ने, परामर्श सेवा दिने, शैक्षिक पदस्थापन गर्ने जस्ता निर्णय लिने ।	५	४	३	२	१
२२.	विभिन्न स्रोतबाट सिक्ने, सिकाउने, खोजी गर्ने परिपाटी रहेको छ	५	४	३	२	१
२३.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाका लागि शिक्षकहरुलाई अनलाइन, दुर शिक्षा कार्यक्रम तथा अनुसन्धान गर्न उत्साहित	५	४	३	२	१

	गरिन्छ ।					
२४.	प्रधानाध्यापक, शिक्षक, साथीभाई तथा कर्मचारी र व्यवस्थापकहरु आफ्नो विद्यालयका बहिरा बालबालिकाको स्वास्थ्य स्थिति बारे जानकार छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
२५.	बहिरा बालबालिकालाई साधारण कक्षा कोठामा कान सुन्ने विद्यार्थीसंगै राखेर कसरी पढाउन सकिन्छ भन्ने विधिबारे खासगरी शिक्षकहरु जानकार छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
Availability of Rights (अधिकारको उपलब्धता)						
२६.	बहिरा विद्यार्थीलाई निशुल्क पढाइन्छ ।	५	४	३	३	१
२७.	बहिरा विद्यार्थीलाई निशुल्क स्वास्थ्य परिक्षण गरिन्छ ।					
२८.	बहिरा बालबालिकालाई भर्नाको लागि व्यवहारिक (गलअतप्यलबर्गि मुल्यांकन विधि अपनाइएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२९.	यी बालबालिकाको पढाई तथा सिकाईमा सहजता ल्याउन उनीहरुको भाषामा अध्यापन गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
३०.	यी बालबालिकालाई आवासिय सुविधा उपलब्ध छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
Participation (सहभागिता)						
३१.	विद्यालयले अभिभावक तथा परिवारका सदस्यलाई शिक्षक, कर्मचारीसंग छलफल गर्न प्रेरित गर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
३२.	बहिरा बालबालिकाका अभिभावक वा परिवारका सदस्य र शिक्षकहरुबीच नियमित सम्पर्क हुन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
३३.	अभिभावक तथा वि.व्य.स का सदस्यहरु अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षा सम्बन्धी कार्यशाला गोष्ठी तथा सम्मेलन , सेमिनारमा संगै सहभागी हुन्छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
३४.	शिक्षकहरु अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाका नमुना विद्यालयहरुको भ्रमणहरुमा सहभागी हुन्छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
३५.	शिक्षकहरुले अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षासंग सम्बन्धित व्यवसायीक तथा व्यवहारिक तालिमहरु नियमित रुपमा लिइरहेका छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
Learning Environment (सिकाई वातावरण)						
३६.	विद्यालयको विद्यालय सुधार योजना (कक्ष) मा बहिरा विद्यार्थीको शैक्षिक विकासका लागि विभिन्न योजनाहरु राखिएका छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
३७.	विद्यालयले बहिरा सहयोगी सेवाको लागि अन्य संघ संस्थासंग सहयोग लिएर सह कार्य गरिरहेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
३८.	बहिरा बालबालिकालाई उचित कक्षामा राख्नको लागि (उविअभ्रभलत) अभिभावक, वि.व्य.स, विशेषज्ञहरु समय समयमा भेटनु हुन्छ र सुझाव दिनु हुन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१

