Towards inclusive education:
A necessary process of transformation

By Dr Kathy Cologon
Department of Educational Studies,
Macquarie University

For Children and Young People
with Disability Australia

October 2019

cyda Children and Young People
with Disability Australia

Contents

"
Inclusive education involves valuing and facilitating the full participation and belonging of everyone in all aspects of our education communities and systems.

CHAPTER
ONE

•

Towards inclusive education: An introduction

Inclusive education involves valuing and facilitating the full participation and belonging of everyone in all aspects of our education communities and systems.

No one is excluded as supports for inclusion are embedded within everyday educational practices.[1] Inclusive education is about everyone learning together, *in all our diversity*. This means that *everyone* has genuine opportunities to learn *together*, with support as needed, and all students are meaningfully involved in all aspects of the curriculum, thus making inclusion a *shared* experience.[2] There is no 'type' of student 'eligible' (nor 'ineligible') for inclusion – inclusion is about, with and for *all of us*. Inclusive education involves upholding the dignity of each student in belonging, participating and accessing ongoing opportunities, recognising and valuing the contribution that each student makes, and supporting every student to flourish.[3]

There is no 'other' in inclusion. At its core, inclusion requires recognising and acting upon the realisation that there is no 'them' and 'us'. There is only 'us', and thus an 'us' to which, in our diversities, we all belong. This understanding of our shared humanity is fundamental to bringing about inclusive education.[4]

Recognising our shared humanity does not in any way infer 'sameness'. Inclusion is not about pretending that we are all the same. A focus on sameness involves processes of assimilation, which are not only contrary to, but form a serious barrier to, inclusion.[5] Instead, inclusion is about valuing, celebrating and sharing our differences as we embrace every aspect of the complexity of human diversities and recognise that we are all equal in our 'differentness'.[6]

To be inclusive requires directly and actively rejecting common myths of 'normal' or 'typical' ways of thinking, being and doing, and recognising that education needs to be open and responsive to the vast range of 'differences' among humans. This is not to deny the many shared ways of being, but rather to identify that there is never only one way – or one 'right' way – to develop or 'be'. Rather than creating systems and practices for which each person must shape themselves or be *shaped* to fit – or else be excluded – education systems and pedagogies need to be transformed to be open to, value, and be shaped for the many ways of being human.

> " There is no 'type' of student 'eligible' (nor 'ineligible') for inclusion – inclusion is about, with and for *all* of us.

Background and method

In 2013 Children and Young People with Disability Australia (then Children with Disability Australia) published an extensive systematic literature review examining the evidence base for inclusive education.[7] That review was intended to provide a firm basis from which to inform research-based advocacy and policy development. In sum, the findings were that while it was clearly established that all people have the right to an inclusive education, and that when inclusive education occurs the outcomes are positive for everyone involved, there remained many ongoing barriers to the realisation of this right in the lived experience of students and families.

Current efforts towards inclusion are impeded by a lack of understanding of inclusive education and frequent misappropriation and co-opting of the term. Additional barriers include negative and discriminatory attitudes and practices, the lack of a clear and genuine national commitment to inclusive education, insufficient support to facilitate inclusive education, and inadequate education and professional development in inclusive education for teachers and other professionals. Critical to addressing these barriers is recognising and disestablishing ableism at all levels of education systems and settings.[8] Ableism, which is examined in detail in chapter five, is a term increasingly used to describe the process by which people are excluded and viewed and treated as 'not one of us'. The term 'ableism' is used in the same way as 'racism' and 'sexism' to describe the process of negatively stereotyping individuals or groups on the basis of a perceived 'difference' and, often, discriminating based on such stereotypes at individual and systemic levels.[9] Using the term 'ableism' creates a

space to enable the often-subconscious process of devaluing those of us who experience 'disability' to be called out and held up to conscious scrutiny as a starting point for disestablishing ableism.

This review of the research, in keeping with all other existing reviews and meta-analyses dating back over many decades[10], reveals a consistent lack of evidence to suggest any benefit of segregated education. By contrast, a considerable body of research was identified demonstrating the benefits of inclusive education. Despite these well-known findings, which have been persistent for more than half a century, current research nationally and internationally shows that segregated education not only continues but is increasing.[11]

Building on the research base for inclusive education outlined in the first edition, this second edition consists of an extensive systematic literature review. It examines evidence across six decades and incorporates more than 400 research papers, relevant treaties and reports, to further explore the existing barriers and the possibilities for addressing these to bring about the realisation of inclusive education.

It should be noted that there are many further pressing issues that are important to inclusive education that fall outside the scope of this present edition. However, this is not to suggest that these matters are unimportant. There are a number of gaps in the literature identified within, and further research is urgently needed to address these gaps.

The research that is examined within this report addresses the outcomes of inclusive education for all students. This includes students with a wide range of disability labels, including students labelled with 'severe', 'profound' and 'multiple' 'disabilities'. Given the frequent misperception that the research evidence does not concern 'some' students, it is important to make it clear at the outset that this report addresses the evidence regarding students across the full range of labels. Inclusive education is about *all* students, not only some.

It is also important from the outset to recognise the many students, families, teachers, educators, paraprofessional educators, principals, directors, education department staff and others who work tirelessly every day to support inclusive education. There are many challenges and raising the issues identified within the research should not be read as a criticism of individuals; rather, it is an attempt to draw to light important issues that require careful consideration if inclusive education is to become a reality in Australia.

