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"We Are Ready, But We Are Unable"
Teachers' Perceptions and Preparedness for Inclusive Education in Bengaluru's
Government Schools

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Abstract

This qualitative study examines how government school teachers in Bengaluru, Karnataka, understand inclusive education and perceive their preparedness to include children with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Although inclusive education has become a central policy focus in India, a persistent gap remains between the ideological commitments and local realities. Teachers are recognised as key to achieving inclusion; however, they consistently report struggling to implement it. Existing research on teachers is dominated by standardised surveys that treat teacher preparedness as an individual attribute, providing limited insight into how it is shaped by their everyday school and classroom contexts. To address this gap, the study employs semi-structured interviews with thirteen teachers across four government schools to capture teachers' situated understandings of IE, its goals, and the role of professional training and experience in shaping their preparedness. The data was analysed using reflexive thematic analysis and informed by the critical realist paradigm, the social model of disability and an ecosystemic framework.

The findings showed that teachers' conceptualisation of inclusive education resembled integration rather than inclusion, was shrouded in conceptual ambiguity and further compounded by the linguistic conflation surrounding the Kannada term “Samanviya Shikshana”. Teachers frequently reinterpreted the goals of IE, defined its limits, and constructed the notion of a “handleable child” based on perceived abilities of children with disabilities and the capacities of the system into which they were included. Consequently, teachers felt prepared only for a narrowed form of inclusion that centred on social participation and functional support rather than curricular access and academic achievement.

The study further finds that preparedness was not experienced as a fixed individual capacity but as a situated outcome of the interaction among teachers' professional training, classroom experience, students' perceived needs and wider system-level conditions. Formal preparation was described as largely inconsistent and theoretical, while classroom experience became the primary means through which teachers developed practical confidence. At the same time, large class sizes, insufficient time, rigid curricular demands, lack of specialist training, and shortage of expert teachers and support staff constrained teachers' ability to enact inclusive practices. In the absence

of such structural support, inclusion was largely sustained through teachers' care, moral consciousness and professional duty.

The study concludes that teacher preparedness for inclusive education must therefore be understood as relational and system-dependent rather than as an individual teacher deficit. Further, strengthening IE requires not only improved teacher training but institutional and systemic changes that enable teachers to translate inclusive commitments into classroom practice.

List of Abbreviations

BBMP - Bruhat Bengaluru Mahanagara Palike

CPD - Continuous Professional Development

CTET - Central Teacher Eligibility Test

GN - Global North

GS - Global South

IE - Inclusive Education

ITE - Initial Teacher Education

NEP - National Education Policy

RPWD - Rights of Persons with Disabilities

RTE - Right to Education

SSA - Samagra Shiksha Abhiyan

TCH - Teacher Certificate Higher

TET - Teacher Eligibility Test

UDID - Unique Disability Identity

UNCRPD - United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background and Context

Inclusive education (IE), despite its seemingly simple message, is a deeply contested concept that has been faced with numerous interpretations across historical periods, national and international contexts and stakeholder groups (Armstrong et al., 2011; Florian, 2014; Göransson & Nilholm, 2014). Although initial conceptions focused on the “integration” of students with disabilities into mainstream schools, the concept has since broadened to encompass the “inclusion” of all learners by removing barriers to equitable access, participation and learning (Graham, 2020). This conceptual shift is well illustrated by the evolution of international declarations and discourses over time. For example, in the 1994 Salamanca Statement, the main focus was on integrating children with special educational needs (SEN) into regular schools (UNESCO, 1994), whereas, in 2005, UNESCO’s guidelines for inclusion described inclusion as a process that seeks to improve the “presence, participation, and achievement of all students” (UNESCO, 2005, p.15).

Despite its prominence across global, national and local education agendas, IE is regarded as an elusive concept (Rangarajan et al., 2025). As Taneja-Johansson (2014) notes, a large part of the complexity and confusion surrounding IE is linked to its origins. Several scholars trace the evolution of IE to the critique of special schools in the Global North (GN)¹, where segregation came to be seen as incompatible with social justice (Barton, 1995, as cited in Madan, 2018; Muthukrishna & Engelbrecht, 2018). This historical anchor in disability and special education contributed to a narrow definition of IE, focused solely on the inclusion of children with SEN (Ainscow et al., 2006). In contrast, proponents of IE adopt a broad understanding of inclusion as a project concerned with all learners and with transforming schools to respond to their diverse needs (Ainscow, 2020).

¹ I use the terms Global North/South to highlight the socio-economic differences between countries, as popularised in the Brandt report (Brandt, 1980), and not to refer to geographical boundaries. It captures the complex inequities, poverty, dependency, and exploitation of countries in the GS, as well as the colonial powers of the GN that control and shape broader economic and political decisions (Singal & Muthukrishna, 2014). However, I recognise that there is heterogeneity within both blocs, with wealthy and privileged communities in the GS and underserved groups in the GN.

With its genesis in the GN, IE was subsequently transferred to the lower-income countries of the Global South (GS) through the influence of international donor organisations and aid agencies (Muthukrishna & Engelbrecht, 2018). As Armstrong et al. (2011) argue, the hegemonic imposition of Northern models on Southern contexts without critical engagement with their local socio-cultural, historical and educational realities results in an “unequal and dependency-promoting relationship” (pp. 37-38). Kamenopoulou and Karisa (2023) describe this as a “neo-colonial project”, arguing that IE has become a “Northern-led discursive metanarrative” (p. 2183) serving as a benchmark against which Southern initiatives are measured, often requiring the GS to fit dominant GN perspectives. Thus, they call for critical research that not merely studies the GS but rather is grounded in and emerges from it (Kamenopoulou & Karisa, 2023) .

In India, where this study is situated, the consequences of this indiscriminate transfer of international IE frameworks to local educational realities are clearly evident. Singal (2005) reports that, post-Salamanca, IE began to appear extensively in the official Indian rhetoric, even though its meaning remained conceptually ambiguous. In her later work, she noted that IE was adopted into policy documents without sufficient critical engagement with the country’s contextual realities (Singal, 2006). It is well documented that IE in India is a concept borrowed from the West for its “feel-good, child-centred and romantic appeal”, lacking a serious engagement with its core principles (Madan, 2019, p. 9). In several policy documents, Taneja-Johansson’s (2014) analysis found that the term “integration” had been entirely replaced by “inclusion”² without any explanation of the difference between the two terms and Singal (2006) similarly found that these terms were often used interchangeably, creating further confusion. This echoes Slee’s (1998) finding that “for many, inclusion connotes a linguistic adjustment to present a politically correct facade to a changing world” (p. 130).

Given this lack of conceptual clarity, Nilholm and Göransson (2017) argue that it is necessary for researchers to clearly state their working definition of IE in their study’s context. Although IE

² In India, inclusion and inclusive education are often used for different purposes in government policies and amongst education stakeholders. Inclusion is used in reference to all marginalised groups of children, whereas inclusive education is commonly used in relation to children with disabilities.

theoretically concerns all learners, this study focuses specifically on children with disabilities³ reflecting the way in which IE is operationalised in the Indian context. Singal's (2005) review of the Indian literature found that IE is primarily understood in relation to children with disabilities and a more recent policy analysis by Taneja-Johansson (2014) confirmed that this association continues to persist in India. Although focusing solely on children with disabilities is said to shrink the IE agenda and shift attention away from the broader systemic reforms that inclusion requires, I draw on Taneja-Johansson & Singal's (2021) rationale for making this choice. As they describe, disability is not a fixed or homogenous category and has considerable internal variation as well as external variation owing to its intersection with other axes of exclusion such as poverty and gender. Furthermore, children with disabilities remain one of the most marginalised groups in India and at the global level (UNESCO, n.d.; UNICEF, 2025), making a specific focus on them compelling and analytically justified. This study, therefore, understands IE as the process of ensuring that children with disabilities can access, participate and achieve within mainstream schools by making changes to the curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, school culture and support structures.

1.2 Policy Landscape of Inclusive Education in India

Owing to the influence of global commitments and a rights-based approach to the IE, India has developed a comprehensive legal framework for IE. The Right to Education (RTE) Act 2009 mandated free and compulsory education for all children, including children belonging to disadvantaged groups (Ministry of Law and Justice [MLJ], 2009), and through a 2012 amendment, all categories of children with disabilities were brought under its purview (Ministry of Law and Justice [MLJ], 2012). Carrying the underlying themes of human rights and social justice, the Act's emphasis was mainly on access to education rather than preparing schools to become inclusive.

This was followed by the enactment of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (RPWD) Act, 2016 (Ministry of Law and Justice [MLJ], 2016), which emerged in response to India's commitment to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD). Laying a

³ I use person-first language in this study, such as “children with disabilities”, unless quoting authors or participants, because person-second language (“disabled people”) is seen as devaluing them as people and implying that the most important aspect of them is their disability. Besides, I have chosen against using the acronym CwD because it risks reducing them to a homogeneous group.

specific focus on children with disabilities, it guaranteed free education for children with benchmark disability⁴ in a neighbourhood school or special school (MLJ, 2016) and defined IE as:

A system of education wherein students with and without disability learn together, and the system of teaching and learning is suitably adapted to meet the learning needs of different types of students with disabilities. (MLJ, 2016, p. 3)

This definition of IE was further adopted by the National Education Policy (NEP) 2020, reflecting continuity between India's legislative and policy frameworks (Ministry of Human Resource Development [MHRD], 2020). Guided by the RPWD Act, 2016, the policy proposed a range of measures, including training teachers to support children with specific disabilities, establishing resource centres, providing accessible textbooks and assistive technologies, and calling for the recruitment of special educators with cross-disability training (MLJ, 2016).

These laws and policies have been operationalised through several national educational programmes, most notably the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (now subsumed under the Samagra Shiksha Abhiyan/SSA) that was launched in 2001. The SSA has adopted a zero-rejection policy and is focused on improving the quality of education through barrier-free infrastructure, improved teacher training and pedagogical and curricular adaptations. Through its Inclusive Education for Disabled at Secondary Stage scheme, the SSA particularly aims to “enable all children and young persons with disabilities to have access to elementary and secondary education and improve their enrolment, retention and achievement in the general education system” (Ministry of Education, 2022, p.143).

1.3 The Centrality of Teacher Preparedness

Common across all legislation, policy documents, and programmes for IE is the recognition of teachers and teacher training as key to the effective enactment of IE.

⁴ Benchmark disability refers to a minimum disability level of 40% as per the RPWD Act (2016)

For instance, the RPWD Act (2016) mandates training for teachers, professionals, and staff across all levels of education to teach children with disabilities (MLJ, 2016) and, the SSA states that “Intensive in-service teacher education/capacity building programmes will be undertaken to sensitise and build capacity of the general teachers...to provide quality education to children with disabilities” (Ministry of Education, 2022, p.147). Similarly, the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE) envisions its teacher training programme to be “liberal, humanistic and responsive to the demands of inclusive education” and mandates an IE course for all initial teacher education (ITE) programmes in India (National Council for Teacher Education [NCTE], 2009, p. 19).

More recently, the NEP 2020 positions the teacher “at the centre of the fundamental reforms in the education system” (MHRD, 2020, p. 4), providing directives for all teacher education programmes to integrate modules on teaching students with disabilities into existing programmes and offer short-term specialisation courses as well (Sarkar, 2020).

However, the NEP 2020 has been critiqued for falling short in several aspects. Ramchand (2025) argues that it neither resolves the ambiguities surrounding the roles of regular teachers and special educators nor does it offer a coherent vision to enhance the existing structural and systemic support for teachers enacting IE. Importantly, it fails to acknowledge the systemic issues in teacher training programmes in India (Balasubramanian & Banerjee, 2024).

Across policies and programmes, while teachers and teacher preparation are consistently presented as critical for implementing IE, teacher education systems are yet to address this imperative (Sharma et al., 2015). This gap between policy ideals and professional preparation provides a starting point for this study.

1.4 Rationale and Significance of the Present Study

As Sapsovski (2010) argues, teachers' perceptions of children with disabilities, including their beliefs about children's capabilities and limitations, play a key role in determining inclusive educational practices. Equally important is understanding how prepared teachers feel to implement inclusive practices. As Forlin et al. (2014) argue, perceived teaching efficacy in implementing

inclusive education “... is critical to ensuring teachers are able to enact inclusive policies developed at a government level” (p.714).

Despite the centrality of teachers in IE, the existing research falls short in three critical ways. First, most studies examining teachers’ perceptions, attitudes and preparedness for IE are methodologically and conceptually limited. Methodologically, most studies use predetermined survey questionnaires and standardised scales (Das et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2009; Sharma et al., 2017), which fail to surface teachers’ personal experiences and the nuanced ways in which they make sense of IE and their readiness to enact it in their everyday classroom contexts. As Forber-Pratt & Sarkar (2022) note, such standardised measures often conflate inclusion and integration without a clear distinction and have weak reliability and validity in India.

Conceptually, as Singal & Muthukrishna (2016) argue, the IE discourse in GS countries carries a deficit view of teachers; they presume a lack of willingness or capacity to teach children with disabilities and propose suggestions to “correct” their attitudes and behaviour, without accounting for the institutional arrangements and systemic constraints within which they operate. As Singal (2019) argues, teachers are themselves operating under external controls and regulations and hence are “simultaneously powerful and powerless vis-à-vis different stakeholders” (p. 834), leading to a decontextualised and individualistic view of them (Balasubramanian & Banerjee, 2024; Forber-Pratt & Sarkar, 2022).

Second, the existing literature pays insufficient attention to teachers’ perceptions of IE as an object of inquiry. A substantial amount of research focuses on teacher attitudes, capturing their orientation towards IE as either positive or negative (De Boer et al., 2011; Galaterou & Antoniou, 2017; Singh et al., 2020). However, perceptions, differing from attitudes, capture how teachers interpret and make meaning of IE. This may shape what teachers believe is expected of them in the classroom and who they perceive as responsible for IE (Perrin et al., 2024) and how they practice IE in the classroom (Jordan & Stanovich, 2023; Tah, 2025). Crucially, studying perceptions is important in the Indian context, as the conceptual understanding of IE remains ambiguous and incoherent in policy documents (Taneja-Johansson, 2014).

Third, the extant literature has largely conceptualised “preparedness” as a trait that sits within the teacher in the form of knowledge, skills and attitudes and the preparedness scores are reported with little attention to what the results mean in their context. Although such studies have identified valuable patterns, considerably less focus has been laid on how that preparedness is enacted, negotiated and constrained within everyday school and classroom realities (Adams et al., 2023; Zegeye, 2022). Examining this is especially important in resource-limited government schools, where institutional and structural conditions may hinder teachers from implementing inclusive practices. Besides, researchers working in the GS have repeatedly raised concerns with the dependence on IE policy narratives and toolkits developed in the GN, which assume a “false universalism” by overlooking local conditions (Kamenopoulou, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2009, p.109; Singal, 2019). Consequently, this study is motivated by a desire to help address these concerns through critical engagement with insights from the field.

Taking the recommendation from Singal & Muthukrishna (2016) to view teachers as active interpreters of policies, this study moves beyond whether teachers are simply prepared or unprepared or whether they have positive or negative attitudes, towards uncovering how institutional conditions, professional development opportunities, experiences, and socio-cultural contexts shape their perceptions of IE and their preparedness to enact it. Thus, by highlighting teachers' situated realities, the study aims to contribute to contextual insights on teacher preparation for IE in India and offer recommendations for teacher education, professional development and local policy.

1.5 Research Questions

It is against the above-described background that the study asks the following questions:

Main research question: How do Bengaluru’s government school teachers understand inclusive education and perceive their preparedness to include children with disabilities in mainstream⁵ classrooms?