३९.	शिक्षकले विद्यार्थीको आवश्यकता तथा पाठ्यक्रममा आधारित शिक्षण गर्छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
४०.	विद्यालय यी बालबालिकाको विशेष आवश्यकतालाई ध्यानमा राखेर पाठ्यक्रम समायोजन गर्न लचक हुन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
४१.	सबै बहिरा बालबालिकासंग पाठ्यपुस्तक तथा सामग्रीहरू छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
४२.	शिक्षकहरूले यी बालबालिकाको सिकाई सीपमा हुने विविधताको पहिचान गरेका छन् (ढिलो सिकने, चाडो सिकने, विशेष आवश्यकता आदि)।	५	४	३	२	१
४३.	शिक्षकहरू दृश्य, प्रस्तुती, हाउभाउ संकेत सामग्री तथा अनुभवहरू प्रयोग गरी आवश्यकता अनुरूप पढाउछन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
४४.	शिक्षकले यी विद्यार्थीको सिकाई तरिका, चाहना अनुरूप समुह र सह –समुह बनाएर पढाउछन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
४५.	पठन तथा सिकाई अभ्यास सांकेतिक भाषाको माध्यमबाट गरिन्छ	५	४	३	२	१
४६.	केहि विद्यार्थीहरू कम सुन्ने भएकोले नोट टिप्नेको व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
४७.	शिक्षकहरूले विद्यार्थीको व्यक्तिगत सिकाई, शैली, तथा आवश्यकतामा आधारित निर्देशन विधि अपनाउनु भएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
४८.	विद्यालयले यस्ता बालबालिकाको गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको लागि हरित सीप तथा व्यवहारिक लागु गरेकाछन्	५	४	३	२	१
४९.	साथीसंगी, क्यान्टिनका कर्मचारी तथा अरु कर्मचारी) पनि यी विद्यार्थीलाई सहयोग गर्दछन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
५०.	यी विद्यार्थीहरू श्रवण यन्त्र (जभवचप्लन बष्म) तथा अन्य प्रविधिहरू प्रयोग गर्दछन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
५१.	शिक्षकहरूले यी बालबालिकाको शैक्षिक विकासमा मद्दत पुराउन विद्यालयबाट सहयोग पाइरहेकाछन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
५२.	शिक्षकहरूलाई यी विद्यार्थीको व्यक्तिगत शिक्षण योजना (क्ष्म)तयार पार्न उत्साहित गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५३.	सहयोग समुह जस्तो हेरचाह गर्ने, सांकेतिक भाषा अनुवादक, लिखत टिप्ने यी बालबालिकाको लागि उपलब्ध छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५४.	यी बालबालिकाको प्रभावकारी शिक्षाको लागि पर्याप्त वित्तीय स्रोतको व्यवस्थापन गरिएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५५.	साधारण शिक्षक र स्रोत शिक्षकहरूबीच नियमित छलफल हुने गर्दछ ।	५	४	३	२	१
Equality (समानता)						
५६.	बहिरा बालबालिकालाई बालकलबमा सदस्य तथा पदाधिकारी बन्ने समान अवसर दिइन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५७.	यी बालबालिकालाई अन्य बालबालिका सरह उमेर अनुसारका	५	४	३	२	१

	क्रियाकलापहरु जस्तो खेल, भ्रमण, संगित, नाच, विद्यालयका नाटक, चित्रकला तथा सास्कृतिक कार्यक्रममा भागलिन समान अवसर दिइन्छ ।					
	Inclusiveness (समावेशिता)					
५८.	वि.व्य. स तथा स्रोत केन्द्र व्यवस्थापन समितिको संरचनामा महिला, पुरुष तथा अपांगता भएका व्यक्तिहरुको सहभागिता रहेको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
५९.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी कक्षालाई सहयोग गर्न विद्यालयका शिक्षक, स्रोत शिक्षक तथा सम्बन्धित व्यक्तित्वहरु संगै काम गरिरहनु भएको छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
६०.	वि.व्य.स ले सबै सरोकारवालाहरु (अभिभावक, विद्यालय प्रशासन, शिक्षक तथा विद्यार्थी) लाई अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाबारे लिइने निर्णय प्रकृत्यामा समावेश गर्दछ ।	५	४	३	२	१
६१.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षालाई बुझ्न तथा यसको ध्येयलाई कार्यान्वयन गर्न विद्यालयका सबै सदस्यहरुलाई प्रेरित गरिन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१

खण्ड ३ : अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाप्रति शिक्षकहरुको धारणा (बहिरा विद्यार्थीमा केन्द्रित)