What has changed since we first did this work?

In the time since the publication of the first edition in 2013, there have been a range of relevant inquiries and reports within Australia, along with a host of recommendations and a number of relevant policy changes. Additionally, the United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities has produced *General Comment 4* (*GC4*), which explains Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) on Inclusive Education.[12] The CRPD articulates the rights of people who experience disability and clearly states that these rights are not optional nor privileges. As outlined in chapter three, despite the frequent and ongoing confusion around the term, and loose interpretation and application[13], 'inclusive education' has been unambiguously defined in *GC4*. The advent of *GC4* is one of many efforts towards bringing inclusive education to a reality in the time since the first edition. Nonetheless, it unfortunately remains the case that the right to a full and inclusive education is not afforded to many children and young people who experience disability, and serious and ongoing violations of the rights of children and young people continue.[14] Given the positive impact of genuine inclusive education, this highlights the need for continued advocacy and policy change in this area.[15]

The once radical notion of inclusive education has been so 'tamed' and 'domesticated' that 'special' education is now often misrepresented as 'inclusive education'.[16] And yet, in a simultaneous contradiction, it seems that the lines between proponents of segregated and inclusive education have been, perhaps even more boldly, drawn in the sand. However, there is no equality in segregation. The myth of 'separate but equal' was debunked through the civil rights movement in North America in the 1950s –

famously through successful litigation intended to end 'racially'-based segregated education in *Brown v Board of Education of Topeka* (347 US 483, 1954). It is more than time to extend that recognition to all children and young people who experience disability, including all those constructed as disabled through disproportionate representation of people belonging to other minority groups within 'special' education.[17] For example, the overrepresentation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in special education.[18]

Nearly six years on from the publication of the first edition, the research evidence brings us to the same overall conclusion: inclusive education has positive benefits for everyone. And yet, barriers continue to prevent its realisation for many children and young people throughout Australia and across the world.[19] To bring about the promise of inclusive education requires substantial change. Inclusive education is not a process of relabelling past practices and systems. As Slee argues, "…inclusive education is a call for a reformulation of schooling wherein 'special' and 'regular' are jettisoned and the segregation of students with disabilities is seen as a relic of a bygone age". [20] The time for this change is upon us.

An overview of this report

There are many key considerations in understanding inclusive education and the evidence base supporting it. In this report some of the most pressing issues are explored in light of the existing research literature. While it is not possible in one volume to address all the critical issues involved in the realisation of inclusive education, the focus areas in this report are intended to provide a clear understanding of what inclusive education is and why it is important, and to explore key factors in realising the right to education for all.

In this chapter, I have provided a brief rationale and overview to set the context for this report. In chapter two I present the research evidence regarding the outcomes of inclusive education. In the subsequent chapters, I engage with some of the key barriers that are currently preventing the realisation of inclusive education. To do so, in chapter three I begin with an in-depth consideration of common myths and confusions, and address what inclusive education actually means. I then explore this further in chapter four, in light of the current illusions of

inclusion and the impact of presenting segregation as inclusion. To address the key barriers to inclusion that are clearly identified within the research, conscious disestablishment of ableism is required. Consequently, in chapter five, I examine ableism in education and consider the implications in progressing towards genuine inclusion within and beyond education settings and systems. In chapter six I unpack the concepts of macro and micro-exclusion to support a deeper understanding of inclusion and exclusion in practice. Finally, in chapter seven, I draw together the research evidence to identify a series of policy recommendations and steps for moving forward towards the transformation required to bring about inclusive education in reality.

The report is developed sequentially, thus it works well to read from start to finish. However, each chapter is also presented in such a way as to enable it to be read independently. In this way it is my hope that you, the reader, can dip in and out as is most helpful to you at any given point in time. Inclusion is a journey; we never fully arrive as we can always become more inclusive. Bringing about genuine inclusive education is often challenging and takes commitment and ongoing efforts. At the same time, inclusion is lived out in everyday moments and, in that sense, is often easy and is also natural. Much like the 'project' of making a life out of our existence, engaging in the 'project' of inclusion requires starting from where we are now and moving forward, one step at a time. We can always be more inclusive, but we can also always find the ways in which we are, or are ready to be, inclusive right now. That is our starting point. From wherever you are starting, I hope you will find this report helpful in your journey towards inclusion.

1   UN General Assembly, 2016

2   *Ibid*

3   Agbenyega & Klibthong, 2014; Cologon, 2014a

4   Cologon, 2014b

5   Slee, 2001

6   Bevan-Brown, 2013; Cologon, 2014b; Lalvani, & Bacon, 2019

7   Cologon, 2013a

8   Ableism, which is examined in detail in chapter five, involves an 'othering' process through which a stigmatised 'them' is created in contrast to a superior 'us' through the construction of a 'normal' and valued person and an 'inferior other'.