Specific research questions:

⁵ In this study, mainstream classrooms refer to schools that follow a standardised curriculum and teach a wide range of students without segregation. The term has been adopted since it reflects wider research but does not intend to position itself as ‘normal’ and special schools as ‘abnormal’ and less legitimate.

1. How do teachers understand inclusive education and its goals?
2. How do teachers describe the role of pre-service training/ initial teacher education and in-service training/continuous professional development in shaping their preparedness for inclusive education?
3. How do experiences in the classroom shape teachers' perceived preparedness for inclusive education?
4. What forms of support do teachers identify as necessary for implementing inclusive education in their schools?

1.6 Structure of the Dissertation

To address these questions, the thesis is organised across seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study and situates it within the broader conceptual and policy context of IE. Chapter 2 presents a literature review on teachers' perceptions and professional preparation for IE, while Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework guiding the study. Chapter 4 outlines the methodology, sampling strategies, data collection and analysis processes, ethical considerations, and my positionality. Chapter 5 presents the limitations of the study and organises the findings across three broad themes. Chapter 6 discusses these findings in relation to the literature and finally Chapter 7 summarises the study's findings and presents its contributions and implications.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The previous chapter situated IE in India within its conceptual and policy landscape. This chapter will narrow the focus to the academic discourse on teachers, as they are central to implementing IE in classrooms. The literature review draws on two overlapping strands of research in IE. The first examines teachers' perceptions, attitudes and concerns and the second focuses on teacher preparedness and professional development. While these strands are separated for analytical purposes, they overlap in most literature.

2.1 Teachers' Perceptions, Attitudes and Concerns

Although much of the literature examined teachers through their attitudes, attitudes only capture one dimension of how teachers relate to IE. The present study, however, focuses more on

perceptions: how teachers interpret IE, its purposes and feasibility and their own role within it. However, the literature on attitudes remains relevant because teachers' orientations towards inclusion are closely connected to how they understand and respond to it in practice.

Teachers' attitudes are perceived as one of the key factors in the successful inclusion of students with special needs (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; De Boer et al., 2011; Romi & Leyser, 2006), however, studies across the globe have documented varying results on teachers' attitudes. While some studies report positive attitudes (Shareefa, 2016; Štemberger and Kiswarday, 2016), others report neutral to negative attitudes towards inclusion (De Boer et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 2015). As Varcoe & Boyle (2013) note, the variation may be due to the influence of a range of variables including teachers' prior experiences, school context and nature of students' disabilities.

More importantly, studies report that positive attitudes or favourable perceptions towards inclusion do not necessarily translate into inclusive classroom practices. For instance, Bhatnagar and Das's (2014) study of secondary regular school teachers in New Delhi, India illustrates this relationship well. Their study revealed that teachers held positive dispositions towards the inclusion of students with disabilities, describing inclusion through themes of equality, diversity, social integration and holistic development of students. However, they expressed caution about implementing IE due to insufficient preparation, limited resources, and perceived difficulties of working with certain student groups. Carew et al.'s (2019) study further complicates this relationship between attitudes and implementation. By evaluating the impact of an intervention in the Lakes region of Kenya, designed to "increase teaching self-efficacy, improve inclusive beliefs, attitudes and practices, and reduce concerns around the inclusion of children with disabilities..." (p. 233), the researchers found that teachers improved their self-efficacy and reported more positive feelings towards IE after the intervention but there was no shift in their intention to adopt inclusive practices. These studies show that positive attitudes towards IE do not necessarily translate into willingness and ability to enact IE in their contexts.

Studies in the Indian context suggest that the awareness of IE does not necessarily translate into a strong understanding or implementation of inclusive pedagogical practices. In a study in rural

India, Taneja-Johansson et al. (2023) concluded that, although teachers held seemingly positive perceptions of the value of education for children with disabilities and expressed willingness to include them, they had limited understanding of its pedagogical implications. Similarly, in Karnataka, where this study is also situated, Ramchand (2025) examined teachers' conceptions and found that they lacked both conceptual understanding of how to make schools inclusive and the methodological awareness of inclusive practices.

An overwhelming pattern across studies on teachers' perceptions and attitudes is the lack of unconditional support for inclusion. Scruggs & Mastropieri's (1996) synthesis of teachers' perceptions of inclusion found that while many teachers agreed with the general idea of mainstreaming or inclusion, far fewer believed it was practically feasible for all children. Avramidis & Norwich (2002) made a similar argument in their review, noting that teachers' support for inclusion was shaped by conditions such as the nature and severity of disability, the child being included, the support available to the teacher, and the wider institutional conditions of the school. The literature, therefore, suggests that teachers conceptualise inclusion in terms of perceived possibility and feasibility. In India too, Singal (2008) defined "teachability" as an implicit framework that teachers used to decide which children could and could not be taught in the mainstream classroom. Thus, revealing that teachers' understanding of IE is partly shaped by their assumptions about the nature and purpose of mainstream education itself.

The conceptual ambiguity surrounding IE has also led to an unclear and incoherent understanding of the concept among practitioners (Singal, 2005; Singal & Rouse, 2003). In Hodgkinson & Deverakonda's (2009) study in a New Delhi school, teachers held a variety of different definitions of IE. One such understanding viewed IE as the process of helping children with disabilities catch up to grade level or meet the school's academic standards. From this perspective, inclusion is interpreted as helping the child adapt to the existing norms and demands of the mainstream classroom.

The misalignment between teachers' positive attitudes and practice also stems from teachers' understanding of disability itself. In rural India, Taneja-Johansson et al. (2023) found that "teachers' understanding of disabilities was predominantly shaped through deterministic and

deficit perspectives” (p.741). Spasovski (2010) argues that the beliefs that teachers hold towards students with disabilities reflect the larger societal stigmas and stereotypes. In India, Ghai (2015) argues that the society treats disability as an individual deficit and associates it with karma (bad deeds in the past), producing responses of sympathy towards persons with disabilities. These perspectives suggest that teachers' perceptions of inclusion are shaped not only by policies and professional training but also by wider socio-cultural understandings of disability.

A review of the research also yields a variety of concerns that teachers have about IE. Concerns such as inadequate facilities, large class sizes, insufficient support staff, limited knowledge of appropriate instructional methods, lack of prior contact with persons with disabilities, lack of confidence, high number of students with disabilities in the classroom, severity of students' disabilities and the effect of inclusion on able-bodied children's academic results, were found to influence teachers' attitudes and their assessment of whether inclusion was possible in their classrooms. (Das et al., 2013; Elton-Chalcraft et al., 2016; Singal, 2008; Shah et al., 2016). For instance, in a study of 560 government school teachers in Ahmedabad, India, Shah et al. (2016) reported that while teachers were only moderately concerned about including students with disabilities, their concern regarding infrastructural resources was stronger. These concerns are important because they suggest a gap between policy intentions and the institutional and material conditions within which teachers work.

This strand of research suggests that teachers' perceptions of IE cannot be merely reduced to positive or negative attitudes. Instead, they are shaped by wider policy discourses, societal understandings of disability, prior experiences and conditions. Thus, the present study analyses teachers' perceptions as situated interpretations of IE.

2.2 Teacher Preparedness and Professional Development for Inclusive Education

The preceding section showed that while teachers may support IE in principle, they are uncertain about how to implement it in the classroom. This uncertainty is not unfounded and frequently points to a larger concern about teacher preparedness or readiness⁶.

⁶ I use "preparedness" and "readiness" interchangeably, as reflected in the wider literature (Adams et al., 2025; Hay et al., 2001).

Research on teachers' preparedness for IE is concerned with teachers' knowledge, skills and beliefs required to enact inclusion (Adams et al., 2023; Porakari et al., 2015). Herein, studies typically examine teachers' self-reported preparedness through self-administered surveys (Majoko, 2017; Sito, 2020). While these measures have yielded useful data across contexts, the question of how teachers develop and enact their preparedness remains open.

Inferring from wider research in teacher education, Darling-Hammond (2000) suggests that “Teachers who have had more preparation for teaching are more confident and successful with students than those who have had little or none” (p. 166). Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) argue that inclusive pedagogy requires teachers to extend what is ordinarily available in the classroom, rather than provide something different or additional only for specific learners. Similarly, Florian and Rouse (2009) argue that there should be a shift from seeing disability as a specialist issue to preparing teachers to teach all learners. Their argument questions the idea that teachers can be prepared for IE merely by adding disability-related content to general teacher education, without fundamentally changing how teachers understand teaching itself. Preparedness for IE, in this sense, is not just developing specialist pedagogy and knowledge but also a broader pedagogic orientation towards difference.

A related strand of research explores teachers' self-efficacy – “ a belief in one’s personal capabilities” (Bandura, 1997, p.4). With regard to IE, it is interpreted as teachers' belief in their capacity to meet the demands of an inclusive classroom (Forlin et al., 2014). Self-efficacy has been found to be associated with greater teacher effort, improved performance, and more positive attitudes towards inclusion (Sharma et al., 2012; Tschannen-Moran, 1998). In a study conducted in Australia, Woodcock et al. (2022) found that the practices of teachers with high self-efficacy prioritised improving student success, accessibility and confidence, whereas teachers with low self-efficacy focused on behaviour management and student categorisation, highlighting the association between self-efficacy and inclusive practices. However, Loreman et al. (2013) caution careful interpretation as these studies measure only teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy and not their actual competence. This is a useful distinction for the present study, which also examines teachers' self-reported preparedness and does not intend to evaluate teachers' objective preparedness.

There is broad consensus across studies about the vital need to prepare teachers to meet the diverse needs of students with disabilities (Florian and Camedda, 2020; Srivastava et al., 2015; Triviño-Amigo et al., 2023). Across the literature, there is an overwhelming concern that teachers are underprepared for the inclusion of children with disabilities. In a review of research from 13 Asia Pacific countries, Sharma et al. (2013) found that the lack of suitably qualified and prepared teachers, ineffective or limited teacher education, and an ad hoc approach to upskilling teachers were common issues across the region. Similar evidence was gathered in South Asian contexts. Hettiarachchi and Das (2014) found that Sri Lankan special educators reported higher perceived competence than general education teachers and the absence of training and resources was noted as a major concern. In a quantitative study of 353 regular school teachers in Delhi, India, Das et al. (2013) reported that 70% had neither received any training in special education nor gained any experience teaching children with disabilities, and 87% lacked classroom support services. Consequently, teachers reported having limited or low competence to work with children with disabilities. Thus, these studies suggest that teachers reported underpreparedness cannot be understood solely as an individual deficit but must also consider the quality of teacher education and availability of systemic support .

However, the literature also shows that teacher preparation does not automatically produce inclusive practice. Forlin and Chambers (2011), for instance, note that while teacher education can increase knowledge about inclusion and confidence in teaching students with disabilities, it may also increase teachers' awareness of the difficulties involved and hence does not necessarily reduce their concerns.

2.2.1 Pre-service training

Given the centrality of teachers in realising IE in practice, pre-service teacher education is identified as an important site for developing positive beliefs and equipping teachers with knowledge and practical skills. Training has come to be seen as crucial for preparing teachers to respond to the challenges of an inclusive classroom (Forlin et al., 2013).

However, as Forlin (2012) argues, “...teacher education for inclusion in most regions has been tokenistic at best and non-existent at worst” (p. 4). In India, studies have found that pre-service programs provide limited, optional and overly theoretical content on disability inclusion, leaving teachers practically unsupported to work with students with disabilities (Dubey, 2026; Myreddi & Narayan, 2000; Sharma et al., 2009). Kaushik (2016) analysed 20 degree programmes in general education and 10 programmes in special education in India and noted that they fall short in preparing trainee teachers to identify students' learning needs, modify their teaching and learning techniques, and conduct appropriate assessments. Similarly, Bansal (2016) noted that ITE programmes do not provide opportunities to integrate theory with practice or develop confidence in implementing the teaching methods for diverse students. Moreover, teacher education is structurally separated into special and general education, with separate ministries overseeing them, and is further segregated by offering specialisations in specific, often single disabilities, which do not reflect the reality of diverse classrooms (Misquitta et al., 2024). These inadequacies of training are especially consequential since it is argued that “the content and the pedagogy of teacher education courses are by far the most significant predictors of student teachers’ attitudes to inclusion and diversity” (Sharma et al., 2008, p. 783).

2.2.2 In-service training

In-service professional training, or continuous professional development (CPD), is found to be necessary to equip teachers to support diverse students by continuously enhancing their skills (Bhatnagar & Das, 2013; Das et al., 2012). Sanjeev & Kumar (2007) note that a potential fix for the absence of pre-service teacher preparation for IE is post-certification professional development. However, Singal (2010) reported that teachers received only one to five days of training for teaching children with disabilities across their entire career with sessions largely focused on identification and management in the classroom.

In a study by Taneja-Johansson et al. (2023), teachers were concerned about the short duration of the in-service training, its limited relevance and the absence of any sustainable impact on their classroom practice. Several scholars have reported that long-term, systematic staff development programmes are more beneficial than short-term, one-off programmes (Das et al., 2013; David &

Kuyini, 2012). By contrast, Srivastava et al. (2015) demonstrated that a short-term training of 30 hours across four days for regular teachers in Jaipur, India, improved their attitudes towards IE as well as their understanding of the disabilities and inclusive methods covered in the training; however, classroom practice was beyond the scope of their study it remains unclear whether these changes translated into changes in teaching practice.

Beyond training duration, a review of the literature reveals concerns about both the content and its delivery. Kundu & Rice (2019), in a study examining educators' perceptions of their knowledge and skills in West Bengal, India, found that the training “camps” were largely unidirectional with little scope for collaborative learning. Further, teachers did not treat these programmes as meaningful opportunities to improve their practice. In a study on teachers' preferred mode of delivery for professional development programmes, Das et al. (2013) found that a significant number of teachers perceived in-person visits to model inclusive classrooms and on-site training as the most suitable modes.

2.2.3 Classroom experience

Besides formal training, classroom experience is an important yet less examined dimension of teachers' self-reported preparedness. Most survey-based studies treat experience as a background variable, but some have reported an association between teaching experience and preparedness for IE. Triviño-Amigo et al. (2023) discussed that teachers' perceived preparedness varied across their careers: the expert teachers described themselves as better prepared because they could draw on their knowledge of learners, classroom dynamics, and complex teaching scenarios, whereas novice teachers reported struggling to understand classroom cues. Beyond readiness, teachers' classroom experience was also found to be related to their attitudes towards IE. Costello et al. (2013) reported a significant reduction in teachers' positive attitudes towards IE over the course of their careers. Similarly, in an Indian study, Parasuram (2006) reported that the youngest teachers carried more positive attitudes than the more experienced teachers. However, the most experienced teachers with 25 or more years of experience also had positive attitudes, suggesting a non-linear relationship between the two.

The literature also indicates that experience improves teachers' confidence and support for IE (Lohrmann & Barbara, 2006; Mngo & Mngo, 2018). In the Indian context, Singal & Rouse's (2003) study revealed that, in the absence of adequate teacher training and support, teachers rely heavily on their prior experiences when including children with disabilities. Thus, in the present study, classroom experience is not merely a background demographic variable but is seen as an active dimension that informs how teachers make sense of their own preparedness.