तल दिइएको संकेतको आधारमा आफुलाई ठीक लागेको अंकमा चिनो लगाउनु होस् ।

५=पूर्ण सहमत , ४=सहमत , ३ = अनिर्णित , २ = असहमत , १ = पूर्ण असहमत

क्र.स	बहिरा बालबालिकालाई पढाउने सम्बन्धमा म.....					
	कम्ती भाष्यबअथ (स्व:दक्षता)					
१.	मेरो पढाउने तरिकामा कुनै परिवर्तन नगरी बालबालिकालाई शिक्षित बनाउन सक्छु ।	५	४	३	२	१
२.	मसंग भएको योग्यताले उनीहरुको शैक्षिक आवश्यकतालाई पुरा गर्दछु ।	५	४	३	२	१
३.	ममा विद्यार्थीको विभिन्न अध्ययन शैली अनुसार पढाउने धैर्यता छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
४.	विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापनले अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी कक्षालाई ध्यान नदिएपनि उपयुक्त वतावरण सिर्जना गर्न सक्छु ।	५	४	३	२	१
५.	अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षाका लागि आवश्यक सामग्री जुटाउन सक्छु र यसमा अध्यावधिक हुन सक्छु ।	५	४	३	२	१
६.	मलाई कुनै विशेष सुविधा नभएपनि म बहिरा विद्यार्थीलाई पढाउन तयार छु ।	५	४	३	२	१
७.	बहिरा विद्यार्थीमा सिकाई विविधता हुनेहुदा उनीहरुको सिकाई	५	४	३	२	१

	आवश्यकता पुरा गर्न कठिनाई महशुस गरिरहेको छु ।					
८.	बहिरा सहयोगी शिक्षकहरुको सहयोगमा बहिरा बालबालिकालाई राम्रोसंग अध्यापन गर्न सक्छु ।	५	४	३	२	१
९.	मैले धेरै समय बहिरा बालबालिकाको पढाइका लागि खर्चनु पर्दछ ।	५	४	३	२	१
Teachers' Knowledge and Attitude (शिक्षकहरुको ज्ञान र अभिवृत्ति)						
Teachers' Knowledge (शिक्षकहरुको ज्ञान)						
१०.	यी बालबालिकाको उचित शिक्षाका लागि मलाई धेरै तालिमका आवश्यकता छन् ।	५	४	३	२	१
११.	मेरो लागि यस्ता विद्यार्थीलाई पढाउन धेरै ज्ञानको आवश्यकता छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१२.	बहिरा बालबालिकाका लागि विशेष पाठ्यक्रम अपनाउनु पर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१३.	मैले शिक्षकहरुलाई अपांगता केन्द्रित समावेशी शिक्षा सम्बन्धी सुचनाहरु विनिमय गर्नुपर्दछ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१४.	मेरो लागि विशेष अध्यापनका शिक्षा परामर्शदाता विद्यालयमा नियमित रुपमा उपलब्ध हुने व्यवस्था हुनुपर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
Teachers' Attitude (शिक्षकहरुको अभिवृत्ति)						
१५.	अरुसंगै बहिरा विद्यार्थीको समावेशीताको कारण यी बालबालिका प्रति नकारात्मक भावना आउछ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१६.	धेरै विद्यार्थीहरु यो कक्षामा हुने कारण मलाई व्यक्तिगत रुपमा यी विद्यार्थीलाई विशेष ध्यान दिन गाह्रो हुन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१७.	मैले बहिरा बालबालिकाप्रति हुने विभेदकारी व्यवहार विरुद्ध सुरक्षा दिनुपर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१८.	मैले कक्षामा बहिरा बालबालिकालाई स्वीकार गर्न अरु विद्यार्थीलाई अभिप्रेरित गर्नुपर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
१९.	मैले बहिरा बालबालिकालाई अरु विद्यार्थीलाई जस्तै समान व्यवहार गर्नुपर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२०.	मैले यस्ता बालबालिकाको अस्वीकार्य व्यवहारलाई नदेखेजस्तो गर्नुहुन्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२१.	बहिरा बालबालिकाको शिक्षाको लागि धेरै धैर्यताको आवश्यकता छ ।	५	४	३	२	१
२२.	मैले सबै विद्यार्थीलाई एकै किसिमले अनुशासित बनाउनु पर्छ ।	५	४	३	२	१

“यहाँहरुको समय र सहयोगको लागि धेरै धेरै धन्यवाद । ”

किरण चालिसे
विद्यावारिधि विद्यार्थी
काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालय, स्कुल अफ एजुकेशन
हात्तिबन, ललितपुर

A1: Data collection Tool (Questionnaire in English)

Questionnaire

Kathmandu University, School of Education

**Perceptions of Teachers toward Inclusive Education with a Focus on Hearing
Impairment
(A Survey, 2019)**

Nameste

Respected Sir/Madam,

I am Kiran Chalise, a PhD scholar of Kathmandu University, School of Education. My PhD research is on “Perceptions of teachers toward Inclusive Education with a Focus on Hearing Impairment-A Quantitative Survey. For the data collection of my thesis, I am expecting your cooperation.