9   Cologon, & Thomas, 2014

10 For example, see: Australian Research Alliance for Children & Youth (ARACY), 2013; Calberg, & Kavale, 1980; Dunn, 1968; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Jackson, 2008; SWIFT Center, 2017; Wang, & Baker, 1985

11 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), 2017; Anderson, & Boyle, 2015; Graham, & Sweller, 2011; Guldberg, Parsons, MacLeod, Jones, Prunty, & Balfe, 2011; Shaw, 2017; Valle, Connor, Broderick, A. Bejoian, & Baglieri, 2011

12 UN General Assembly, 2016

13 D'Alessio, Grima-Farrell, & Cologon, 2018

14 Brede, Remington, Kenny, Warren, & Pellicano, 2017; Children and Young People with Disability Australia (CYDA), 2017; Poed, Cologon, & Jackson, 2017; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015

15 Cologon & Salvador, 2016; Iacono, Keeffe, Kenny, & McKinstry, 2019; Mackenzie, Cologon, & Fenech, 2016

16 D'Alessio, Grima-Farrell, & Cologon, 2018

17 Annamma, 2018; Cooc & Kiru, 2018; Coutinho & Oswald, 2000; Graham, 2012; Hosp & Reschly, 2004

18 Graham, 2012

19 Filmer, 2008; Jelas, & Ali, 2014; UNESCO, 2013

20 Slee, 2018a, p. 82

•

The outcomes of inclusive education

"Inclusive education can now be justified as an approach supported philosophically, in international declarations, and empirically through research on its efficacy."[21]

In this chapter, I outline the evidence base on the *outcomes* of inclusive education. When considering these outcomes there are a number of challenges. Discriminatory attitudes and practices pose serious barriers to research into inclusive education. Many research studies, purporting to examine inclusive education, in reality explore practices of segregation and exclusion[22] (micro or macro[23]). For that reason, in reviewing the research in this chapter, terms like 'mainstream education' are used. In progressing inclusive education there is a strong need to move to genuine and full inclusive education, and for this to be reflected in all research. Additionally, as a consequence of a myriad of factors, education settings frequently engage in reactive responses to the enrolment of students who experience disability, rather than proactively in processes of transformation for inclusion of all students.[24] Despite these issues, a considerable and growing body of research evidence supports inclusive education.[25]

In addition to positive outcomes for social justice and sense of community and belonging, research provides evidence of positive outcomes of inclusive education for social, academic, communication and physical development in students who do and do not experience disability. Inclusive education has also been found to have additional benefits for not only learning but also maintaining and generalising learning between and across settings compared with segregated education settings.[26]

The 2016 systematic review of the evidence for inclusive education by Harvard academic Thomas Hehir and his colleagues concluded "there is clear and consistent evidence that inclusive educational settings can confer substantial short- and long-term benefits for students with and without disabilities".[27] Similarly, consistent with findings over more than half a century, in a recent study Cole and colleagues find clear academic benefits of inclusive education.[28]

> " Decades of research demonstrates that inclusive education has benefits for the academic, communication, positive behavioural and social development of students labelled with 'severe' and 'multiple' 'disabilities'.

Additionally, in a 2017 meta-analysis, Szumski and colleagues found positive academic benefits of inclusive education for students who do not experience disability, at all levels of schooling.[29] For students who do not experience disability, research finds that inclusive education results in: enhanced learning opportunities and experiences; education that is more sensitive to differing student needs; growth in interpersonal skills and greater acceptance and understanding of human diversity; and increased flexibility and adaptability.[30] Furthermore, inclusive education has benefits for teachers in the form of improved teaching practices, with all the benefits that entails.[31] Nonetheless, segregated schooling is not only continuing, but also increasing.[32]

Troublingly, there is a common belief that education is really only for 'some people', and thus that there are 'some people' who are 'too disabled' to be included. Unsurprisingly, this common misperception goes hand in hand with (and is often used as a justification for) widespread segregation of students labelled as having 'severe' and 'multiple' 'disabilities'.[33] However, despite the misunderstandings and the associated discrimination, research evidence tells a different story. In fact, aside from the ethical and philosophical concerns regarding excluding students who have been categorised as 'too disabled' for inclusion, decades of research demonstrates that inclusive education has benefits for the academic, communication, positive behavioural and social development of students labelled with 'severe' and 'multiple' 'disabilities'.[34]

Another common issue raised about inclusive education is the concern about the impact of including *all* students on the education of students who do *not* experience disability. However, contrary to common fears, research provides clear evidence of positive benefits of including everyone together, with no detrimental effects.[35]

As noted in chapter one, the research discussed in this report explores the outcomes of inclusive education for all students, including children and young people labelled with a wide range of disability labels or categorised with 'severe' and 'multiple' 'disabilities'. Given the frequent misperception that the research evidence does not concern 'some' students, it is important to make it clear at the outset that this report addresses the evidence regarding students across the full range of labels. Inclusive education is about *all* students, not only some.

Relationships, interaction and belonging

The importance of relationships between students and teachers, as well as amongst students, is well established, and known to affect social, emotional and academic outcomes.[36] Whether the result of micro or macro-exclusion, as Connor and Goldmansour write, "[w]ith segregation comes devaluation, a loss in cultural capital for individuals. This form of disempowerment actively disadvantages students who have been labelled as disabled".[37]

Exclusion negatively affects children and young people who experience disability, their peers, and the adults who engage with them, resulting in marginalisation, stigmatisation and often bullying and abuse.[38] Students who experience disability have been found more likely to be socially isolated by their peers and at higher risk of being bullied than students who do not experience disability.[39] However, while a common assumption is that abuse and bullying occurs only in 'mainstream' settings, this is factually incorrect.[40] Research provides evidence that despite higher teacher-student ratios and greater supervision, the full range of bullying occurs in 'special' settings.[41] While there is some variation in individual studies[42], particularly based on teacher or parent ratings, growing evidence suggests that children and young people who attend 'special' settings are more likely to experience bullying than their peers in 'mainstream' settings, and that inclusive education is a key factor in reducing or eliminating bullying.[43]