In summary, the literature points to several interrelated factors associated with the dimensions of teachers' perceptions and self-reported preparedness for IE, including broader conceptual understandings of IE, assumptions about children with disabilities, professional training opportunities and prior classroom experiences. However, they fail to sufficiently unpack how government school teachers make meaning of inclusion and how these factors interact within everyday realities to shape teachers' preparedness. As a result, teachers are frequently understood through what they lack and not through the professional, systemic and structural conditions that shape their perceptions and their sense of what they are able to enact in practice. Thus, while teachers are studied extensively in relation to IE, they remain incompletely understood, sometimes misunderstood and blamed for ineffective implementation of IE. Herein, this study aims to address these gaps by steering away from deficit constructions of teachers and adopting a qualitative approach that highlights teachers' voices and foregrounds the real and limiting constraints they work within.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

3.1 The Social Model of Disability

Widely identified as underpinning the philosophy of IE, the social model of disability also forms the main theoretical framework for this study (Jenson, 2018). It emerged in opposition to the medical or individual model of disability (Oliver, 1996), in which disability is situated within the individual and is seen as a problem to be fixed or medically treated (Forhan, 2009). The medical model has been critiqued for carrying a deficit-based definition (Mitra, 2006) and for neglecting factors such as poverty or discrimination that could lead to an individual's supposed poor quality of life (Humpage, 2007). In this framework, teachers view the inclusion of students with

disabilities as challenging and time-consuming (Jia, 2022). Further, IE is understood as a model in which students with disabilities adapt to the educational institution, rather than the institution adapting to its learners (Anastasiou & Kauffman, 2011).

Rejecting this, the social model of disability was developed by distinguishing impairment - an individual's functional, physical or sensory limitations - from disability- a product of social environments that exclude people with impairment (Haegele & Hodge, 2016; Robertson & Jaswal, 2024). Finding impetus in the disability rights movement in the 1970s and 1980s, the model drew heavily from the civil rights perspective of disability advocates and the Union of Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS) (Robertson & Jaswal, 2024; Oliver, 1996).

Herein, the UPIAS laid the original definition for the model, stating:

In our view, it is society which disables physically impaired people. Disability is something imposed on top of our impairments by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and excluded from full participation in society. Disabled people are therefore an oppressed group in society. (UPIAS, 1975 in Shakespeare, 2010, p. 268)

This paradigmatic shift served as a means to see disability as a category of identity and politics through which disabled persons could demand rights, and reframed disability as a “non-negative category” of diversity, shifting away from viewing it as a “state of injury” (Anand, 2016). Most importantly, it identified the key forces that “dis-enable” people with impairments, as located in the environment, rather than in the person (Montgomery, 2012), prompting educators and policymakers to rethink how educational environments can be changed to meet the needs of students with disabilities.

In educational contexts, the social model diverts attention to the barriers that disable children and the present study sits within this analytical lens. Scholars have argued that, through the social model of disability, teachers understand IE as addressing exclusion and eliminating barriers to students' learning by identifying students' needs and making appropriate adaptations (Ainscow et al., 2019; Moriña & Carnerero, 2020). By extending this logic of the social model, teachers'

perceptions of disability and inclusion, alongside their professional preparation and structural support available, are identified as factors in the educational environment that could enable or 'dis-enable' inclusion.

The model lends itself to this study's analysis in multiple ways. It allows me to identify where teachers locate the "problem" - within the child as per the medical model or within the barriers in the education system as per the social model. Besides, it also enables a reading of who they allocate the responsibility to: whether the institution is expected to respond to a child's needs or whether the child is expected to adapt to existing systems. Importantly, the study uses the social model only to analyse teachers' framing and not to blame or criticise them for holding deficit views. It is consistent with Howes et al.'s (2009) call to treat every member of the school ecosystem as a human being, whether it's teachers, staff, or pupils. By noting that "teachers can lose the sensitivity they need to see and interact with children...with their expectations, constraints, hopes and fears" (p. 4), they recommend that the benefits of IE offered to students also be given to teachers, thereby giving the teachers an opportunity to be known and understood (Howes et al., 2009). Thus, the study is careful not to use the social model to judge the teachers, but to ground their perceptions and preparedness in the context of the conditions in which they work.

The social model is not without its criticisms, but remains a useful analytical framework. It has been criticised for neglecting the individual experience of impairment, for ignoring the intersections with other forms of oppression and for its GN origins and transfer to the GS where impairment is enmeshed with poverty and socio-cultural and religious notions of disability (Grech, 2011). In the Indian context, Anand (2016) argues that the distinction between impairment and disability is blurred when impairment itself is caused by poverty, and that the model's trajectory from a moral-religious model to a medical model and then to a social model cannot explain their coexistence. In light of these critiques, the study does not adopt the social model as a comprehensive explanation for disability or as a judgment on teachers, but rather as a heuristic lens that does not assume that a mixed cultural framing needs to be corrected. By adopting it in this limited manner, the model's weaknesses carry less weight in interpreting the findings.

3.2 Ecosystemic framework

I also draw on Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory (EST) as my secondary theoretical framework. As per EST, human development is shaped by interdependent systems that form the individual's context or environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Although the EST is often used to understand child development, in this study, it is neither used as a child developmental theory nor as a framework for level-by-level analysis. Instead, I follow Singal's (2006b) ecosystemic approach by placing the teacher at the centre of analysis and use EST to argue how different conditions across systems interact to enable or disable teachers from enacting IE. Several studies have used EST in the same way to understand teachers' perceptions, concerns and support needs (e.g. Trang Thu et al., 2022; Amponteng et al., 2026; Tiwari et al., 2025; White & Fletcher, 2026) as it explains how interconnections between systems, directly or indirectly, shape the education of children with SEN in inclusive schools (Tracey et al., 2021).

3.3 Bringing the Frameworks Together

The two theories are complementary in this study as they both oppose locating disability within the child and instead emphasise the interaction between the individual and external environmental conditions in which they are situated. While the social model directs the focus to external educational conditions that can be enabling or disabling to children's inclusion, EST explains how these conditions are themselves produced through an interaction of barriers across levels of the teachers' ecosystem. Together, they help move the study beyond simply measuring individual characteristics of teachers toward examining why teachers hold such perceptions and how their preparedness is formed, enabled or limited. This paired lens is especially useful given that the field site for my study is government schools, which are commonly characterised by shortage of teachers, inadequate facilities and resources, lack of non-teaching staff, poor infrastructure, and high student-teacher ratios (Taneja-Johansson et al., 2023; Ramchand, 2025). In such contexts, where conditions for inclusion are largely outside of a teacher's control, a framework that views disability and exclusion as created by environmental and physical barriers as opposed to a deficit within the child is particularly suitable.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Philosophical assumptions

The study is located within the critical realist paradigm and follows a relativist epistemological approach. These assumptions guide both the research design and the analytical decisions in this study.

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and what forms the truth. Through the critical realist stance, reality is stratified into three levels: the empirical, the actual and the real (Tikly, 2015). Critical realism (CR) aims to analyse and explain causal mechanisms by looking at what people can do within existing social contexts (Stutchbury, 2022).

CR is considered particularly useful for uncovering contradictions in complex and multilayered social phenomena (Cabote et al., 2024). In their study, Stylianou & Zembylas (2020) suggested that when the constructivist approach is used to examine teachers' negative attitudes, it claims that teachers' difficulties are solely subjective matters, and when the empiricist perspective is used, there is a tendency to overstate teachers' influence on student outcomes by obscuring other factors like students' socio-economic background. Thus, they use CR to study teachers' disempowerment in IE as it allows them to recognise that teachers' challenges are real, complex and beyond their reach.

The critical realist perspective, therefore, overcomes the reduction of educational phenomena or outcomes to seemingly isolated variables, such as teachers' preparedness, and instead views them as co-constructed through interactions among social, structural, and institutional mechanisms (Parra et al., 2021). Using this paradigm for this study is appropriate, as it allows teachers' perceptions and their sense of readiness to be understood not as personal shortcomings but as situated within a system.

Epistemology concerns the relationship between the knower and the known and how we gather knowledge of what exists. Within this study, CR is paired with a relativist epistemological position, recognising that access to reality is stratified, access to it is incomplete and all knowledge is situated, fallible, and socially produced (Tikly, 2015). In this study, the knowledge was accessed through teachers' situated interpretations of their experience and gathered through interviews designed to address the research questions. The interpretations were further mediated by my own

positioning as a researcher with experience as a former teacher and special educator in Karnataka. I elaborate on my positionality in detail in the Section 4.10

Importantly, CR guides the analysis solely as an interpretive framework, not as a formal analytic process. Therefore, the three levels of knowledge- empirical, actual and real are not operationalised as coding stages but rather informed how the data was interpreted. For instance, the analysis attended not only to the teachers' stated perceptions of IE (the empirical) but also the reasons they hold such perceptions (the actual) and the broader structural and institutional conditions that shape those perceptions (the real).

In sum, the adopted ontological stance, along with an epistemological perspective rooted in CR, helped me develop a cohesive qualitative research design. At the same time, I recognise that critical realism and the EST draw on theoretical traditions developed largely within the GN. They are therefore not used as universal explanatory frameworks and their application is interpreted through the socio-cultural and institutional specificities of the Indian context.

4.2 Research design

The study adopted a qualitative research design and used semi-structured interviews to gather data from government school teachers. As Creswell and Poth (2016) note, qualitative inquiry is suitable when “we need a complex, detailed understanding of the issue” (p.48), which, in this study, refers to how teachers, the key implementers of IE, understand IE and perceive their readiness to implement IE.

Alternative designs were considered before deciding on this approach. An ethnographic design through classroom observations would shift the attention to teachers' practice. However, the study's aim was not to evaluate inclusive practice in the classroom but to examine teachers' perceptions, experiences and perceived preparedness. Individual interviews were preferred over focus group discussions owing to the sensitive nature of certain questions regarding their preparedness, abilities, and assumptions about children with disabilities, which teachers may not feel comfortable sharing in group settings for fear of political incorrectness.

As Creswell and Poth (2016) state, an in-depth understanding “can only be established by talking directly with people...”. Further, aligning with the research rationale and the relativist epistemology, semi-structured interviews were deemed the most suitable method for this study,

given their capacity to surface teachers' personal narratives and lived experiences as well as contextual factors shaping these dimensions that would otherwise remain obscured in studies using pre-defined surveys or standardised scales. Moreover, qualitative interviews are among the best ways to access the “actual” domain as per CR (Bhaskar, 1975), allowing us to understand what lies partially outside the observable and understand why teachers hold certain perceptions. Besides, the semi-structured nature of the interview gave participants the flexibility to share any other information they considered relevant.

4.3 Field site

The research was undertaken in Bengaluru, the capital city of Karnataka in Southern India. As per the 2011 census, Karnataka has 3,30,781 children with disabilities between the ages of five and nineteen years, and 62.8% of them attend educational institutions (Government of India [GoI], 2011). Bengaluru (Urban), where this study is situated, has the highest number of persons with disabilities in Karnataka, at 2,74,230, against the state total of 13,24,205 (GoI, 2011).

The state of Karnataka is one of the few states with a Draft State Education Policy for Inclusive Education providing state-specific goals and strategies to operationalise them (MHRD, 2006). As Singal & Muthukrishna (2016) note, the policy has a strong equity orientation, extending beyond access to include issues of learning quality and student progression. For in-service teachers, the paper encouraged training in “reasonable accommodations” for IE and adaptations to curriculum, pedagogy and assessments.

4.4 Sampling Strategy

A purposive sampling approach was used to select the participants in this study. Given the specific focus on regular teachers teaching children with disabilities in mainstream government schools, a multi-stage sampling approach was followed to identify participants with relevant experience.

Not all government schools in Bengaluru have enrolled students with disabilities, so the first stage involved identifying schools with such children. Although I had initially requested access to schools with the highest enrollment of students with disabilities, representing a diversity of disability types, the Block Inclusive Education Resource Teacher (BIERT)⁷ exercised considerable

⁷ The BIERT is responsible for taking care of children with disabilities in each block by ensuring academic support and therapeutic services.

discretion in school selection and directed me to teachers she considered more likely to provide rich accounts. To partially address this selection bias, I requested access to and interviewed all the teachers who fit the selection criteria in their schools as opposed to the specific ones I was suggested. Based on her recommendation, four schools in Block ⁸ Two of North Bangalore were selected. None of the schools had more than five students with disabilities, and while this figure appears seemingly low for schools with 400-500 students, it was consistent with the broader setting. School 1 (S1) had five students with disabilities; School 2 (S2) had four; and School 3 (S3) and School 4 (S4) had three each. Local education officials informally noted that schools in urban Bangalore typically have two to five students with disabilities, and that even in schools with higher enrollment, students do not attend in person but receive home-based education services. Once schools were identified, the headteachers at each school provided a list of teachers who had firsthand experience working with students with disabilities at their school, forming the study's participant pool. The profiles of my participants are summarised in Table 1 below.

The resulting sample comprised teachers who met three criteria:

1. Possess a teacher training qualification
2. Currently employed in a government school with students with disabilities
3. Have at least 1 year of experience teaching children with disabilities alongside children without disabilities.

The resulting sample should therefore be understood as purposive and context-specific rather than representative of government school teachers across Bengaluru.

4.5 Participant overview

A group of 13 government school teachers from across four primary and secondary schools in North Bengaluru, Karnataka, participated in this study. The participants had between two and thirty-five years of teaching experience and had varied professional qualifications. All participants and other individuals mentioned in this study have been anonymised using pseudonyms.

The teachers reported experience working with students with different types of disabilities such as visual and hearing impairments, autism spectrum disorder and learning disabilities. Although the

⁸ A block is a district sub-division for planning and administrative purposes.

students had been diagnosed and received a disability identity card from the government, teachers were often unable to specify the exact diagnoses and often described the disabilities using outdated and ableist terminology, as noted in the right most column of Table 1.

Table 1: Participant demographics

Participant (School number)	Total years of teaching experience	Teacher's verbatim description of the students' disabilities
Gauri (S1)	10	"backward in learning"; "mentally challenged"; "leg disability"; "very mentally challenged"; "not very mentally stable, and very weak"
Sanu (S1)	18	"doesn't even open their mouth"; "cannot see"; "mouth... affected"; "blind child"; "doesn't know the language"; "doesn't know how to eat"
Suma (S1)	22	"locomotor disorder"; "learning disability"; "dumb and deaf"; "bedridden"; "couldn't communicate"; "writes all the letters in the same structure"
Charu (S1)	27	"body imbalance"; "nerve weakness"; "cannot see properly"; "legs are a bit different"; "mentally challenged children"; "couldn't hear or speak"
Kaveri (S2)	2	"physical and mental"; "physical handicap"; "can't write"; "can't hear"; "hand writing isn't very fast"; "doesn't understand"

Sakhi (S2)	20	“ear-related or eye-related disability”; “cannot hear”; “blind problem; she can only see if she’s very close”; “leg problem”;
Aswi (S2)	23	“handicapped”; “his legs are not fine”; “muscles in the back are enlarged”; “behind in learning”; “mentally disabled children”
Gita (S3)	18	“physical or mental... deficiencies”; “screams”; “hyper”; “can’t hear”; “blind”; “physically very weak”; “don’t know how to speak”
Gloria (S3)	30	“heart problem”; “mentally, physically, and even in education and learning, he is lacking”; “fully mentally disabled”; “wants to roam fully around the class”; “won’t sit”; “not speaking”
Sushma (S3)	35	“cannot hear”; “can’t speak”; “don’t have hands”; “can’t see properly”; “don’t sit”; “don’t listen”
Bhargavi (S4)	27	“a bit blind”; “mentally or physically, all of it”; “he speaks, but he doesn’t understand anything”; “mute children”;
Chandni (S4)	28	“locomotive problem”; “mentally retarded, what they call autism”; “blind”; “hearing problems”; “sight problems”; “doesn’t respond”; “no writing skills”; “starts screaming”; “starts crying”
Sara (S4)	28	“speech isn’t proper”; “lacks concentration”; “doesn’t write anything”; “cannot recognise letters”; “dyslexia”; “can’t even remember things”; “concentration power is not there”

4.6 Data collection

In this study, I adopted a qualitative research design and gathered data through semi-structured interviews. The interviews were oriented around four interconnected areas: teachers' conceptual understanding of IE; their perceptions about including children with disabilities in mainstream classrooms; their reflections on teacher training, classroom experience and professional preparedness to enact IE; and the forms of support they identify as necessary to realise IE in their schools. To ensure alignment with the study's aims, the interviews were guided by an interview guide designed around the research objectives and questions as found in Appendix A.