The teachers teaching to children with hearing impairments are the respondents of my research. Thus, you are one of the respondents of this school for the research.

This questionnaire is divided into three parts/sections. The first section consists of the demographic information of the respondent. The second section consists of inclusive education practices as implementation inclusive education in the schools where your opinion is sought and the third section includes school teachers’ perceptions toward children with hearing impairment in terms of teachers’ self efficacy, knowledge and attitude. None of the schools and teachers descriptions will be interpreted in the findings. The given opinion is purely for the academic purpose.

For the education of children with hearing impairment, this research seems very important. However, your support in this process is completely voluntarily. Thus, you can leave any questions you do not want to answer or leave anytime you wish to leave from the process.

I appreciate your active participation and cooperation in this process. Thank you.

Kiran Chalise

PhD Scholar

Kathmandu University, School of Education

Phone: 9851245511, Email: kchalise@gmail.com

Section One: Demographic Information of the Respondent	
1.1 Sex <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	1.2 Age:
1.3 Caste/Ethnicity: <input type="checkbox"/> Brahmin <input type="checkbox"/> Newar <input type="checkbox"/> Chhetri <input type="checkbox"/> Madhesi <input type="checkbox"/> Dalit <input type="checkbox"/> Janajati <input type="checkbox"/> Others	1.4 Religion: 1.6 Academic Qualifications : <input type="checkbox"/> SLC <input type="checkbox"/> PCL/+2 <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor <input type="checkbox"/> Masters <input type="checkbox"/> MPhil <input type="checkbox"/> PhD 1.7 Years Spent in Education Profession:
1.5 Birth Place:	
1.8 Disability (If any) <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	1.9 If Yes, Type of Disability (Please mention).....
1.10 Persons with Disability within your Family or Family Members <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	1.11 If Yes, Type of Disability : <input type="checkbox"/> Physical <input type="checkbox"/> Intellectual <input type="checkbox"/> Hearing Impairment <input type="checkbox"/> Visual Impairment <input type="checkbox"/> Others (Please Mention)
1.12 I received training on Disability Focused Inclusive Education <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
1.13 Training Received Days, If Received	1.14 From which Organization ? <input type="checkbox"/> Government <input type="checkbox"/> Non-Government <input type="checkbox"/> Private

1.15 Position in the School : M <input type="checkbox"/> Head teacher/Principal <input type="checkbox"/> Primary TEacher <input type="checkbox"/> Basic Level Teacher <input type="checkbox"/> High School Teacher												1.16 Type of Position: <input type="checkbox"/> Parment <input type="checkbox"/> Temporary <input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please mention											
1.17 School Name and Address: 1.18 School Type : <input type="checkbox"/> Special <input type="checkbox"/> Integrated <input type="checkbox"/> Resource Class												1.19 School Location: <input type="checkbox"/> Urban <input type="checkbox"/> Semi-Urban <input type="checkbox"/> Rural											
1.20 : Details of Students with Hearing Impairment:																							
Gra de	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
Nu mb er of Stu de ts																							

Section Two: Inclusive Education Themes as Implementation of Inclusive Education

Please tick appropriate one as of the scale/score indicated

5= Completely Agree, 4= Agree, 3= Undecided, 2= Disagree, 1= Completely Disagree

S.N	In my School, where I teach					
					
	Roles & responsibilities of educational authorities					
1.	SMC activeness for the education of CWHI	5	4	3	2	1
2.	CWHI data are managed by SMC	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Work plan for the education of CWHI is made by SMC	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Educational need of CWHI is identified by SMC	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Financial aid for educational development of CWHI is initiated by SMC	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Availability of educational plans for CWHI	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Admission campaign initiation by schools for out of school hearing impaired children	5	4	3	2	1
8.	School uses textbooks prescribed by the education authority	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Availability of formative, summative exam and report card system	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Availability of counseling facility to the children rescued from disaster	5	4	3	2	1
11.	School provides disaster management training to the teachers and staff	5	4	3	2	1
12.	School monitors helping staff behavior towards CWHI	5	4	3	2	1
13.	School coordinates with concerned organizations for health and medical support to CWHI	5	4	3	2	1
14.	School provides nutritional support to CWHI	5	4	3	2	1
15.	Availability of child abuse control strategies	5	4	3	2	1