Inclusive education facilitates social development in children and young people who do and do not experience disability.[44] Research evidence suggests that genuinely inclusive education allows students to build and develop friendships that they might not have considered or encountered otherwise.[45] It also facilitates improved attitudes between students who do and do not experience disability.[46] Inclusive settings encourage higher levels of interaction than segregated settings,[47] which results in more opportunities for children and young people to establish and maintain friendships.[48] The more time a student spends within an inclusive setting, the greater the social interaction.[49] In turn, this leads to better outcomes for social and communication development.[50]

The growing body of research into the outcomes of inclusive education for social development has also found that inclusion results in a more positive sense of self and self-worth for students who do and do not experience disability.[51] Perhaps as a consequence of this, students educated in inclusive settings have also been found to be more likely to enrol in post-secondary education.[52] Inclusive education leads to a sense of belonging,[53] increased likelihood to be part of a school group,[54] and to a self-concept not only as a receiver of help, but also as a giver of help.[55] For students who do and do not experience disability, inclusive education has been shown to result in more advanced social skills.[56]

Teachers frequently cite 'challenging behaviour' as their biggest concern regarding fulfilling their role.[57] Given the importance of the role of teachers in relation to supporting positive behaviour, and the challenges that

> " Genuinely inclusive education allows students to build and develop friendships that they might not have considered or encountered otherwise.

> " Research shows that students who experience disability who are educated in 'mainstream' settings demonstrate better academic and vocational outcomes.

can be presented through behaviour, this is unsurprising. However, research investigating actual student behaviour compared with teacher concerns highlights a disconnect between the level of concern and the reality of classroom behaviour[58]. This appears, in part, to be attributed to the manufactured but unsubstantiated broader social 'panic' about 'out of control' behaviour of students in schools.[59] Nonetheless, it has been reported in two studies from North America that the presence – though not genuine inclusion of – a disproportionate number of students labelled with severe emotional and behavioural disorders grouped within the same classroom can have a detrimental classroom impact.[60] Specifically in these studies, teachers reported higher levels of negative behavioural outcomes across the classroom.[61] However, this negative impact was found to be directly related to and mitigated by teacher factors.[62]

Overall, research provides evidence that inclusive education leads to improved behavioural development in students who do and do not experience disability, with less 'challenging' or 'disruptive' behaviour in inclusive settings[63] and students less likely to receive a "disciplinary referral".[64] In a meta-analysis of the research on inclusive education, Szumski and colleagues found no negative outcomes of the presence of students labelled with 'emotional and behavioural disorders', despite the frequent hypotheses to the contrary.[65]

Children and young people who participate in inclusive education have been found to be more independent during and following schooling, including more likely to live independently post-school.[66] Additionally, students who participate in inclusive education have been found to develop qualities such as patience and trust, and to become more aware of and responsive to the needs of others than students in non-inclusive settings.[67] Inclusive education supports students in developing increased awareness and acceptance of diversity and understanding of individuality.[68]

Academic outcomes

As Hehir and colleagues note:

"There is strong evidence that students with disabilities benefit academically from inclusive education. The academic impacts of inclusion have been studied in many ways with many different populations of students around the world. Multiple systematic reviews of the scholarly research literature indicate that students with disabilities who were educated in general education classes academically outperformed their peers who had been educated in segregated settings."[69]

In regards to academic outcomes, again, research findings contrast with the common assumption that the higher teacher-student ratios, as well as some teachers being trained in 'special' education, would result in better academic outcomes in segregated 'special' schools or classes. In fact, research shows that students who experience disability who are educated in 'mainstream' settings demonstrate better academic and vocational outcomes when compared with students educated in segregated settings.[70] Research also demonstrates benefits for educational attainment, with students who are educated in 'mainstream' settings nearly five times more likely to graduate at the expected time than students in segregated settings.[71]

Students who experience disability who are educated in 'mainstream' settings have been found to score higher on achievement tests and perform closer to grade average than students in segregated settings.[72] Research provides evidence for better outcomes in reading, writing and mathematics.[73] Additionally, it has been argued that inclusive education stimulates learning in that more time is spent on academic learning in 'mainstream' than segregated schools.[74] Students educated in 'mainstream' schools are given opportunities to engage at higher

academic levels and to achieve outcomes that may not otherwise be possible.[75] As noted above, students who attend 'mainstream' settings have enhanced educational attainment, increased post-secondary education, and are also more likely to be engaged in competitive employment.[76]

Students who do not experience disability have also been found to have equal or better academic outcomes in inclusive settings compared with students participating in non-inclusive settings.[77] Furthermore, inclusive teachers engage all students in more higher-order thinking, questioning and dialogical interactions than non-inclusive teachers.[78] In inclusive settings, students who do and do not experience disability have been found to receive higher-quality instruction that is better suited to individual needs, particularly through small group work.[79]

Outcomes for communication and language

Successful shared communication is at the core of participation in education.[80] However, people who use augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) are frequently excluded and subjected to demeaning assumptions.[81] These factors highlight the importance of transformation for inclusion in the area of communication.