The interviews were conducted on the school premises in often less than ideal conditions such as unused classrooms and storage rooms, and were occasionally interrupted due to inadequate staffing and administrative demands. In one case (Sanu), the interview was conducted in the presence of a child with autism in the same room, as the school was short-staffed. These details, although seemingly insignificant, reflect the structural conditions and material realities within which teachers are expected to implement IE.

All interviews were conducted in Kannada, the official state language of Karnataka, except for one (Gloria), which was conducted largely in English because the teacher felt more comfortable speaking in English. The face-to-face, one-on-one interviews were conducted during the teachers' non-teaching hours at the school. Voluntary informed consent to participate was obtained before each interview, and a total of 16 interviews were conducted, including three pilot interviews. The pilot interviews were used to refine the interview guide, allowing me to identify questions that need rephrasing, topics that need additional prompting and sections that need more time. These interviews were not included in the final analytic sample of 13 participants. Using this, I made appropriate changes to the sequence, pace and wording of my questions for the main interviews. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes and was audio recorded and saved in a password-protected file on my personal device.

4.7 Data Analysis

I used Braun and Clarke's (2006, 2022) six-step reflexive thematic analysis to analyse my qualitative data. This approach was chosen because it is well suited to the study's philosophical foundation of CR in that the researchers' subjective and interpretive engagement is embraced rather

than minimised (Ahmed, 2025). It is also a particularly useful form of analysis for understanding participants' meanings, realities, and experiences, which are a key focus of this research (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The analysis followed a systematic process involving data translation and familiarisation, coding, categorising, theme identification, and theme review. The analysis was primarily inductive, and the codes and themes were developed through a close engagement with the teachers' accounts. However, it was also informed in part by my study's research questions and theoretical framework. For example, the social model of disability was used as a sensitising lens to analyse where and how teachers located disability and responsibility with regard to IE. The analysis was therefore understood as an interpretive and reflexive process in which themes were actively constructed through engagement between the data, the research questions, the theoretical framework and my own analytical positioning.

The translation of interviews, which required close attention to the nuances of the teachers' accounts, formed the first step in my analysis. Some key interpretive decisions are recorded in section 4.8. Following Braun & Clarke (2006) six steps, I familiarised myself with the translated data by conducting multiple readings and noting recurring patterns across the interviews. Next, I generated initial codes capturing features relevant to my research questions. Coding occurred at both the semantic and latent levels. Apart from what participants explicitly expressed, I also focused on the implicit assumptions underlying their responses, particularly in how teachers conceptualised disability and inclusion. The coding process was done manually in Google Docs, without using any data analysis software. In the next stage, I grouped similar codes to form themes based on their similarities and overlaps. Rather than treating themes as categories into which similar codes were sorted, themes were developed around central organising ideas that captured analytically significant patterns across participants' accounts. Subsequently, the emerging themes and subthemes were reviewed against the coded segments and the wider data corpus to ensure they were internally consistent and externally distinct (Christou, 2022). Finally, I defined and named the themes before writing the analytic narrative, selecting relevant extracts that illustrated and supported each interpretation and answered my research questions. An example of the codes and themes corresponding to quotes can be found in Appendix E, and a section of the codebook in Appendix F.

4.8 Navigating Linguistic Issues in Translation

Translation is a non-neutral, interpretive act and forms the first step of data analysis. As Temple & Young (2004) argue, translation involves conscious decisions about language that are shaped by the translator's epistemic, cultural and social positioning, informing what becomes visible and what remains hidden. Since the interviews were conducted in Kannada and translated into English for analysis, some of the key decisions are made transparent here, particularly given the study's critical realist perspective.

Although Kannada is my second language, the linguistic familiarity does not guarantee neutrality in my meaning-making process. Multiple terms carried more than one meaning and connotation, requiring interpretive choices. Herein, a few specific decisions require clarification. An important example is “Samanviya Shikshana”, the Kannada term for inclusive education as per policy documents. This term also translates to “equal education” or “same education”, shaping several participants' conceptual understanding and descriptions of IE. The second decision is regarding the scope of IE. During analysis, unless participants directly referenced the broader understanding of IE, their accounts were interpreted as referring to the inclusion of children with disabilities. Finally, all the quotations have been reproduced verbatim, including grammatical irregularities arising from translation, as they carry relevant information about the affective context. Herein, it would be important to acknowledge that several participants used terminology that is now considered ableist, deficit, exclusionary or socially stigmatising. As translation should not sanitise or polish the data, such terms and phrases were retained and reproduced in the findings since they contain analytically rich information about the participants' conceptual frameworks of disability.

4.9 Ethical considerations

The study was conducted in accordance with the general ethical guidelines of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, Spain, and permission was sought from officials in India, where the study is based. To conduct educational research in India, formal permission must be obtained from the relevant state and district educational authorities. After multiple attempts, both via email and in-person requests over a five-month period, the approvals were received from multiple education officials in the Karnataka public education system, including the Department of State Educational Research and Training (DSERT) (see Appendix B), the Deputy Director of Public Instruction

(DDPI), and the Block Education Officer (BEO) (see Appendix C). Upon selecting the schools, consent was also obtained from the headteachers at each of the four schools. Thus, research was approved at all administrative levels before accessing participants.

Considering the excessive workload and staff shortages in the selected schools, the interviews were scheduled a few days in advance, at the participants' convenience, and completed within the agreed duration to avoid additional burden. Although all participants were adults, in one interview, the teacher had to bring along her student with autism due to staff shortages. No information was collected from the child, and it was only noted as reflective of the material conditions of the teacher's workplace.

All participants were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary, and their consent was obtained through a consent letter detailing their voluntary intention to participate, the risks and benefits involved, their rights to the transcripts of the recorded interview, and their privacy and confidentiality (see Appendix D). The consent letter was available in both English and Kannada for participants to engage with, depending on their familiarity. Written consent was obtained before the interview, and consent to audio record was also sought verbally at the start of the interview. I tried to ensure that their participation was entirely voluntary and not seen as an institutional obligation.

4.10 Positionality

I am a citizen of India and grew up in the Bengaluru district, where this research is situated. My motivation for this research emerged from my own academic and professional trajectory. I trained as a teacher and then took on the role of a special educator in a private school in Bengaluru, despite lacking specialised training.

My experience as a former teacher working with students with learning disabilities at a private school gave me familiarity with the experience of an untrained teacher but it did not make me an insider in the government school. I entered the field as an outsider because I was viewed as a privileged, English-speaking, Hindu researcher studying in a foreign country. Any common ground was outweighed by these obvious gaps. In some cases, however, teachers who noticed my previous role as a special educator, as mentioned in the consent letter, treated me as an expert and asked me what the “solution” to their problem was and how I could help them. This revealed their belief that expertise in disability inclusion lies with special educators.

My positionality as a woman made me feel accepted and welcome, as all the participants at the school were women. However, during the permission-acquisition process, four of the five education officers who denied permission were male. Besides, as a young researcher, I found it more challenging to negotiate access with senior officials, whose hesitation sometimes seemed to be influenced by my apparent age. Thus, my position changed before different individuals and in different settings.

As a researcher educated at universities in the Global North, I was aware that I was using Western educational theories and concepts, such as the social model of disability and inclusive education, to study the lived realities and experiences of Indian teachers. I was mindful of the development discourse's tendency to look "North" for knowledge and to identify "best practices" and generalisable solutions and I resisted the tendency to impose those ideas onto my interpretation of the interview data.

My linguistic positioning was also important since I conducted the interviews in Kannada, my second language and translated them into English. While my familiarity with the language enabled me to build rapport with the teachers, my limited proficiency was sometimes evident in my fumbles and incorrect pronunciations. There were also disagreements over terminology, with teachers insisting on calling students with disabilities "special children". Since I was careful not to impose GN discourse, I did not correct them during the interviews but only treated it as analytic points for how they understand disability.

Throughout my research, I remained reflexive and recorded any questions or dilemmas and revisited them during my data analysis and thesis writing stages.

Chapter 5: Findings

This chapter presents the study's findings across three broad themes with relevant excerpts from the interviews. The first theme captures how teachers conceptualised IE and defined its goals; the second presents teachers' understanding of their preparedness and their reflections on training and experience in relation to preparedness; and the third and final theme explores the structural barriers to IE, the kinds of support teachers considered essential for enacting IE and the personal motivations that sustained inclusive practices. Prior to presenting the findings, the chapter briefly notes the limitations of the study.

5.1 Limitations

The sample of 13 teachers across four government schools was drawn from a single Block in urban Bengaluru, Karnataka, and hence was fairly homogeneous. Access to government schools was determined by gatekeepers at different levels, and the schools they directed me towards may have introduced a selection bias towards teachers who were actively engaged in IE. Additionally, all participants were female, subject teachers, and inadvertently excluding the perspectives of male teachers and co-curricular teachers. Thus, the findings cannot be generalised to all teachers in the city's public schools. Future research could broaden and diversify the sampling across both urban and rural settings to examine whether the findings still hold in different contexts.

As the study relied entirely on self-reported data, it captures teachers' perceptions and accounts rather than directly observed classroom practice. The study therefore cannot establish how accurately participants' perceived preparedness corresponds to their enacted practices and may over- or underestimate their actual preparedness. Additionally, given that inclusion is accepted because it is a "politically correct" idea (Kalyanpur, 2008; Holdsworth, 2002), participants may have given socially desirable answers that may not correspond with their everyday behaviour. Future research could incorporate classroom observations to corroborate these interview accounts and provide a clearer picture of the translation of preparedness to practice.

5.2 Theme 1: Conceptualisation of Inclusive Education

5.2.1 Inclusion as Sameness, Togetherness and Erasure of Difference

All 13 participants defined IE around the idea that children with disabilities should be in the same classroom as the children without disabilities. Their definitions leaned more towards the concept of integration, understanding it as a physical placement of children with disabilities in mainstream schools rather than as a larger pedagogical and institutional change. Kaveri described IE as "bringing together all children, teaching all children together", and Sanu defined it as "teaching children who study well along with the backward children as equivalent." Both definitions suggest mere co-presence rather than changes to curriculum, pedagogy, assessment or institutional structures. This understanding could be shaped by the Kannada term "Samanviya Shikshana",

which loosely translates to equal or same education for all and appeared to reinforce an understanding of inclusion as providing the same educational experience to all students regardless of their differing needs.

Within this understanding, several teachers suggested that bringing the children together would erase the children's sense of difference, so they would not feel separated, different, or inferior, and instead would feel "just like us", referring to able-bodied individuals. As Sushma explained, "When they mingle, the child forgets the disability present in their body at that time..."

Gauri expressed a similar perspective and shared that "Along with all children, those children should also adapt, and the child should develop the idea that they have no shortcomings... so that the idea of being different should not come." Her account placed responsibility on the child to adapt to the existing educational environment rather than on the environment to respond to the child's needs.

Bhargavi actively cultivated this idea of sameness among all her students, stating, "...they shouldn't develop the conception that they are a special child. I try every year to instill a feeling in the children, saying he is just like us," while Charu completely de-emphasised the difference and stated, "What I feel is, I don't feel like they're different".

The intention was to be protective as they wanted to shield the children from isolation, shame and stigma; however, they exhibited discomfort in acknowledging differences. Thus, the acceptance of students with disabilities was made dependent on minimising or erasing disability rather than recognising it as a valid form of human difference. Disability-affirming language was largely absent from their accounts. Instead, their understanding of inclusion reflected the sameness-difference dilemma (Johansson et al., 2025). For instance, in the same interview in which Bhargavi insisted that the child is "just like us", she also described how the child's peers supported him with feeding, toileting and movement. Thus, while the difference exists and is experienced by the child and witnessed by his peers, the teacher verbally de-emphasises it.

The findings therefore suggest that while teachers' understanding of IE is shaped by a commitment to non-discrimination, it does not translate into an understanding of disability as a part of the human condition.

5.2.2 Conditional inclusion and the “Handleable” Child

Although the term IE in policy documents predominantly refers to the inclusion of children with disabilities, the analysis of teachers' accounts highlighted how, in practice, it was actually limited to only some children with disabilities. While teachers were supportive of IE in principle and felt that diversity is valuable in a classroom, many defined explicit conditions under which children with disabilities can be meaningfully included in mainstream classrooms. These boundaries were expressed in terms of the perceived severity of the disability, the availability of resources, and the extent to which the child could comprehend instructions.

Gauri expressed this clearly, stating, “it will be better if we include children who we can handle.” Here, “handle” goes beyond just teaching. Further analysis showed that it referred to whether the child can be managed within the existing classroom and school realities: 40-minute periods, large class sizes, heavy non-teaching workloads, pressure to complete the syllabus, inadequate IE training and lack of support staff. For instance, Gauri reported her concern with balancing demands in the limited time, stating, “I feel that 40 minutes is not enough for me to complete my lesson and handle that child. Personally, I can't do all that alone.”

Teachers also constructed hierarchies of “handleable” disabilities. Students with physical impairments were often considered more manageable as they could still understand instructions, write and participate academically, whereas those with autism, intellectual disabilities and communication barriers were considered difficult to work with and, in some cases, better suited to special schools. Herein, Gauri expressed that:

It feels doable if there are children who can be taught. But if they are very mentally challenged, it will be difficult. But if there are people like Avni (a child with physical disability) in our class, it doesn't feel very difficult.

Following this line of thought, Chandni also perceived that “For children with autism, it feels like that special school is the only place for them.” And Aswi tried to quantify the percentage of disability for which she believed IE can be implemented, sharing that “We cannot do this for children who are above 90%. We can do this for children who are abnormal at 50% or 60%”.

None of the teachers rejected IE as a principle, though they described perceived thresholds of “includeability” and “handleability” based on both within-child and system-related conditions. IE, as these teachers understood and enacted it, was conditional, uneven, and contingent on the child’s perceived “fit” within the existing institutional structure that has not been changed enough to support them.

5.2.3 Social Participation Without Curricular Access

The interviews revealed that, in practice, IE primarily served social, emotional, and functional purposes, laying considerably less emphasis on academic ones. Teachers identified daily participation in school life, peer socialisation, development of activities of daily living and relational care as the most valuable aspects of IE, while accessing the curriculum or experiencing academic achievement was a distant prospect and, in several cases, not even the goal for such children.

Bhargavi’s goal for her students illustrates this well:

My hope is that we should teach him how to live in a society, and I have a wish to teach them how to live independently in this society...more than showing them concern, we should show them a way to shape their future.

Gita emphasised the importance of learning skills of living, “Let each skill develop - learn to sit in line with everyone, take a plate and eat...Even if she doesn't know anything, she understands it... something is better than nothing.” The significance of this “something”, referring to the social and functional dimensions of IE, cannot be dismissed. In government schools, where children with disabilities typically come from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, they are doubly disadvantaged and at risk of not just educational exclusion but also of social isolation and home confinement. Thus, simply attending school, building friendships, wearing uniforms, eating meals, dancing, and playing carry significant value, according to the teachers. This finding, however, is simultaneously troubling because IE in practice appears to be distant from meaningful educational access. Gita reflected on curricular demands and assessment styles, stating, “We give tests, children keep writing tests, and this child just sits quietly. If they don't know how to write this, how will they write the test?... Education-wise, we can’t deliver the curriculum, but only the co-

curriculum.” Besides, Chandni had a concerningly limiting view of inclusion where she viewed her responsibility entirely through custodial care, explaining, “We feed them, and they stay until evening and then leave,”

Sara offered a reflective account of this experience:

Earlier, such children had separate schools... they had a specialisation there.. It used to be a bit effective for them back then. Here, we take it commonly with everyone, and that's a good thing. But somewhere, it feels like it's not reaching the children that much... It's like we've let him go somewhere, isn't it?...there are both merits and demerits. We cannot see it from just one side.