16.	Availability of disabled friendly and accessible school buildings and compound	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Supporting facilities to CWHI like sign language, hearing equipment, speech therapy, CWHI friendly class, toilets, library, playground etc.,	5	4	3	2	1
Important Knowledge						
18.	Research and study initiation on inclusive education in school	5	4	3	2	1
19.	Understanding on inclusive and special need education among teachers, staff, parents and other students in school	5	4	3	2	1
20.	Availability of brochure, prospectus on education policy and programs relating to hearing impairment focused inclusive education in school	5	4	3	2	1
21.	Identification of educational and practical need of the students for refer, counseling, education placement etc.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	There is a culture of learning, teaching, searching from diff. sources in school regarding hearing impairment	5	4	3	2	1
23.	School motivates teachers for online, distance education and study on hearing impairment focused inclusive education	5	4	3	2	1
24.	Head teachers, teachers, friends and staff, management are known about health condition of the students in school	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Teachers' knowhow to integrate CWHI students with other students in school	5	4	3	2	1
Availability of Rights						
26.	Availability of free education to the students in school	5	4	3	2	1

27.	Availability of free health checkup to the students in school	5	4	3	2	1
28.	Functional assessment system for the admission of the students in school	5	4	3	2	1
29.	Teaching the students in their own sign language	5	4	3	2	1
30.	Availability of hostel facility to the students in school	5	4	3	2	1
Participation						
31.	School motivates parents to discuss with teachers and staff	5	4	3	2	1
32.	Regular communication between parents and teachers	5	4	3	2	1
33.	Joint participation of SMC and parents in the conference, seminar of inclusive education	5	4	3	2	1
34.	Participation of teachers to the visit of exemplary CWHI focus schools	5	4	3	2	1
35.	Teachers are receiving regular professional and practical CWHI focus inclusive education training trainings	5	4	3	2	1
Learning Environment						
36.	Education development plans of the students are in School Improvement Plan (SIP)	5	4	3	2	1
37.	Support received from other organizations for the welfare of the students	5	4	3	2	1
38.	SMC, parents, experts meet time to time for appropriate placement of the students	5	4	3	2	1
39.	Teach based on students need and curriculum	5	4	3	2	1
40.	School is flexible in the curriculum to consider the special need of the students	5	4	3	2	1
41.	All CWHI have textbooks and materials	5	4	3	2	1
42.	School has identified the diversity of learning skills of the students	5	4	3	2	1

43.	Teachers teach students with the use of sign language, pictures, gestures and experience sharing	5	4	3	2	1
44.	Teachers teach students by grouping and regrouping in class	5	4	3	2	1
45.	Teaching and learning exercise happen through the use of sign language	5	4	3	2	1
46.	Availability of note taker for hard to hearing students	5	4	3	2	1
47.	Teachers have followed instruction as of individual learning style and need of the students	5	4	3	2	1
48.	School has adopted green skill and practical education for quality education as of SDG goal	5	4	3	2	1
49.	Other friends, canteen staff and other staff support the students in school	5	4	3	2	1
50.	Use of hearing aid and other devices in teaching to the students	5	4	3	2	1
51.	Teachers are receiving support from the school for the development of education of the students	5	4	3	2	1
52.	School motivates teachers to make individual education plan (IEP) of the students	5	4	3	2	1
53.	Availability of support team like care taker, sign language interpreter, note taker in school	5	4	3	2	1
54.	Adequate fund management by schools for effective education of the students	5	4	3	2	1
55.	Regular discussion between general teacher and resource teacher in school	5	4	3	2	1
	Equality					
56.	School provides equitable opportunity to the students for being portfolio and members of child club of the schools	5	4	3	2	1

57.	School provides equal opportunity to the students for extra curriculum activities/ creative activities of the schools	5	4	3	2	1
Inclusiveness						
58.	Participation of male, female and person with hearing disability in the structure of SMC and Resource Center Management Committee	5	4	3	2	1
59.	Teachers, resource teacher and other concerned are working together for the support of CWHI focused inclusive class in the schools	5	4	3	2	1
60.	SMC involves all stakeholders in decision making process in schools	5	4	3	2	1
61.	School inspires every member of school to understand and implement the mission of CWHI focused inclusive education	5	4	3	2	1