Communication and language development in students who do and do not experience disability has been found to be enhanced through inclusive education.[82] Support for inclusive peer communication has been found to be particularly important.[83] Students in inclusive settings have been shown to increase independent communication, mastery of AAC strategies, and increased speech and language development when provided with appropriate support for inclusive education.[84]

> " In inclusive settings, students who do and do not experience disability have been found to receive higher-quality instruction that is better suited to individual needs.

Enhanced communication and language leads to greater independence and initiation of interactions, and increased active participation.[85] Consequently, it appears that inclusive education supports communication and language development, which in turn supports greater inclusion. Appropriate support to develop and implement AAC strategies is essential to inclusive education for many people.[86]

Ensuring that 'communication partners' are supported to develop communication skills is essential for enabling shared communication.[87] As den Houting, writing about understandings of and attitudes towards neurodiversity, notes, "[p]roviding a non-speaking autistic person with an alternative method of communication may give them a voice, but they will only truly stop being disabled when others listen".[88]

Physical development

Inclusion within physical education is an important consideration for the implementation of inclusive education. The ableist foundations of physical education have been identified and strongly critiqued.[89] However, limited research has considered the outcomes of inclusive education for physical development. Nonetheless, existing research provides evidence to suggest that inclusive education contributes positively towards the physical development of students who experience disability. For example, students who experience disability who are educated in 'mainstream' settings show gains in motor development and have a higher degree of independence.[90] Inclusion in 'mainstream' education settings has been found to encourage participation and provide more opportunities to observe and learn through the 'power of the peer', as well as to learn through trial-and-error.[91] This may enhance opportunities for physical development. Inclusive education provides access to a broader range of learning activities, which can stimulate physical development and enhance students' experiences.[92]

In research considering students' perspectives on inclusion in physical activities, students report that when they are actually included this provides an entry point for play, leisure activities, and friendship and creates a sense of legitimate participation.[93] Research has explored the negative outcomes for students when they are excluded from physical education.[94] However, multiple international

> " The education
> of teachers to be
> equipped and prepared
> to teach all students –
> in a fully inclusive manner
> – is essential to inclusive
> education.

reviews have found that when students who experience disability are included in physical education and provided with appropriate support the outcomes are positive for all students involved.[95]

The outcomes of inclusive education for teachers

It is not only the practices, but also the beliefs and attitudes of teachers and others, that have been found to be critical to preventing or facilitating inclusive education.[96] Indeed, the education of teachers to be equipped and prepared to teach all students – in a fully inclusive manner – is essential to inclusive education.[97]

Overall, research provides evidence that inclusive education results in higher quality education for students who do and do not experience disability.[98] However, the benefits of inclusive education are not only for children and young people. Research has found that through participation in inclusive education, teachers experience professional growth and increased personal satisfaction.[99] Additionally, developing skills to enable the inclusion of students who experience disability results in higher-quality teaching for all students and more confident teachers.[100]

Despite the positive outcomes of inclusive education for teachers, research also finds that teachers may hold a number of concerns about it, particularly in relation to inadequate support and resources, fear

or lack of confidence in teacher knowledge and competency, and concerns about positively supporting the behaviour of diverse groups of students.[101] Consequently, teachers are sometimes initially reluctant to participate in inclusive education and may feel that they are not equipped for the challenges involved. However, research has also found that teachers develop confidence in their ability to be inclusive, and increase their positive attitudes towards inclusion, through experience and support.[102]

Teachers often feel that inclusion will be a bigger challenge or struggle than it actually is in practice. As Kliewer writes:

> "*Two concerns are commonly voiced among professionals who express resistance to inclusion. This first is that the needs of children will not be met amid the complex dynamics of a general education setting. The second is that the needs of children with disabilities will require an excessive amount of directed resources that take away from the educational experiences of children without disabilities … neither concern is valid in a thoughtfully structured, well-resourced classroom.*"[103]

Families and inclusive education

There is a considerable body of research exploring the negative impact of exclusion on families. Research provides evidence demonstrating that families frequently experience stigmatisation and a host of barriers when they seek to have their children included – so much so that parents frequently experience the notion of 'choice' as a furphy.[104] Similarly, the experience of stigmatisation and exclusion is common for parents who experience disability.[105] Research involving families in Australia who have one or more children labelled 'disabled' finds that inclusive education is important to families and that while there are many barriers, when the families experience inclusive education this leads to:

> "*…happiness, a positive outlook on life, progress and development for the family, feelings of pride and of being valued and simply that inclusion was a wonderful experience. The desire for respect for every child, for inclusion to be 'ordinary' and for their children to be viewed simply as children was important to the families.*"[106]

Families identify positive attitudes towards inclusive education, inclusive relationships and strengths-based approaches as essential to facilitating inclusive education.[107] Genuine collaboration and respectful partnerships have been found to facilitate inclusion[108], and yet families frequently face a lack of responsiveness to their needs and wishes.[109] Some research suggests that when children are included this may support parents in feeling more confident to return to work.[110] Additionally, the experience of genuine inclusive education contributes to parents' psychological and economic well-being.[111] Inclusive education, when it does occur, is often the result of considerable parent advocacy and many families strongly desire inclusive education for their children. For families, the path to achieving this is often an unnecessarily difficult one.[112] It is frustrating for families to have to continually advocate for the inclusion of their child in the school and community[113], despite inclusive education being a fundamental right for everyone, and particularly in light of the weight of evidence demonstrating the positive outcomes.