The findings therefore reveal a gap between the policy promise of IE and its enactment, raising the question of whether “something is better than nothing” has become the working definition for IE in these government schools.

5.3 Theme 2: Self-perceived Preparedness: Professional Training and Classroom Experience

5.3.1 “We read all the theory”: Limits of Pre-service Training

The teachers' exposure to IE during their ITE was highly varied but most commonly reported as limited, entirely theoretical, and basic. Most of the teachers had completed their Teacher Certificate Higher (TCH) or Diploma in Education (D.Ed) programmes well before IE was made mandatory, while recent Bachelor's in Education (B.Ed) graduates had been introduced to IE through a class discussion or a single textbook chapter. Despite the varied experiences, teachers repeatedly distinguished between knowing IE in theory and feeling prepared to implement it in the classroom.

Gita, a teacher with 18 years of experience, shared that “Actually, what happens is that during the training period, we just read in books...we read all the theory, marks will come, but really...we will know only when we work with the children.”

When asked how she feels about her preparation to implement IE, Kaveri, a teacher with two years of experience, described her engagement with IE training as mostly instrumental and her preparation as partial. She described it as “Not 100% because we don't have any kind of training” and further explained that “We just study for TET (Teacher Eligibility Test), CTET (Central Teacher Eligibility Test) purpose while doing B.Ed.”

The insufficiency of theoretical training became clearer when teachers were required to use different forms of communication or pedagogical techniques they had not been trained in. Chandni expressed her inability to communicate with her hearing-impaired student, explaining, “In the classroom, the deaf and dumb girl, if I observe, she definitely doesn't respond at all. We don't have any sign language training, right?” Gita, similarly noted struggling with children with specific disabilities, stating, “It will be difficult for us to implement that...teaching those who don't know how to speak, for all that, there should be special training for the teachers. We are just normal trained teachers.”

Teachers improvised through gestures, front-bench seating, louder speech and exaggerated lip movement, but also acknowledged that these strategies did not necessarily lead to meaningful engagement or learning.

While it was clear that the preparation was partial and uneven, the findings did not show that pre-service training was irrelevant. Some of the participants noted that the exposure, albeit limited, had contributed to a conceptual orientation and psychological readiness. However, it was interesting to note that, as someone who graduated most recently with a B.Ed, Kaveri shared that she was taught to use “specially-abled children”, a term that is widely critiqued as ableist and not disability affirming.

The overall pattern that emerged was that ITE made teachers aware of IE, but did not improve their practical preparedness for how to include children with disabilities in the classroom.

5.3.2 "One Time, That's It" : In-service training

Teachers reported in-service training in the form of induction training upon appointment, occasional education department training or compulsory online modules. Although none of the teachers had access to all three, and some had none at all, the perceived usefulness of these

opportunities varied among participants based on their availability, regularity, and mode of delivery.

Some participants noted brief and limited in-service training. Gauri noted that in her 10 years of service, her engagement with IE was limited to one compulsory online module to obtain a certificate of completion. “Just one time, that's it,” she said.

Chandni, in her 28 years of teaching, noted that “Until now, the training hasn't been given by the department. Some teachers have it, apparently. But until now, as far as I've seen, no one has come.”

Charu's interview further showed that even when training exists, it may reach teachers only through a cascade model that offers little to no room for dialogue. She described how “they give it to one person, and they go to school and tell everything.”

Sakhi suggested the importance of regular and continuous training:

Every year, there are different kinds of children. So, when we are given training, we gain new experiences. We come here to use these things for children and involve them in learning...they give us options there... we ask them doubts then... they guide us.

Teachers found training most useful when it was immersive and interactive. Sara shared that attending a 10-day residential programme at a special school contributed to her practice.

Thus, in-service training strengthened preparedness when it moved beyond raising awareness towards providing more practical and context-sensitive guidance. However, teachers' access to such training was uneven and its effectiveness depended on the form of delivery, frequency and relevance to their classroom realities.

5.3.3 "If I Were to Say It in One Word, It's Experience"

Across all accounts, teachers reported classroom experience as the strongest source contributing to improved preparedness and confidence in practising IE. As Suma described it clearly, “If I were to say it in one word, it's experience.” Gloria further reiterated the value of experience, explaining,

“They gave a little bit (training)...And no matter how much I had, it was all experience... you should be inside, come to the class.”

Many teachers saw their students’ improvement as evidence of their own improved preparedness and confidence. Gloria described six years of consistent work with a child: “Before, in first standard, second standard, he was not speaking. Now he can speak... now he is ready to write and say the father’s mobile number.” Aswi proudly shared that one of the students she enrolled at the school is now pursuing higher education, while Gauri shared that the student’s growing confidence made her feel, "We achieved something, didn't we?"

It was clear that the teachers' preparedness was closely tied to their classroom experiences that accumulated over the years. Gloria was able to develop a toolkit of pedagogical techniques specifically for her student because of her personal motivation and long-term engagement with him and Gauri’s sustained relationship with Avni across four years allowed her to learn ways to engage her and manage her emotions.

Chandni searched the internet to learn sign language to communicate with her hearing-impaired child, and Sanu, having learnt through observation that her student responds to visual stimuli, taught herself to draw numbers as animal shapes for him to colour. In the absence of regular in-service training, teachers often learn through their own initiative. Gloria notes this with directness: “Taking care of CWSN depends on their teacher.”

The findings revealed that experience improved preparedness but did not erase the need for ongoing professional learning. Preparedness developed through experience, while valuable, is fragile, uneven and dependent on individual motivation rather than institutionalised support.

5.4 Theme 3: Structural Barriers, Support Needs and Sustaining Inclusion

5.4.1 Overburdened and Undersupported

One of the strongest patterns across the interviews was a tension between teachers’ willingness to implement IE, their varying sense of preparedness, and their perceived ability to enact it under

existing conditions. This central tension was captured most clearly in Charu's account: "We have the will, we know how to do it, we have experience, we are ready to do it, but we are not able to."

Teachers found themselves unable to implement IE due to large class sizes, lack of clerical support, excessive non-teaching duties, teacher shortages, insufficient time, and curricular demands. Chandni described her specific school staffing challenges as contributing to her inability, explaining, "If one or two teachers take leave... all the sections will be combined...in each class, there will be 70 to 80 children. It is becoming very difficult for us to manage with those many children." Gita reflected on the effect of these conditions, expressing, "I don't feel that prepared because now there are a lot of burdens...there is a lot of time shortage... Inclusive education should be provided. We are not able to do that much, 100%." In such conditions, teachers experienced time given to children with disabilities as competing with time for the rest of the class.

This was further compounded by the absence of any support staff. Charu described that teachers' roles and responsibilities are beyond just classroom instruction, stating, "We have BBMP ⁹ work after school hours. There are 500-600 children here. There are no clerks...We are the Jawan (soldier) to Diwan (leader) in our government schools."

Similarly, Sanu's experience illustrated the struggle with not having support staff:

I cannot prepare this child with those children...I have to teach him how to wash his butt. There are no helpers in our school, we have to wash them ourselves... We don't have a cleaning staff in our school.

Teachers in this study were heavily involved in managing administrative duties, feeding the children, ensuring playground safety, monitoring student pick-up, and, in some cases, providing intimate personal care, revealing that the structural conditions in government schools placed a heavy burden on teachers, hindering them from practising inclusion.

⁹ BBMP stands for Bruhat Bengaluru Mahanagara Palike. It is the municipal and administrative body responsible for civic amenities in the city. Teachers are often tasked with collecting census data, vaccination drives, election related work etc. by the BBMP.

5.4.2 Teachers' Support Needs

Contrary to studies reporting that teachers desired more training (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014; Mohanty & Nanda, 2017), teachers in this study did not seek more training when asked what would help. Instead, they requested support in the form of specialist teachers, helpers, designated periods for working with children with disabilities, reduced administrative burden and collective responsibility.

Sushma questioned the use of training, stating, “Even if they did provide training, it will be good and effective only if those teachers (teachers with special education training) themselves are provided.”

Gita proposed a different kind of allocation of responsibilities:

Instead of giving training to all the existing teachers, someone among us should be made into a special teacher... If you want them to be successful, there should be a trained person for that. They should take special periods.

The interviews also showed that external support systems, while available in some schools, were not integrated into everyday practice. Several teachers reported that trained NGO educators made occasional visits to the school and worked with children with disabilities in a separate classroom. However, their interaction was limited to the children, and it did not strengthen the teachers' capacity.

A few teachers also identified support required for inclusion beyond the school. Charu shared how she witnessed a girl with disability being touched inappropriately by the driver while travelling from school. She raised concerns about the vulnerability of children outside school, sharing that, “The poor child won't understand. Such a child will become a sacrificial animal, won't they? They take advantage, don't they?... Parents and teachers take care. But in the middle? society should also take that into account.”

Expanding the meaning of IE, Charu understood it not only in terms of material resources or special educators but also in terms of safe transport and social responsibility, particularly for girls with disabilities. Suma also noted how parental refusal to obtain a UDID card for their child cuts

off access to disability-specific provisions. She shared that “Many children hide it, parents hide it... They don't even get it certified... because it's lifelong that person is called disabled.”

Sakhi's school had a resource centre equipped with teaching and learning materials for students with disabilities. They also had frequent paraprofessional visits, and she herself was allocated the responsibility of overseeing disability inclusion at the school. Her account served as a contrasting case, showing that when adequate support was available, they experienced lower burden and greater confidence.

Thus, there was a constant tension between feeling ready and being unable to enact IE. The teachers did not entirely reject their responsibility towards children with disabilities but were forced to question whether IE can be implemented within the existing structural and material conditions.

5.4.3 Inclusive Education Sustained by Internal Motivations

In the absence of structural support, as described in Theme 2, teacher efforts towards inclusion were sustained by care, professional duty, religious vocation and moral consciousness. These motivations often enabled teachers to exceed formal expectations but simultaneously made inclusion dependent on teachers' goodwill.

Several teachers located their care for children in their maternal identity. For instance, Charu extended her empathy as a mother, sharing, “Now, if my child was born like that in my own house... As a mother, what can I do when such children are born?... I've just learned to balance things out and move on.” Similarly, Sanu expressed that “We have done it for our own kids, right?... We don't feel any sadness because we also raised our children”.

Across several teachers' accounts, students with disabilities were described using the Kannada term “paapa”, which translates to “poor thing” or “unfortunate soul”. While this prompted teachers to act with care, it also positioned the child as an object of pity and sympathy rather than a rights-holder.

The care motivated teachers to advocate for children with disabilities. Charu encouraged a family to enrol their daughter, whose legs had been burned by her father because he wanted a boy child. “Tears welled up in my eyes seeing that child... but that child even went up to high school”, she shared. Bhargavi described having “a special interest” in children with disabilities and shared that she felt obliged to “give something to those children”. Amidst these narratives, teachers also saw IE as part of their professional duty. Kaveri shared, “Whatever the child may be, teaching is my profession”

Gloria repeatedly described work with children with disabilities as a religious obligation. She shared, “For these kids I should serve. Isn't it? Our duty is serving... You should be scared of God... Tomorrow, one day, I have to answer.” However, in the same conversation, she also stated that “The child has a right. Right to study wherever they can go. When they ask, “I want to come, teach me, my duty is to teach.”

Teachers' accounts therefore combined charity, duty, and rights-based reasoning and while internal motivations such as care and moral consciousness served as an important driver of IE, it did not substitute for systemic and structural support.

Chapter 6: Discussion

This chapter discusses the findings in relation to existing research on disability-inclusive education, teacher preparedness and inclusive education in India. It is organised around three arguments. First, that IE is being implemented in a system that has not been entirely transformed for disability inclusion; second, that teachers’ preparedness is better understood as situated and ecological, as opposed to a stable, individual attribute; and third, that the limits of inclusion have to be understood beyond teacher blame and through the responsibility of the system.

6.1 The Limits of Inclusion in an Unchanged System

The findings of this study must be understood in light of the long-standing conceptual ambiguity surrounding IE in the Indian discourse (Singal, 2005, 2006a). Taneja-Johansson's (2014) study found that while IE was accepted for its “goodness”, there was no clarity about what it meant, who had to be included and where. The present study extends these findings by showing that this

ambiguity was not confined to policy texts but also shaped teachers' interpretations of IE, their responsibilities in the classroom, and the goals of inclusion they perceived as realistic for children with disabilities.

Teachers in this study understood IE as admission, physical presence, and the non-segregation of children with disabilities, reflecting the widespread conflation of integration and inclusion also found in policy texts (Singal, 2006a; Taneja-Johansson, 2014). Compounding this further was the linguistic confusion surrounding the Kannada term “Samanviya Shikshana” as it was used across notions of sameness, equality, integration and inclusion. This finding demonstrates that the translation of IE is not merely a linguistic matter and that terminology can shape how an imported policy concept is interpreted and enacted locally. This illustrates the consequences of transferring concepts without critical engagement with local contexts (Kamenopoulou & Karisa, 2023) and supports Singal & Muthukrishna's (2016) call for IE in the GS to be re-storied through an anchored understanding of local linguistic, historical, socio-cultural and political realities.

Teachers' reasoning for inclusion also drew on multiple models of disability, which, though seen as competing, coexisted within teachers' accounts. Teachers believed that any student who entered school had the right to education, yet their actions were simultaneously framed as motivated by charity, pity or sympathy. Herein, Anand (2016) makes a useful argument that, in the Indian context, multiple models of disability coexist and that attempting to resolve or “correct” them by forcing them to follow the GN trajectory towards inclusion risks overlooking contextual realities.

Teachers' goals for children with disabilities were anchored in Indian societal expectations. Teachers valued IE for enabling children with disabilities to “live in society”, “get ready enough for marriage”, and “somehow manage to settle”. As Ghai (2015) notes, in India, the worth of a person with a disability is tied to meeting normative expectations such as academic excellence, employment, independence, marriage and respect in society. This goal of societal participation particularly resonates with Taneja-Johansson et al. 's (2023) finding that rural Karnataka teachers believed that “being in school matters” for achieving self-reliance, employment and social acceptance. While this recalibration of IE goals to “something is better than nothing”, as one teacher expressed, is significant for a country where children with disabilities were historically excluded from mainstream schools, Singal (2008) warns that such access alone does not ensure participation in the school curriculum and culture. Inferring from Sen's capabilities approach, she

argues that as poor children are already disadvantaged, both participation and learning are crucial to developing their capabilities (Singal, 2008). Critically, academic success was not articulated as a goal in this study and corroborating Singal & Muthukrishna's (2016) findings, teachers argued that such engagement would be better relegated to specialist teachers.

The narrowing of inclusion's goals was closely linked to how teachers defined which child could be "handled" in the mainstream classroom. Underlying the distinctions between the "handleable child" and the "non-handleable child" was a clear child-deficit orientation based on the medical model of disability. Children were judged on their ability to concentrate, communicate, comprehend, and behave appropriately. However, unlike Singal's (2008) notion of "teachability", in this study, "handleability" was not constructed through teachers' assumptions about the child alone, it was also determined based on the capacity of the educational system itself. Factors such as high student-teacher ratios, inadequate resources and minimal human support narrowed the type of children with disabilities who could be included. This closely relates to Taneja-Johansson's (2014) notion of the "includable child", where only those children who were "behaviourally suitable" and could be supported through the existing school facilities were admitted. These notions raise questions of power such as who should decide what kind of child should be included and whom the mainstream classroom should cater to.