Section Three: School Teachers' Perceptions toward Children with Hearing Impairment

Please tick appropriate one as of the scale/score indicated

5= Completely Agree, 4= Agree, 3= Undecided, 2= Disagree, 1= Completely Disagree

S.N	Teaching to Children with Hearing Impairment I					
	Self Efficacy					
1.	I can educate the students without changing any process	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Students' education will be fulfilled because of my qualifications	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I have patience to teach according to the	5	4	3	2	1

	learning style of the students					
4.	I can create appropriate environment for the education of students even if there is no support from the school	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I collect essential materials and update on the issue of hearing impairment focused inclusive education	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Without any special facility to me, will teach to the students	5	4	3	2	1
7.	I am feeling obstacle in fulfilling the learning need of the students because of their diversity	5	4	3	2	1
8.	With the help of support teacher , I can teach them nicely	5	4	3	2	1
9.	I have to spend more time for the education of the students	5	4	3	2	1
Teachers' Knowledge and Attitude						
Teachers' Knowledge						
10.	I need more trainings for the appropriate education of the students	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I need more knowledge to teach them properly	5	4	3	2	1
12.	A need of special curriculum for the students	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Need to exchange information regarding disable focus inclusive education	5	4	3	2	1
14.	A need of education consular for the special teaching to the students	5	4	3	2	1
Teachers' Attitude						
15.	I feel negative towards the students because of their inclusion with other students	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I feel obstacle to provide special care to the students because of lot of students in the class	5	4	3	2	1
17.	I have to provide security against discriminatory behaviors towards the students	5	4	3	2	1

18.	I have to inspire other students to accept deaf students	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I have to treat equally to the students	5	4	3	2	1
20.	I do not overlook the misdeeds of the students	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I need more patience for the education of the students	5	4	3	2	1
22.	I have to make every student disciplined	5	4	3	2	1

“Thank you Very Much for Your Time and Cooperation”

Kiran Chalise

PhD Scholar

Kathmandu University, School of Education

Hattiban, Lalitpur, Nepal

B1: Visited Schools

SN.	Name	District	Province
1.	A1	Sunsari	1
2	A2	Sunsari	1
3	B1	Morang	1
4	B2	Morang	1
5	C1	Jhapa	1
6	C2	Jhapa	1
7	D1	Bara	2
8	D2	Bara	2
9	E1	Rautahat	2
10	E2	Rautahat	2
11	F1	Siraha	2
12	F2	Siraha	2
13	G1	Saptari	2
14	G2	Saptari	2
15	H1	Kathmandu	3
16	H2	Kathmandu	3
17	I1	Makwanpur	3
18	I2	Makwanpur	3
19	J1	Sindhuli	3
20	J2	Sindhuli	3
21	K1	Sindhupalchowk	3
22	K2	Sindhupalchowk	3
23	L1	Kavre	3
24	L2	Kavre	3
25	M1	Kaski	4
26	M2	Kaski	4
27	N1	Syanja	4
28	N2	Syanja	4
29	O1	Baglung	4
30	O2	Baglung	4

31	P1	Gorkha	4
32	P2	Gorkha	4
33	Q1	Dang	5
34	Q2	Dang	5
35	R1	Rupendehi	5
36	R2	Rupendehi	5
37	S1	Surkhet	6
38	S2	Surkhet	6
39	T1	Doti	7
40	T2	Doti	7

C1: Number of CWHI Students in the Schools

1. Kathmandu (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12			
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G		
No.	3	1	9	8	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	5	1	1	1	1	2	20	1	16	1	12	15	21	26	19		
	2	4			0		3	1	1	3	2		2	2	7	4	1		8	9								
Total	388 (215 Boys and 173 Girls)																											

2. Kathmandu (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12			
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G		
No.	2	1	1	2	3	0	3	0	1	0	0	0																
Total	13 (10 Boys and 3 Girls)																											

Total	18 (5Boys and 13 Girls)																						
-------	-------------------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

8. Jhapa (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	0	0	2	5	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	5	1	4	2	7	12	2	4				
Total	67 (26 Boys and 41 Girls)																									