A note on some research limitations

Many of the studies discussed in this chapter explore situations where a student has been 'included into' or 'integrated into' an existing setting, rather than reflecting a genuinely inclusive setting transformed to provide the best possible education for all of its students (chapter four will discuss this distinction further). Nonetheless, these examples demonstrate the positive outcomes that are possible when steps towards inclusive education are taken. Given that so much existing research compares integration and segregation, the lack of any research showing the superiority of segregation over 'mainstreaming' indicates that even poorly-done inclusion in the form of integration is still better. If the barriers currently inhibiting the realisation of genuine inclusion were to be addressed it seems likely that the outcomes would be even more positive. As transformation of education settings and systems occurs, ongoing research is required to further develop a clear understanding of the outcomes as education systems become more genuinely inclusive.

At the same time, in the face of the widespread positive outcomes of inclusive education, as outlined throughout this chapter, the exclusionary realities of current education systems and settings should be seriously questioned by policymakers and practitioners. There are a range of barriers that currently stymie the realisation of inclusion. One key and persistent issue is the plethora of misunderstandings of inclusion. In chapter three we move to unpacking these misunderstandings and clearly identifying the meaning of inclusive education as both a concept and pedagogy.

———

21 Loreman, 2014, p. 460

22 Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

23 Micro and macro-exclusion are described in detail in chapter five. Micro-exclusion refers to exclusionary practices within so-called inclusive settings or experiences. Macro-exclusion refers to segregation outside of 'mainstream' education settings or exclusion from any formal schooling.

24 Giangreco, & Suter, 2015

25 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017; Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013

26 Causton-Theoharis, Theoharis, Orsati, & Cosier, 2011

27 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016, p. 2

28 Cole, Murphy, Frisby, Grossi, & Bolte, 2019

29 Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

30 Ainscow, & Cesar, 2006; Dessemontet, & Bless, 2013; Farrell, Dyson, Polat, Hutcheson, & Gallannaugh, 2007; McGregor & Vogelsberg, 1998; Odom, & Diamond, 1998; Purdue, Ballard, & MacArthur, 2001; Rouse, & Florian, 2006; Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

31 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

32 Shaw, 2017

33 Browder, Spooner, Ahlgrim-Delzell, Harris, & Wakeman, 2008; Graham & Sweller, 2011; Kleinert, Towles-Reeves, Quenemoen, Thurlow, Fluegge, Weseman, & Kerbel, 2015; Kurth, Morningstar, & Kozleski, 2014; Morningstar, Allcock, White, Taub, Kurth, Gonsier-Gerdin, Ryndak, Sauer, & Jorgensen, 2016

34 For example, see: Boutot & Bryant, 2005; Browder, Spooner, Ahlgrim-Delzell, Harris, & Wakeman, 2008; Carter, Moss, Hoffman, Chung, & Sisco, 2011; Dessemontet, Bless, & Morin, 2012; Feldman, Carter, Asmus, & Brock, 2015; Fisher, & Meyer, 2002; Foreman, Arthur-Kelly, Pascoe, & King, 2004; Hunt, McDonnell, & Crockett, 2012; Kurth & Mastergeorge, 2012; Ruppar, Allcock, & Gonsier-Gerdin, 2017

35 Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

36 Downer, Sabol, & Hamre, 2010; Gregoriadis, & Grammatikopoulos, 2014; Hamre, & Pianta, 2001; O'Connor, & McCartney, 2007; Ostrosky, Laumann, & Hsieh, 2006; Thijs, Koomen, Roorda, & Hagen, 2011; Spilt, Koomen, & Mantzicopoulos, 2010

37 Connor, & Goldmansour, 2012, p. 31

38 Biklen, & Burke, 2006; Curcic, 2009; United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 2013; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015

39 Rossetti, 2014

40 Davis & Watson, 2000; Queensland Parents for People with a Disability (QPPD), 2003; Rose, Monda-Amaya, & Espelage, 2011; Torrance, 2000

41 Rose, Monda-Amaya, & Espelage, 2011; Torrance, 2000

42 For example, see: Humphrey & Hebron, 2015; Woods & Wolke, 2004

43 Rose, Monda-Amaya, & Espelage, 2011

44 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Hanline & Correa-Torres, 2012; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Kliewer, 1998; Odom, Buysse, & Soukakou, 2011; Schwab, 2015; Stahmer, Akshoomoff, & Cunningham, 2011; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003; Stahmer & Ingersoll, 2004

45 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

46 Consiglio, Guarnera, & Magnano, 2015; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

47 Antia, Jones, Luckner, Kreimeyer, & Reed, 2011; Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Flewitt, Nind, & Payler, 2009; Fox, Farrell, & Davis, 2004; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Odom, Buysse, & Soukakou, 2011; Theodorou, & Nind, 2010

48 Hollingsworth & Buysse, 2009; Palmer, Fuller, Arora, & Nelson, 2001; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

49 Antia, Jones, Luckner, Kreimeyer, & Reed, 2011

50 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

51 Diamond & Huang, 2005; Fitch, 2003; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

52 Baer, Daviso, Flexer, Queen, & Meindl, 2011

53 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Miller, 2009; Odom, Buysse, & Soukakou, 2011; Petriwskyj, 2010