The findings also reflect Graham and Slee's (2008) critique of the global discourse on IE that assumes that there is already a well-functioning system into which students are to be included. As Singal (2019) argues, in India, children with disabilities are being included in a system that is already fraught with problems, making it imperative and urgent to examine what we are including children into.

Teachers' boundaries for inclusion also revealed how they constructed their own position and responsibility. Singal (2008) explains that in India teachers have historically been seen as "transmitters of knowledge" rather than "facilitators of learning" and, considering the emphasis on merit in the education system (Tiwari et al., 2015), teaching is characterised by syllabus completion, test preparation, and whole-class instruction. Consequently, children who cannot meet the demands of the mainstream are deemed more suitable for special schools or specialist instruction, as was noted in this study as well.

6.2 Preparedness as Situational and Ecological

Teachers' accounts resisted a straightforward classification of being either "prepared" or "unprepared" for IE. Even participants who described themselves as prepared immediately qualified this assessment through statements such as "I cannot do it alone", "Only sometimes", "Not 100%" or "If there are more such children, it will be difficult". In some cases, teachers clearly articulated their inability to work with children with communication and behavioural disabilities because they were not trained to communicate in sign language or Braille.

Teachers' struggle with implementing IE has been well documented in several other studies (Majumdar & Mooij, 2011; Ramchand, 2025; Singal, 2019). Importantly, perceived preparedness was also shaped by what teachers understood as inclusion to require. Teachers who felt prepared described IE in terms of social and functional inclusion rather than academic inclusion. Teachers were able to envision supporting children with disabilities when the goals were to enable peer mingling, daily functioning and participation in co-curricular activities and not through adapting curriculum, assessment and pedagogy. Thus, preparedness, as teachers understood it, meant providing extra care and support for daily activities rather than preparing for inclusive pedagogy. This implies that self-reported preparedness cannot be interpreted independently of teachers' own definitions of IE as a teacher may feel prepared for one conception of inclusion while remaining unprepared for another.

The inadequacy of pre-service training and uneven access to in-service training as documented in this study aligns with several other studies that report gaps in IE training due to a lack of IE content, superficial training workshops, and limited practical exposure (Kundu & Rice, 2019; Taneja-Johansson et al., 2023). However, the present findings complicate the common policy response of prescribing additional training and challenges the assumption that teachers want more training. Herein, teachers' lack of desire for additional training cannot be simply interpreted as resistance to professional learning. Rather, teachers appeared to be skeptical of training, as they returned to an unchanged system that prevented them from applying the practices they learned during training. Ramchand's (2025) study in Karnataka was the only other study in the Indian context to find that teachers did not request any further training, likely due to a lack of positive experiences or an excessive amount of training.

Teachers in this study relied heavily on their classroom experience, trial and error, and close and consistent engagement with the children to improve their preparedness. However, outsourcing professional preparation to individual experience is neither reliable nor equitable.

When analysed through Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory, the gap between their perceived preparedness and their ability to implement IE in the mainstream classroom can be understood as the outcome of interacting ecological conditions beyond the teacher. At the microsystem level, classroom-related factors such as high student-teacher ratios, syllabus pressure, and insufficient time for individual attention shaped what teachers could do. At the mesosystem level, poor collaboration among teachers, parents, special educators and NGO educators made the support structure weak. At the exosystem level, teachers' sense of preparedness was shaped by inadequate in-service training, staff shortages, lack of support staff and clerical support, and excessive administrative duties. At the macrosystem level, policy mandates, inadequate pre-service teacher education, exam-oriented schooling and deficit orientations towards disability, shaped teachers' perceptions of inclusion, its goals, and what was feasible in the mainstream classroom.

These conditions did not just increase or decrease the level of preparedness that teachers possessed, instead they changed what preparedness meant in every situation, resisting an answer in the binary of "prepared" or "unprepared". For instance, Sakhi's access to resources in the resource centre and support from paraprofessionals resulted in a different form of preparedness than Gauri's, who worked without support. Preparedness, therefore, cannot be identified within the teacher alone. It is not a stable individual trait but an ecological and relational outcome that developed through interactions between the teachers and the ecological conditions in their surrounding systems.

6.3 Beyond Teacher-Blame and Towards System Responsibility

Most teachers experienced the absence of structural support as a key "dis-enabling" and disempowering force (Montgomery, 2012), identifying the problem in the system and not themselves. Herein, Govind and Bandyopadhyay (2011) note that such findings must be interpreted cautiously as teachers may "respond defensively by overemphasising problems outside their direct influence." Yet the institutional barriers identified by the study's participants are well documented in Indian government schools (Taneja-Johansson et al., 2023; Ramchand, 2025). The

analytical task is therefore not to choose between teacher responsibility and system responsibility, but to examine how the two interact.

In the absence of systemic and structural support, teachers' attempts at inclusion rested on their personal biographies, moral consciousness, and caring dispositions. Similar findings were discussed in Singal & Muthukrishna's (2016) study in India and South Africa, where teachers "drew on their own biographies, values and situated knowledge to make decisions and choices in response to contextual realities" (p. 208). While this suggests teachers' personal commitment, it simultaneously highlights the failure of a system as it relies on teachers' goodwill to provide a legal entitlement. When inclusion is contingent on the teachers' individual goodwill, it is fragile, uneven and unreliable and cannot replace institutional responsibility and resources.

The primary theoretical framework of this study brings this argument together. The social model of disability outlined in section 3.1, identifies disability not within the individual but within the environment that failed to adapt to their diverse needs (Oliver, 1996). In educational contexts, it holds the institution- its systems, people and structures as responsible for enabling IE for students with disabilities. Although teachers hold an entirely different position than the students with disabilities in this model, the findings show that both their abilities are constrained by a failure of the system to reorganise itself. The educational system that has not changed to include students with disabilities, has also failed to enable its teachers, who are responsible for enacting this change. Thus, while teachers' deficit perceptions and inadequate preparedness must be critically engaged with, bridging the policy-practice gap requires transforming the conditions of the system in which teachers work.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Implications

This study examined how government school teachers in Bengaluru understand inclusive education and perceive their preparedness to include children with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. By foregrounding teachers' situated understandings, everyday realities and reflections on preparedness, it offers insights for teacher educators, policymakers and researchers. Although the findings cannot be generalised beyond the sample, the study raises important points that extend beyond it. This chapter summarises the study's key findings, outlines its empirical, conceptual and

methodological contributions, and considers implications for teacher education, policy and future research.

7.1 Summary of Key Findings

First, teachers broadly supported the principle of IE and expressed willingness, care and professional responsibility towards including children with disabilities. However, they understood IE as merely ensuring physical presence, social interaction, functional support and participation in co-curricular activities. Curricular access and academic achievement were not articulated as goals, nor did teachers discuss curricular changes, differentiated pedagogy or modified assessments for IE. Their support for IE was not entirely unconditional and depended on the child's perceived ability to cope with the mainstream classroom demands and the system's capacity to provide support.

Second, teachers' perceived preparedness was mediated by conditions in the wider educational ecosystem, including their understanding of IE, formal training, classroom experiences, institutional support and resource availability. Pre-service training in disability-inclusion developed conceptual awareness and psychological readiness without any practical skills, while in-service training was sporadic or absent and only effective when it was regular, interactive and immersive. In the absence of adequate professional preparation, teachers improved their capabilities and confidence through classroom experience. Yet teachers' sense of preparedness remained dependent on the particular child, the demands of the classroom, available support and the forms of inclusion they believed they were expected to enact.

Third, willingness and partial preparedness did not translate into inclusive practices because of overcrowded classrooms, excessive non-teaching duties and a lack of specialist support. Given the lack of structural support, teachers' efforts were shouldered by their ethics of care. While this enabled partial inclusion, IE was dependent on individual moral labour rather than system-level support.

Both dimensions of teachers' perceptions of IE and their self-perceived preparedness emerged through an interaction of institutional conditions, professional development, internal motivations and wider socio-cultural understandings of disability and IE.

7.2 Contributions of the Study

The study shifts the attention from teachers' attitudes alone to the larger challenge of including children with disabilities in an education system that has not been adequately transformed to enable teachers to support students' participation, learning and achievement.

The study's findings on conditional inclusion complicates the teacher blame-game that is prevalent in existing literature, illustrating that incomplete translation of inclusion in the classroom is not entirely a consequence of teachers' deficit beliefs of children but also that of the systems inadequacies. By foregrounding such system-level constraints, the study does not overlook their ableist assumptions of children but resists producing a singular and negative construction of teachers in relation to IE.

Conceptually, the study reframes teacher preparedness as situated and ecological rather than fixed individual trait. It emerged as an outcome of interactions between a teacher and their surrounding professional, institutional, and sociocultural conditions. This suggests that variation in teachers' perceived preparedness cannot be reduced to a variation in individual competence and provides support for using ecological frameworks such as EST to study teacher preparedness.

Methodologically, it shows how qualitative interviews can surface teachers' dilemmas and challenges that remain obscured in survey-based quantitative research. Teachers' accounts revealed uncertainty, conditionality and tensions that would be difficult to represent through a simple preparedness score. Further, by treating translation as a useful analytic source, it demonstrates how the ambiguity around "Samanviya Shikshana" shapes teachers' understanding of IE, suggesting the importance of linguistic complexities in IE research in multilingual contexts in the GS.

Lastly, it challenges the prevalent policy assumption of providing more training to teachers. Teachers requested support in the form of specialist teachers, lesser administrative workload and more time for individual attention, implying that policies need to direct their focus to other levers of change to translate teachers' preparedness into practice.

7.3 Implications

For teacher education, IE must be embedded throughout the curriculum, rather than treated as an optional add-on, with trainees acquiring sustained practical experience in inclusive classrooms

(Forlin & Chambers, 2011). As even recent graduates were found using derogatory language, teachers' ableist assumptions and deficit orientations need to be critically examined during pre-service training so they enter the profession with a collective responsibility for all learners (Florian et al., 2010; Florian & Rouse, 2008).

However, pre-service training alone is insufficient, as the majority of teachers in this study completed their teacher training qualifications nearly ten years ago, and classroom needs change over time. As Florian & Camedda (2020) note, IE is a career-long process, and ITE alone cannot equip teachers for it. Continuous and regular in-service training should provide opportunities for teachers to learn from specialists and observe inclusive pedagogical practices. However, this must be accompanied by efforts to address institutional and structural issues, without which training is experienced as burdensome and inconsequential in the classroom.

For policymakers, policies must move beyond merely addressing teacher-centred interventions towards transforming structural conditions such as support-staff shortages, non-teaching duties and class sizes. Policy responses should therefore consider staffing and classroom composition, reduce avoidable administrative burdens, strengthen access to specialist and paraprofessional support, and ensure that responsibility for inclusion does not rest on individual classroom teachers alone. Besides, it would be important to involve teachers in sector planning and policymaking, given their practical knowledge of the classroom, their own needs, and their students' needs. Their lived experience and situated knowledge can help identify barriers to inclusion and assess the feasibility and gaps in the proposed reforms.

As teachers' operational definition for IE was closer to integration and there remains a focus on measures such as enrollment and attendance, monitoring frameworks must shift from input-focussed measures towards tracking learning outcomes for children with disabilities.

For researchers, it is important to continue to listen to teachers' voices without placing the burden of systemic failure on them, as many inadequacies in IE lie beyond their control. Since the study shifted the question from teachers' preparedness to the system's preparedness, further research examining system-level challenges facing IE in Indian government schools is needed. Future research should also include classroom observations and responses from other stakeholders, such as headteachers, male teachers, special educators, and teacher educators, to develop a holistic understanding of the constraints and complement or challenge teachers' reported insights.

As teachers pointed out in this study, inclusion cannot be realised by teachers alone. Teachers, while at the heart of disability inclusion, are often unsupported, so planners must create an enabling environment such that teachers have what they need to enable all children with disabilities to participate, learn and succeed.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Guide (Bilingual)

PARTICIPANT'S BACKGROUND, TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

1) How long have you been a teacher?
ನೀವು ಎಷ್ಟು ವರ್ಷಗಳಿಂದ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರಾಗಿ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡುತ್ತಿದ್ದೀರಿ?

2) What do you teach?
ನೀವು ಯಾವ ವಿಷಯಗಳನ್ನು ತೋರಿಸುತ್ತೀರಾ?

3) What is your educational background and teacher training qualifications?
ನಿಮ್ಮ ಶೈಕ್ಷಣಿಕ ಹಿನ್ನೆಲೆ ಮತ್ತು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ತರಬೇತಿ ಅರ್ಹತೆಗಳೇನು?

PARTICIPANTS PERCEPTIONS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

1) What does "inclusive education" mean to you?
ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಅಂದರೆ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಅಭಿಪ್ರಾಯದಲ್ಲಿ ಏನು?

2) What do you see as the main goals of inclusive education?
ನಿಮ್ಮ ಪ್ರಕಾರ ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣದ ಪ್ರಮುಖ ಗುರಿಗಳು ಏನಿರಬಹುದು?

3) Do you believe in the philosophy of inclusive education?
ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ತತ್ವದಲ್ಲಿ ನಂಬಿಕೆ ಇದೆಯಾ?

4) How is inclusive education currently implemented in your school?
ಈಗ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಶಾಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣವನ್ನು ಹೇಗೆ ಅಳವಡಿಸಲಾಗಿದೆ?

5) Can you describe your experience of including children with disabilities in the classroom?
ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ಮಕ್ಕಳು ತರಗತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಇದ್ದಾಗ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಅನುಭವವನ್ನು ವಿವರಿಸಬಹುದೇ?

PARTICIPANT'S BACKGROUND, TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

1) Have you had any experience of teaching students with disabilities ?
ನೀವು ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳ ಜೊತೆ ಅನುಭವವಿದೆಯೇ?

2) How many years of experience do you have in teaching students with disabilities
ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಬೋಧಿಸುವಲ್ಲಿ ನಿಮಗೆ ಎಷ್ಟು ವರ್ಷಗಳ ಅನುಭವವಿದೆ?

3) Can you describe the type of disability that the student(s) had?
ಆ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳಿಗೆ ಇರುವ ಅಂಗವೈಕಲ್ಯದ ಪ್ರಕಾರವನ್ನು ನೀವು ವಿವರಿಸಬಹುದೇ?

4) Have you done any courses or undergone training related to working with children with disabilities or inclusive education?
ನೀವು ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡುವ ಸಂಬಂಧಿತವಾಗಿ ಯಾವುದೇ ಕೋರ್ಸ್‌ಗಳನ್ನು ಮಾಡಿದ್ದೀರಾ ಅಥವಾ ತರಬೇತಿಯನ್ನು ಪಡೆದಿದ್ದೀರಾ? (pre-service or in-service training, professional development workshops, conferences)

- Could you tell me more about this(duration, content)
ಇದರ ಬಗ್ಗೆ ಇನ್ನಷ್ಟು ವಿವರಿಸಬಹುದೇ? (ಅವಧಿ, ವಿಷಯವಸ್ತು)

- Was it helpful? If yes, in what way?
ಅದು ಉಪಯುಕ್ತವಾಗಿತ್ತೆ? ಹೌದಾದರೆ, ಯಾವ ರೀತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ?

5) Do you collaborate with other staff (resource teachers, special educators, shadow teachers, parents or other students) to teach students with disabilities?

-If yes, in what capacity?

ನೀವು ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಬೋಧಿಸುವಾಗ ಇತರ ಸಿಬ್ಬಂದಿ (ಸಂಪನ್ಮೂಲ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು, ವಿಶೇಷ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು, ಪಾಡೋ ಟೀಚರ್‌ಗಳು, ಪೋಷಕರು ಅಥವಾ ಇತರ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳು) ಜೊತೆ ಸಹಕಾರ ಮಾಡುವಿರಾ?