9. Makwanpur (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	0	0	4	7	3	2	3	0	3	2	3	1	3	0	1	2										
Total	34 (20 Boys and 14 Girls)																									

10. Makwanpur (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	2	1	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0															
Total	8 (7 Boys and 1 Girl)																										

11. Sindhuli (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	0	0	1	8	1	6	8	3	4	3	4	6	4	7	4	6	4	0	6	2	3	5					
Total	110 (64 Boys and 46 Girls)																										

12. Sindhuli (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
-------	-----	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	----	--	----	--	----	--

	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	2	1	1	2	3	0	3	0	1	0	0	0														
Total	13 (10 Boys and 3 Girls)																									

13. Sindhupalchowk (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12			
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	0	0	5	4	2	2	3	1	2	2	2	1	2	3	5	2	1	2										
Total	39 (22 Boys and 17 Girls)																											

14. Sindhupalchowk (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12			
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	2	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	2	1																		
Total	10 (7 Boys and 3 Girls)																											

15. Kavre (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	8	6	4	5	0	0	6	4	2	7	5	0	6	2	0	0	6	4	4	5	4	33					
Total	147 (82 Boys and 65Girls)																										

16. Kavre (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	1	1	1	2	3	1	1	2																			
Total	12 (6 Boys and 6 Girls)																										

17. Kaski (1)

Class	ECD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
-------	-----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

27. Surkhet (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	4	3	2	1 3	3	8	5	4	3	1 0	2	0	4	4	7	2	2	1									
Total	77 (32 Boys and 45 Girls)																										

28. Surkhet (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	0	0	2	3	2	0	1	1	0	2	0	0															
Total	11 (5 Boys and 6 Girls)																										

29. Dang (1)

Class	ECD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
-------	-----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

34. Bara (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	5	2	2	3	4	4	3	1					0	1	2	1			1	1							
Total	30 (17 Boys and 13 Girls)																										

35. Rautahat (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	0	0	2	4	1	7	5	1	6	4	4	1	3	3	3	1	4	1									
Total	70 (38 Boys and 32 Girls)																										

36. Rautahat (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
-------	-----	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	----	--	----	--	----	--

	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	1	1	7	1	2	4	3	1	1	2	3	5														
Total	31 (17 Boys and 14 Girls)																									

37.Saptari (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	2	2	1	3	2	1	2	3	1	2	2	1														
Total	22 (10 Boys and 12 Girls)																									

38. Saptari (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
No.	0	0	1	2	4	0	2	1	5	1	1	1	2	3	1	3	2	1	1	2	1	1				
Total	35 (20 Boys and 15 Girls)																									

39. Siraha (1)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	0	0	6	3	0	0	4	4	0	0	6	4															
Total	27 (16 Boys and 11 Girls)																										

40. Siraha (2)

Class	ECD		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	
No.	0	1	1	2	0	0	1	2	1	3	0	2															
Total	13 (3 Boys and 10 Girls)																										

D1: Expert/Student Consulted During the Process of Theme and Questionnaire Design

SN.	Designation/Expert	Means of Communication
1.	Resource Class Teacher	Face to face discussion to know the status of disabled students for questionnaire development
2.	Sign Language Teacher	Face to face discussion to know the status of CWHI for questionnaire development
3.	CWHI studying in class 3	Face to face discussion to know the status of students in the school
4.	Children with Visually Impaired	Face to face discussion to know the status of students in the school
5.	Disability expert	Face to face discussion to know the overall status of CWHI and figuring out the indicators for questionnaire development
6.	Principal of a school	Face to face discussion to know the status of disabled students for questionnaire development
7.	Inclusive Education Expert	Face to face discussion to figure out the indicators for the study focusing to CWHI
8.	Researcher of Inclusive Education	Face to face discussion to finalize the indicators for the study focusing to CWHI
9.	Associate Professor of KU	More than 20 times face to face meeting with him to finalize the indicators and questionnaire for the study focusing on CWHI
10.	Associate Professor of KU	More than 5 times face to face meeting with him to finalize the indicators and questionnaire for the study focusing on CWHI
11.	Professor of TU	More than 5 times face to face meeting with him to know more about CWHI and finalize the developed questionnaire for the study
12.	Government Officer	To get the data of children with disabilities and collect information about CWHI schools