54 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

55 Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

56 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

57 Cologon, 2012; Graham & Spandagou, 2011; McMahon, & Harwood, 2016; Sullivan, Johnson, Owens, & Conway, 2014

58 *Ibid*

59 *Ibid*

60 Fletcher, 2010; Gottfried, 2014

61 *Ibid*

62 *Ibid*

63 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Kliewer, 1998; Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009; Stahmer, Akshoomoff, & Cunningham, 2011; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

64 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016, p. 16

65 Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

66 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Stahmer, Akshoomoff, & Cunningham, 2011

67 Diamond & Huang, 2005; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003; Nikolaraizi, Kumar, Favazza, Sideridis, Koulousiou, & Raill, 2005

68 Cole, Murphy, Frisby, Grossi, & Bolte, 2019; Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Hanline & Correa-Torres, 2012; Hollingsworth, Boone, & Crais, 2009; Kliewer, 1998, Kliewer, 2008; Palmer, Fuller, Arora, & Nelson, 2001; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

69 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016, p. 13

70 de Graaf, Van Hove, & Haveman, 2013; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Giangreco, 2009; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008; Myklebust, 2006; Peetsma, Vergeer, Karsten, & Roeleveld, 2001; Stahmer & Ingersoll, 2004; Tanti Burlo, 2010; Vakil, Welton, O'Connor, & Kline, 2009; Vianello, & Lanfranchi, 2009

71 Schifter, 2015

72 Cole, Murphy, Frisby, Grossi, & Bolte, 2019; Peetsma, Vergeer, Karsten, & Roeleveld, 2001; Vakil, Welton, O'Connor, & Kline, 2009

73 de Graaf, Van Hove, & Haveman, 2013; de Graaf & van Hove, 2015; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008; Peetsma, Vergeer, Karsten, & Roeleveld, 2001

74 de Graaf, Van Hove, & Haveman, 2013; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008

75 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Fox, Farrell, & Davis, 2004; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009

76 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

77 Dessemontet, & Bless, 2013; Farrell, Dyson, Polat, Hutcheson, & Gallannaugh, 2007; Kalambouka, Farrell, Dyson, & Kaplan, 2007; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008; McGregor, & Vogelsberg, 1998; Odom, Buysse, & Soukakou, 2011; Odom & Diamond, 1998; Purdue, Ballard, & MacArthur, 2001; Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

78 Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

79 Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009

80 Cologon, & Mevawalla, 2018

81 Light & McNaughton, 2015

82 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Fisher & Shogren, 2011; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Hart, & Whalon, 2011; Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Iacono, Chan, & Waring, 1998; Johnston, McDonnell, Nelson, & Magnavito, 2003; Justice, Logan, Lin, & Kaderavek, 2014; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008; Peetsma, Vergeer, Karsten, & Roeleveld, 2001; Stahmer, Akshoomoff, & Cunningham, 2011; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

83 Hart & Whalon, 2011; Kliewer, 1998; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

84 Fisher & Shogren, 2011; Iacono, Chan, & Waring, 1998; Johnston, McDonnell, Nelson, & Magnavito, 2003; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008; Stahmer & Ingersoll, 2004

85 Johnston, McDonnell, Nelson, & Magnavito, 2003; Stahmer & Ingersoll, 2004

86 Hanline, & Correa-Torres, 2012; Iacono & Cologon, 2014

87 Kent-Walsh, Murza, Malani, & Binger, 2015

88 den Houting, 2019, p. 272

89 Barton, 2009; DePauw, 1997; Evans, 2004

90 Fox, Farrell, & Davis, 2004; Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003

91 Biklen, 2000; Theodorou & Nind, 2010

92 Theodorou & Nind, 2010

93 Spencer-Cavaliere & Watkinson, 2010

94 Qi & Ha, 2012

95 *Ibid*

96 Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Berlach, & Chambers, 2011; Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Cologon, 2012; Curcic, 2009; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Forlin, & Chambers, 2011; Graham & Spandagou, 2011; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Hsieh, Hsieh, Ostrosky, & McCollum, 2012; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Kalyanpur, 2011; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; Price, 2009; Sharma, Moore, & Sonawane, 2009; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012; Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013; Thaver & Lim, 2014; Varcoe, & Boyle, 2014; Villa, Van Tac, Muc, Ryan, Thuy, Weill, 2003

97 Agbenyega & Klibthong, 2014; Appl & Spenciner, 2008; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Baglieri, 2008; Cologon, 2012; Dart, 2006; Deng, & Poon-McBrayer, 2012; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Faamanatu-Eteuati, 2011; Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Rutherford, 2012; Rutherford, 2016; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012; Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, & Simon, 2005; Suculoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, & Akalın, 2013; Szumski, Smogorzewska, & Karwowski, 2017

98 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Jordan & Stanovich, 2001; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

99 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993

100 Cologon, 2012; Hehir & Katzman, 2012; Jordan & Stanovich, 2001; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

101 Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Cologon, 2012; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Hsieh, Hsieh, Ostrosky, & McCollum, 2012; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Kim, 2013; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Suculoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, & Akalın, 2013; Thaver & Lim, 2014; Varcoe & Boyle, 2014

102 Alhassan, 2014; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Chiner & Cardona, 2013; Cologon, 2012; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; Jordan & Stanovich, 2001; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010; Purdue, Ballard, & MacArthur, 2001

103 Kliewer, 2008, p. 135

104 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Lilley, 2013; Palmer, Fuller, Arora, & Nelson, 2001; Poed, Cologon, & Jackson, 2017; Runswick-Cole, 2008