- ಹೌದಾದರೆ, ಯಾವ ರೀತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಅಥವಾ ಪಾತ್ರದಲ್ಲಿ?

6) Are there any school policies or programs in place that support including students with disabilities? How effective do you think they are?

ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಸೇರಿಸಲು ಬೆಂಬಲಿಸುವ ಯಾವುದೇ ಶಾಲಾ ನೀತಿಗಳು ಅಥವಾ ಕಾರ್ಯಕ್ರಮಗಳು ಇದ್ದವೆಯೇ? ಅವುಗಳು ಎಷ್ಟು ಪರಿಣಾಮಕಾರಿಯಾಗಿ ಕಾರ್ಯನಿರ್ವಹಿಸುತ್ತಿವೆ ಎಂದು ನೀವು ಭಾವಿಸುತ್ತೀರಿ?

PERCEIVED PREPAREDNESS TO INCLUDE STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

1. With the initial teacher education (ITE) that you have, do you feel prepared to teach students with disabilities in your classroom?

ನಿಮಗೆ ಇರುವ ಪ್ರಾಥಮಿಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ (ITE)ದೊಂದಿಗೆ, ನಿಮ್ಮ ತರಗತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಬೋಧಿಸಲು ನೀವು ತಯಾರಾಗಿದ್ದೀರಿ ಎಂದು ಭಾವಿಸುತ್ತೀರಾ?

2. Did you have any opportunities for continuous professional development/CPD, how did it affect/shape your preparedness to teach students with disabilities? → online/offline, practical exposure?

ನಿಮ್ಮ ವೃತ್ತಿಪರ ಅಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿಗಾಗಿ (ಸತತ ವೃತ್ತಿಪರಾಭಿವೃದ್ಧಿ/CPD) ಯಾವುದೇ ಅವಕಾಶಗಳು ನಿಮಗೆ ಲಭಿಸಿದ್ದವೆಯೇ? ಅದು ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಬೋಧಿಸಲು ನಿಮ್ಮ ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ ಮೇಲೆ ಹೇಗೆ ಪರಿಣಾಮ ಬೀರಿತು?

3. How would you describe your level of preparedness to include children with disabilities in your classroom?

ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ಮಕ್ಕಳನ್ನು ನಿಮ್ಮ ತರಗತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಸೇರಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳುವ ಸಿದ್ಧತೆಯ ಮಟ್ಟವನ್ನು ನೀವು ಹೇಗೆ ವಿವರಿಸುತ್ತೀರಿ?

4. Has your preparedness (confidence/ability) to include students with disabilities changed over the course of your career?

ನಿಮ್ಮ ವೃತ್ತಿಯ ಪ್ರಗತಿಯ ಸಂದರ್ಭದಲ್ಲಿ ವಿಕಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಒಳಗೊಳ್ಳುವ ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ (ಆತ್ಮವಿಶ್ವಾಸ / ಸಾಮರ್ಥ್ಯ) ಯಲ್ಲಿ ಯಾವುದೇ ಬದಲಾವಣೆ ಬಂದಿದೆಯೇ?

-How has it changed?

ಅದು ಹೇಗೆ ಬದಲಾಗಿದೆ?

-What events or experiences led to these changes?

ಈ ಬದಲಾವಣೆಗಳಿಗೆ ಕಾರಣವಾದ ಘಟನೆಗಳು ಅಥವಾ ಅನುಭವಗಳು ಯಾವುವು?

5. If the answer to Q1 is No, what needs to be changed to prepare teachers

(More opportunities for practical experience/ professional development/attending workshops or doing courses)

If the answer to Q1 is Yes, what makes you feel prepared?

Do you feel like it is your responsibility to teach (WD)?

(Access to resources, support staff, training, teaching aids, experience?)

ವಿಶಲಚೇತನ ಮಕ್ಕಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡಲು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರನ್ನು ಉತ್ತಮವಾಗಿ ತಯಾರಾಗಿಸಲು, ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಅಥವಾ ತರಬೇತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಯಾವ ಬದಲಾವಣೆಗಳು ಅಗತ್ಯವೆಂದು ನೀವು ಭಾವಿಸುತ್ತೀರಿ?"

6. What kind of support would you need to be better prepared including SwD? (support staff, resources)
"ವಿಶಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಒಳಗೊಳ್ಳಲು ಉತ್ತಮವಾಗಿ ತಯಾರಾಗಲು ನಿಮಗೆ ಯಾವ ರೀತಿಯ ಬೆಂಬಲ ಬೇಕಾಗಿರುತ್ತದೆ?"

7. Have your past experiences with SwD affected your preparedness to inclusive education? - Could you share a specific experience that was particularly influential? - How did this experience affect your confidence or teaching methods?

ನಿಮ್ಮ ಹಿಂದಿನ ವಿಶಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಇದ್ದ ಅನುಭವಗಳು, ಸಮಾವೇಶಿತ (ಇನ್‌ಕ್ಯೂಸಿವ್) ಶಿಕ್ಷಣಕ್ಕೆ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಸಿದ್ಧತೆಯ ಮೇಲೆ ಯಾವುದೇ ಪ್ರಭಾವ ಬೀರಿದ್ದವೆಯೇ?

ನಿಮ್ಮ ಮೇಲೆ ಹೆಚ್ಚಿನ ಪ್ರಭಾವ ಬೀರಿದ ಒಂದು ನಿರ್ದಿಷ್ಟ ಅನುಭವವನ್ನು ಹಂಚಿಕೊಳ್ಳಬಹುದೇ?

ಆ ಅನುಭವವು ನಿಮ್ಮ ಆತ್ಮವಿಶ್ವಾಸ ಅಥವಾ ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ ಮೇಲೆ ಹೇಗೆ ಪರಿಣಾಮ ಬೀರಿತು?

CLOSING SECTION

1. Is there anything else you'd like to share about your experiences with regard to including students with disabilities in your classroom that we haven't discussed?

ವಿಶಲಚೇತನ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ನಿಮ್ಮ ತರಗತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಸೇರಿಸುವ ನಿಮ್ಮ ಅನುಭವಗಳ ಬಗ್ಗೆ ನಾವು ಇದುವರೆಗೆ ಚರ್ಚಿಸದ ಯಾವುದೇ ವಿಷಯವನ್ನು ನೀವು ಹಂಚಿಕೊಳ್ಳಲು ಇಚ್ಛಿಸುತ್ತೀರಾ?

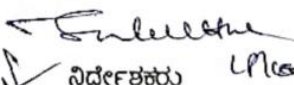
2. Do you have questions you would like to ask me?

ನೀವು ನನಗೆ ಕೇಳಲು ಇಚ್ಛಿಸುವ ಯಾವುದೇ ಪ್ರಶ್ನೆಗಳಿವೆಯೇ?

Thank you for your time. If there is anything else you think of and would like to add please feel free to contact me.

Appendix B: Permission Letter from DSERT in Kannada

 Government of Karnataka ದಾಖಲೆ ವಿಜ್ಞಾನ ಸಂಶೋಧನೆ ಮತ್ತು ತರಬೇತಿ ಇಲಾಖೆ DEPARTMENT OF STATE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING No 4, 100 FT RING ROAD, BANASHANKARI 3 POSTAGE, BANGALORE - 560 085 Email: dsert.karn@nic.in Website: http://dsert.karn.nic.in	Phone : 080 - 26422372, 26422373, 26422374 Fax : 26422377
ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ: E67777/DSERT/ENGCDOLT/1/2025-TECD ದಿನಾಂಕ: 13.10.2025	
ರವರಿಗೆ, ಮಾನ್ಯ ಆಯುಕ್ತರು, ಶಾಲಾ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಇಲಾಖೆ, ನೃಪತುಂಗ ರಸ್ತೆ, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು.	
ಮಾನ್ಯರೇ, ವಿಷಯ: ಗೌತಮಿ.ಕೆ.ಎಸ್. ಸ್ಪೆಷಲ್ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ, ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿ ಇವರು ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರ ಸಂಶೋಧನೆ ನಡೆಸಲು ಅನುಮತಿ ಕೋರಿ. ಉಲ್ಲೇಖ: ಗೌತಮಿ.ಕೆ.ಎಸ್., ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿ, ಸ್ಪೆಷಲ್ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ, ಇವರ ಮನವಿಪತ್ರ ದಿನಾಂಕ: 20.06.2025	

ಮೇಲ್ಕಂಡ ವಿಷಯಕ್ಕೆ ಸಂಬಂಧಿಸಿದಂತೆ, ಗೌತಮಿ.ಕೆ.ಎಸ್. ಸ್ಪೆಷಲ್ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯದಲ್ಲಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ನೀತಿಗಳ ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿ, ಪ್ರೋ ಹೆಲನ್ ಪಿಟಿಯಾರಾ ಅವರ ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶನದಲ್ಲಿ ಸಂಶೋಧನೆ ನಡೆಸುತ್ತಿದ್ದು, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಅಜೀಂ ಪ್ರೇಂಜಿ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯದಿಂದ ಬಿ.ಇಡಿ ಮತ್ತು ಬಿ.ಎಸ್.ಸಿ ಬೇವತ್ತಾಸ್ತ ಪದವಿ ಪಡೆದಿರುತ್ತಾರೆ. ಈ ಹಿಂದೆ ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಪ್ರಕ್ರಿಯಾ ಗ್ರೀನ್ ವಿಸ್ತರಣೆ ಶಾಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ವಿಶೇಷ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿಯಾಗಿ ಮತ್ತು ಯಾದಗಿರಿ ಅಜೀಂ ಪ್ರೇಂಜಿ ಶಾಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ಮಾಧ್ಯಮ ಶಾಲಾ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿಯಾಗಿ ಸೇವೆ ಸಲ್ಲಿಸಿದ್ದು, ಸಂಶೋಧನೆಯ ಶೀರ್ಷಿಕೆ 'ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳನ್ನು ಸೇರಿಸಲು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಗ್ರಹಿಕೆಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ' ಕುರಿತಂತೆ ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರ ಸಂಶೋಧನೆಗೆ ಅನುಮತಿ ನೀಡುವಂತೆ ಕೋರುತ್ತಾ, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳ ದಾಖಲಾತಿ ಹೊಂದಿರುವ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ದಾಖಲಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳುವಲ್ಲಿ ದತ್ತಾಂಶ ಸಂಗ್ರಹಣೆ ಕೈಗೊಳ್ಳಲು ಅನುಮತಿ ಕೋರಿರುತ್ತಾರೆ. ಕ್ಷೇತ್ರ ಕಾರ್ಯವು ಜುಲೈ 2025 ರಿಂದ ಫೆಬ್ರವರಿ 2026ರವರೆಗೆ ನಿಗದಿಯಾಗಿದ್ದು, ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳ ಹೆಚ್ಚಿನ ದಾಖಲಾತಿಯನ್ನು ಹೊಂದಿರುವ ಕನಿಷ್ಠ 5 ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳಿಗೆ ಬೋಧನಾ ಅನುಭವ ಹೊಂದಿರುವ ಕನಿಷ್ಠ 10 ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರೊಂದಿಗೆ ಸಂದರ್ಶನ ನಡೆಸಲು ಇಚ್ಛಿಸಿದ್ದು, ಈ ಹಿನ್ನೆಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಯಾವುದೇ ಬಾಕ್ ನಲ್ಲಿಯಾದರೂ ಸಹ ಅನುಮತಿ ನೀಡುವಂತೆ ಕೋರಿದ್ದು, ಸದರಿಯವರಿಗೆ ದತ್ತಾಂಶ ಸಂಗ್ರಹಣೆಗೆ ಅನುಮತಿ ನೀಡಬೇಕಾಗಿ ಕೋರಿ ಮನವಿ ಸಲ್ಲಿಸಿದೆ.	
ವಂದನೆಗಳೊಂದಿಗೆ,	
ತಮ್ಮ ನಯುಗೆಯ  ನಿರ್ದೇಶಕರು LPI ಡಿ.ಆರ್.ಆರ್.ಟಿ. ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು	
ಪ್ರತಿಗಳು: 1. ಗೌತಮಿ.ಕೆ.ಎಸ್., ಸ್ನಾತಕೋತ್ತರವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿ, ಸ್ಪೆಷಲ್ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ ಇವರಿಗೆ ಮಾಹಿತಿಗಾಗಿ. 2. ಕಛೇರಿ ಪ್ರತಿ.	

Appendix C: Permission from Deputy Director of Public Instruction (DDPI) Block Education Officer (Stamps and Signatures) in Kannada

ದಿನಾಂಕ: 24.06.2025

ಗೆ,

ಸಾರ್ವಜನಿಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಅಯುಕ್ತರು,
ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು, ~~ಹೆಚ್.ಎಂ.ಎಂ.ಎಂ.~~ ಲಂತ್ಲೆ
ಕರ್ನಾಟಕ.

ವಿಷಯ: ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಮಾಸ್ಟರ್ ಸಂಪೂರ್ಣ ನಡೆಸಲು ಅನುಮತಿ ಕೋರಿಕೆ.

ಮಾನ್ಯ ಶ್ರೀಗಳೇ,

ನಾನು ಗೌತಮಿ ಕೆ ಎನ್, ಸ್ವಪ್ನಾ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯದಲ್ಲಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ನೀತಿ ಸ್ವಾತಂತ್ರ್ಯ ವಿಧ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿನಿ. ಪ್ರಾ. ಹೆಲನ್ ಪಿಟಿಯಾಕಾ ಅವರ ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶನದಲ್ಲಿ ಸಂಪೂರ್ಣ ನಡೆಸುತ್ತಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ನಾನು ಅಜೀಂ ಪ್ರೇಮ್‌ಜಿ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯದಿಂದ ಬಿ.ಎಡ್ ಮತ್ತು ಬಿ.ಎಸ್ಸಿ ಜೀವಶಾಸ್ತ್ರ ಪದವಿ ಪಡೆದಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ಈ ಹಿಂದೆ, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಪ್ರಕ್ರಿಯಾ ಗ್ರೀನ್ ವಿನ್ಸೆಟ್ ಶಾಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ವಿಶೇಷ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿಯಾಗಿ (special educator) ಮತ್ತು ಯಾದಗಿರಿಯ ಅಜೀಂ ಪ್ರೇಮ್‌ಜಿ ಶಾಲೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ಮಧ್ಯಮ ಶಾಲಾ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿಯಾಗಿ ನೇಮಕಗೊಂಡಿದ್ದೇನೆ.

ನಾನು ನನ್ನ ಮಾಸ್ಟರ್ ಪದವಿ ಸಂಪೂರ್ಣವಾಗಿ ಅನುಮತಿ ಕೋರಿ ಈ ಪತ್ರವನ್ನು ಬರೆದಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ಸ್ವಾತಂತ್ರ್ಯ ಪ್ರಬಂಧದ ವಿಷಯವು "ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳನ್ನು ಸೇರಿಸಲು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಗೃಹೀತೃಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ" ಎಂಬ ಶೀರ್ಷಿಕೆಯನ್ನು ಹೊಂದಿದೆ.

ಕ್ಷೇತ್ರಾಧ್ಯಕ್ಷರ ಅನುಮತಿಯಾಗಿ ವಿನಂತಿ:

ಜುಲೈ 2025 ರಿಂದ ಫೆಬ್ರವರಿ 2026 ರವರೆಗೆ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳನ್ನು ದಾಖಲಿಸುವ ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ನನ್ನ ಸ್ವಾತಂತ್ರ್ಯ ಸಂಪೂರ್ಣವಾಗಿ ದತ್ತಾಂಶ ಸಂಗ್ರಹಣೆಯನ್ನು ನಡೆಸಲು ನಾನು ದಯೆಯಿಂದ ಅನುಮತಿಯನ್ನು ಕೋರುತ್ತೇನೆ. ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳಿಗೆ ಕಲಿಸುವ ಅನುಭವ ಹೊಂದಿರುವ ಕನಿಷ್ಠ 12 ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರೊಂದಿಗೆ ನಾನು ಸಂದರ್ಶನಗಳನ್ನು ನಡೆಸುತ್ತೇನೆ. ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳಿಗೆ ಹೆಚ್ಚಿನ ದಾಖಲಾತಿ ಹೊಂದಿರುವ ಕನಿಷ್ಠ 5 ವಿಭಿನ್ನ ಶಾಲೆಗಳ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರನ್ನು ಸಂದರ್ಶಿಸುವ ಗುರಿಯನ್ನು ನಾನು ಹೊಂದಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ಅವರು ಬೆಂಗಳೂರಿನ ಯಾವುದೇ ಬ್ಲಾಕ್‌ಗಳಿಗೆ ಸೇರಿರುವುದು.

16/9/2025
ಗೌ. ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿ
ಕರ್ನಾಟಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಅಯುಕ್ತರು
ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು
02/06/2025
ನಿಜಾ
ಶಿಕ್ಷಕಿ ನಿರ್ದೇಶಕರು
ಸಾರ್ವಜನಿಕ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣ ಇಲಾಖೆ
ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು - 560 002

She is permitted to
get the Research

work done - only in the School hours (after 3.30pm)
otherwise you can visit on Saturday 11.45

~~Letter of
ಪ್ರತಿಷ್ಠಾಪನಾ ಪತ್ರ
ಶಾಲಾ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ-02
ಉತ್ತರ ಬೀದಿ-560012
ಮಲ್ಲೇಶ್ವರಂ, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು-560012~~

~~ಪ್ರತಿಷ್ಠಾಪನಾ ಪತ್ರ
ಶಾಲಾ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ-02
ಉತ್ತರ ಬೀದಿ-560012
ಮಲ್ಲೇಶ್ವರಂ, ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು-560012~~

Appendix D: Consent Letter in Kannada

ಒಪ್ಪಿಗೆ ಪತ್ರ

ಯೋಜನೆಯ ಶೀರ್ಷಿಕೆ: ಬೆಂಗಳೂರು ನಗರದಲ್ಲಿನ ಸರ್ಕಾರಿ ಶಾಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣಕ್ಕಾಗಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಚಿಂತನೆಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಸಿದ್ಧತೆ

ಸಂಶೋಧಕ: ಗೌತಮಿ ಕೆ.ಎಸ್.
ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶಕ: ಪ್ರೊಫೆಸರ್ ಹೆಲನ್ ಫ್ರಿಯಾಕಾ

ನನ್ನ ಸಂಶೋಧನಾ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದಲ್ಲಿ ಭಾಗವಹಿಸಲು ಮುಂದೆ ಬಂದಿದ್ದಕ್ಕೆ ಧನ್ಯವಾದಗಳು. ಈ ಫಾರ್ಮ್ ಮೇಲೆ ಸಹಿ ಮಾಡುವ ಮೂಲಕ, ನೀವು ಈ ಸಂಶೋಧನೆಯಲ್ಲಿ ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳಲು ನಿಮ್ಮ ಒಪ್ಪಿಗೆಯನ್ನು ನೀಡುತ್ತಿರುವಿರಿ ಹಾಗೂ ಈ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದೊಂದಿಗೆ ಸಂಬಂಧಪಟ್ಟ ಪರತ್ತುಗಳನ್ನು ಅಂಗೀಕರಿಸುತ್ತೀರಿ.

ದಯವಿಟ್ಟು ಗಮನಿಸಿ: ನಿಮ್ಮ ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳುವುದು ಸಂಪೂರ್ಣ ಸ್ವಯಂಪ್ರೇರಿತವಾಗಿದೆ ಮತ್ತು ನೀವು ಯಾವುದೇ ಕಾರಣಕ್ಕೂ ಯಾವುದೇ ಸಮಯದಲ್ಲಿ ಇಂಟರ್ವ್ಯೂನಿಂದ ಹೊರಗುಳಿಯಬಹುದಾಗಿದೆ.

ಉದ್ದೇಶ: ನಾನು ಗೌತಮಿ ಕೆ.ಎಸ್., ಪ್ರಸ್ತುತ ವಿಶ್ವದ ಶೈಕ್ಷಣಿಕ ನೀತಿಗಳ ಎಂ.ಎ. (M.A Education Policies) ಪಠ್ಯಕ್ರಮವನ್ನು ಅಭ್ಯಾಸಿಸುತ್ತಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ನಾನು ಸೈಪ್ರಸ್ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯದ ಪ್ರೊಫೆಸರ್ ಹೆಲನ್ ಫ್ರಿಯಾಕಾ ಅವರ ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶನದಲ್ಲಿ ಸಂಶೋಧನಾ ಯೋಜನೆ ಕೈಗೊಂಡಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ಈ ಯೋಜನೆಯ ಭಾಗವಾಗಿ, ನಾನು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರು ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳನ್ನು ಸೇರಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳಲು ಅವರ ಚಿಂತನೆಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಸಿದ್ಧತೆಯ ಬಗ್ಗೆ ಸಂದರ್ಶನ ನಡೆಸಲಿದ್ದೇನೆ. ನೀವು ಶಿಕ್ಷಕನಾಗಿ ಕಾರ್ಯನಿರ್ವಹಿಸುವಾಗ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ವಿದ್ಯಾರ್ಥಿಗಳೊಂದಿಗೆ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡಿದ ಅನುಭವವಿರುವ ಕಾರಣ, ನಿಮ್ಮನ್ನು ನಾನು ಸಂದರ್ಶನ ಮಾಡುತ್ತಿದ್ದೇನೆ.

ಲಕ್ಷ್ಯ (Aim): ಈ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದ ಉದ್ದೇಶ ಅಂಗವಿಕಲ ಮಕ್ಕಳನ್ನು ಸಾಮಾನ್ಯ ತರಗತಿಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಸೇರಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳುವಲ್ಲಿ ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಕಲ್ಪನೆಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಸಿದ್ಧತೆಯನ್ನು ಅರ್ಥಮಾಡಿಕೊಳ್ಳುವುದು.

ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳುವಿಕೆ: ಈ ಸಂದರ್ಶನದ ಅವಧಿ ಸುಮಾರು 35-45 ನಿಮಿಷಗಳವರೆಗೆ ಇರಲಿದೆ. ಸಂದರ್ಶನದ ವೇಳೆ, ಚಿಪ್ಪಟೆಗಳನ್ನು ಬರೆಯುವುದು ಕಷ್ಟವಾಗಬಹುದಾಗಿ ಆಡಿಯೋ ರೆಕಾರ್ಡ್ ಮಾಡಲಾಗುತ್ತದೆ. ನಿಮ್ಮ ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳುವಿಕೆ ಸ್ವಯಂಪ್ರೇರಿತವಾಗಿದೆ. ನೀವು ಯಾವುದೇ ಸಮಯದಲ್ಲಿ, ಯಾವುದೇ ಕಾರಣಕ್ಕೂ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದಿಂದ ಹೊರಬರಬಹುದು.

ಅನಾನುಕೂಲಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಲಾಭಗಳು: ಈ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದಿಂದ ಆಗಬಹುದಾದ ಅನಾನುಕೂಲಗಳು ಅತ್ಯಂತ ಕಡಿಮೆ ಇವೆ ಎಂದು ನಿರೀಕ್ಷಿಸಲಾಗಿದೆ. ಕೆಲವು ಪ್ರಶ್ನೆಗಳು ನಿಮಗೆ ಅನಾನುಕೂಲ ಉಂಟುಮಾಡಬಹುದು - ವಿಶೇಷವಾಗಿ ನೀವು ಸೂಕ್ಷ್ಮ ಮಾಹಿತಿಯನ್ನು ಹಂಚಿಕೊಳ್ಳಲು ನಿರ್ಧರಿಸಿದರೆ. ನೀವು ಉತ್ತರಿಸಲು ಇಚ್ಛೆಯಿಲ್ಲದೇ ಇದ್ದರೆ ಆ ಪ್ರಶ್ನೆಗಳಿಗೆ ನಾನು ಒತ್ತಾಯಿಸುವುದಿಲ್ಲ. ಈ ಅಧ್ಯಯನದಲ್ಲಿ ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳುವುದರಿಂದ, ನೀವು ನಿಮ್ಮ ಅನುಭವಗಳ ಕುರಿತು ತಕ್ಷಣವಿಮರ್ಶೆ ನಡೆಸಲು ಅವಕಾಶ ದೊರೆಯಬಹುದು ಹಾಗೂ ಸಮನ್ವಯ ಶಿಕ್ಷಣದಲ್ಲಿ(Inclusive Education) ಶಿಕ್ಷಕರ ಎದುರಿಸುತ್ತಿರುವ ಸವಾಲುಗಳು ಮತ್ತು ಅಗತ್ಯಗಳನ್ನು ಅರ್ಥಮಾಡಿಕೊಳ್ಳಲು ಸಹಕಾರ ನೀಡಬಹುದು.

ಗೋಪ್ಯತೆ: ನಿಮ್ಮ ಆಡಿಯೋ ರೆಕಾರ್ಡಿಂಗ್ ನನ್ನ ಮೊಬೈಲ್ ಫೋನ್‌ನಲ್ಲಿ ಪಾಸ್‌ವರ್ಡ್ ರಕ್ಷಿತ ಫೈಲ್‌ನಲ್ಲಿ ಸುರಕ್ಷಿತವಾಗಿ ಸಂಗ್ರಹಿಸಲಾಗುತ್ತದೆ. ಸ್ಥಿತ್ ಪ್ರವೇಶ ಹಕ್ಕು ನನಗೆ ಮತ್ತು ನನ್ನ ಮಾರ್ಗದರ್ಶಕಿಗೆ ಮಾತ್ರ ಸೀಮಿತವಾಗಿರುತ್ತದೆ.

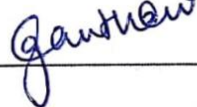
ದಯವಿಟ್ಟು ಗಮನಿಸಿ: ನಿಮ್ಮ ಹೆಸರು ಯಾವುದೇ ದಾಖಲೆಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಬಳಸಲಾಗದು - ಬದಲಾಗಿ ಕಚ್ಚುಕಥೆಯ ಹೆಸರನ್ನು ಬಳಸಲಾಗುತ್ತದೆ. ಇತರ ಗುರುತಿಸಬಹುದಾದ ಮಾಹಿತಿಗಳು (ಉದಾ: ರಾಜ್ಯ, ಶಾಲೆಯ ಹೆಸರು) ಕೂಡ ತೆಗೆದುಹಾಕಲಾಗುತ್ತದೆ ಅಥವಾ ಬದಲಾಯಿಸಲಾಗುತ್ತದೆ.

ನಾನು ಮೇಲ್ಕಂಡ ಮಾಹಿತಿಯನ್ನು ಓದಿದ್ದೇನೆ ಮತ್ತು ಸಂದರ್ಶನದಲ್ಲಿ ಪಾಲ್ಗೊಳ್ಳುವುದಕ್ಕೆ ಒಪ್ಪಿಗೆಯಿದ್ದೇನೆ.

ಭಾಗವಹಿಸುವವರು

ಹಸ್ತಾಕ್ಷರ:  ದಿನಾಂಕ: 22/11/20

ಸಂಶೋಧಕ

ಹಸ್ತಾಕ್ಷರ:  ದಿನಾಂಕ: 22/11/25

Appendix E: Coding Sample

Transcript extract	Initial code(s)	Theme	Analytic memo
"I feel that 40 minutes is not enough for me to com	Lack of time; lack of support staff; difficulty	Institutional conditions	The teacher locates difficulty not in unwillingness, but in classroom time and absence of support. This supports analysis of institutional constraints shaping inclusive practice.
"We have about 35–40 children. We have to pay at	Large class size; divided attention; lack of ti	Institutional conditions	Inclusion is framed as desirable but difficult within high pupil-teacher ratio. The teacher presents time and class strength as barriers to individualised support.
"We have the will, we know how to do it, we have e	Felt preparedness; experience as preparati	Teacher preparedness; institutional conditions	This extract distinguishes between internal readiness and external conditions of enactment. It became important in developing the theme on preparedness as contextually shaped.
"I don't feel that prepared because now there are a	Lack of preparedness; administrative burden	Teacher preparedness; institutional conditions	The teacher supports the idea of inclusion but links preparedness to workload and time. This shows that preparedness is narrated through institutional conditions, not only individual competence.
"I cannot prepare this child with those children. I ha	Conditional inclusion; lack of support staff; c	Conditional inclusion; institutional conditions	The teacher distinguishes between academic teaching and care-related support. The extract shows absence of non-teaching support shapes perceptions of feasibility.
"If my child had been like this, what would I have d	Care/motherhood; emotional identification	Moral and affective dimensions	Inclusion is justified through maternal identification rather than policy or rights language. This code contributed to the theme on care-based understandings of responsibility.
"This is also a child."	Care; recognition of child's humanity; non-d	Moral and affective dimensions; understandings of	The teacher frames inclusion through recognition and moral responsibility. This indicates an affective rather than technical understanding of inclusion.
"Our duty is serving. You should be scared of God. C	Religious/moral duty; service; accountability	Moral and affective dimensions	The teacher's rationale for inclusion is religious and moral. This was coded separately from professional preparedness because it reflects motivation and responsibility
"During training, we did not learn properly how to teach such children. We only learnt generally."	Limited pre-service preparation; lack of practical training	Pre-service preparation	Teacher distinguishes general teacher education from disability-specific preparation. This supports analysis of pre-service training as insufficiently practical.
"Only after seeing such children in school did we understand how to manage."	Experience as preparation; learning by doing	Classroom experience	Classroom experience is described as a source of preparedness in the absence of sufficient formal training.

Appendix F: Codebook Sample

Theme	Code	Code definition	Include when participant refers to	Exclude when	Example extract
Teachers' understandings of inclusive education	Inclusion as same/equal education	Inclusive education understood as giving the same education or equal opportunity to all children	Equal treatment, same classroom, same lesson, no separation	Specific pedagogical adaptation is discussed	"They should also sit with other children and learn."
Teachers' understandings of inclusive education	Inclusion as non-discrimination	Inclusion framed as avoiding discrimination or treating children with disabilities kindly/fairly	Not excluding, not teasing, treating them like others	Structural barriers are discussed	"We should not discriminate against such children."
Teachers' understandings of inclusive education	Inclusion as physical placement	Inclusion understood as children with disabilities being present in the mainstream classroom	Sitting together, being in same class/school	Participation or learning adaptation is foregrounded	"They sit with everyone in the classroom."
Conditional inclusion	Inclusion as dependent on severity	Support for inclusion depends on perceived severity of disability	Mild/moderate disability can be included; severe disability cannot	Participant fully rejects or fully supports inclusion without condition	"If the disability is less, we can manage."
Conditional inclusion	Teachability/manageability	Child's inclusion linked to whether teacher feels the child can be taught or managed	"Handleable" children, learning level, behaviour, toilet training	General disability description with no judgement of classroom feasibility	"If the child can understand, we can teach."
Teacher preparedness	Felt preparedness	Teacher describes own sense of readiness, confidence or ability	Feeling prepared, experienced, willing, able	Only institutional barriers are described without self-assessment	"We are ready to do it."