105 Kilkey & Clarke, 2010; Robinson, Hickson, & Strike, 2001

106 Cologon, 2014a, p. 95

107 *Ibid*

108 Mortier, Hunt, Leroy, van de Putte, & van Hove, 2010

109 Cologon, 2014a; Hollingsworth & Buysse, 2009; Komesaroff, 2007

110 Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

111 Mayer, 2009

112 Cologon, 2014a; Mann, 2016; Runswick-Cole, 2008

113 Cologon, 2014a; Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009

•

Defining inclusive education

"It is not our differences that divide us. It is our inability to recognize, accept and celebrate those differences."[114]

As clearly identified in chapter two, there are important benefits of inclusive education for everyone. However, in working towards inclusion for all, it is essential to clarify common misunderstandings of inclusive education that form barriers to its realisation. In this chapter I draw on the current literature to outline such misunderstandings, contrasted with a clear and internationally-accepted definition of inclusive education.

As noted in chapter one, inclusive education involves valuing and facilitating the full participation and belonging of everyone in all aspects of our education communities and systems. No one is excluded; supports for inclusion are embedded within everyday educational practices.[115] Inclusive education is about everyone learning together, *in all our diversity*. This means that everyone has genuine opportunities to learn *together*, with support as needed, and all students are meaningfully involved in all aspects of the curriculum – thus making inclusion a *shared* experience.[116] There is no 'type' of student 'eligible' (nor 'ineligible') for inclusion – inclusion is about and for *all of us*. Inclusive education involves upholding the dignity of each student in belonging, participating and accessing ongoing opportunities, recognising and valuing the contribution that each student makes, and supporting every student to flourish.[117]

When inclusion is misconstrued as assimilation (as is the case with integration), it becomes about changing or 'fixing' *students* to 'fit' within existing structures, systems and practices.[118] Assimilation ends up focussing on who is, or who can be changed to be, a close enough 'fit'. Inclusion, instead, can be understood as 'fitting' educational opportunities, settings, experiences and systems to the full diversity of students and embracing and celebrating diversity as a positive and rich learning resource.

Assimilation is not inclusion, instead it is *exclusion* and needs to be recognised as such. When the term 'inclusion' is co-opted and misused to represent exclusion and segregation it becomes about entrenching the idea that there is a 'them' and an 'us' – an 'us' to which only some people are eligible to belong. There is nothing inclusive about segregation.

> " Acknowledging that inclusive education is about all of us underlines the importance of ensuring that none of us are excluded.

Acknowledging that inclusive education is about all of us underlines the importance of ensuring that none of us are excluded. Exclusion is a disempowering process through which we are constructed as an 'Other', and by inference as a 'lesser' or 'inferior' Other.[119] Paradoxically, the very need to focus on inclusion naturally implies exclusion, thus to understand inclusive education it is important to consider who is included and into what, and likewise who is excluded, from what, and why. Or as Best, Corcoran and Slee put it: "Who's in? Who's out? Who decides? What are we going to do about it?"[120]

Inclusion and 'dis-belonging'

Efforts towards inclusion need to be undertaken with a clear awareness of the risks, and potential paradox, of identifying any one group of people as 'the excluded' or 'the included'. The notion of 'dis-belonging' highlights the problematic and entrenched assumption that has come to underpin the word 'inclusion', whereby the association between inclusion and the experience of disability results in "taken-for-granted assumptions that the 'natural' position of [people who experience disability] is one of dis-belonging".[121] Additionally, the use of the term 'inclusion' can slip easily and rapidly into a marker of the "'boundaries' of who is and is not normal (i.e. eligible to be 'included') and who is 'different'".[122] This can result in exclusionary approaches whereby 'special' practices and programs are developed for 'special' students, rather than a focus on transforming existing education practices, programs and systems to be inclusive of *all* students and all forms of diversity.[123] As explored in chapter five, ableism involves this devaluing and dehumanising process from which consciously or subconsciously a 'them' and 'us' is created whereby some people are constructed as

an 'Inferior Other', as lesser, as undesirable or undesirably 'different', as diminished, as needing to be 'fixed' or changed, as sub-human.

These assumptions of dis-belonging and 'difference' live in the ableist 'underlife'. As in, the seemingly invisible but heavily present ableist beliefs, attitudes and accepted 'truths' that – often subconsciously – guide our thoughts, actions and social systems, with considerable implications for the legislation, policy and practice that is consequently accepted. The assumption that children and young people who experience disability may be better placed in a 'special' education setting and the acceptance of the parallel systems of segregated 'special' and 'mainstream' education is a key example of the playing out of these unquestioned ableist beliefs. Indeed, as Hodge and Runswick-Cole write, "[b]y definition the term mainstream places some children outside these services with the presumption that their requirements can only be met within some minority specialist provision".[124] In direct contrast to such presumptions, inclusive education involves transforming "…ordinary settings so that they can respond to the totality of the student requirements, rather than viewing education as ameliorating individual 'needs'".[125] It is a shift that would result in an *assumption of inclusion*, rather than perpetuating the ongoing 'question mark' that hangs over the heads of many students whereby their eligibility to participate in their education setting and experiences is conditional and always, though often subtly, under review.

> " The fundamental role that education plays in creating paths for genuine participation in all other aspects of life underscores the significance of inclusion or exclusion in education.

In this report, the discussion of inclusive education is focused on the inclusion of children and young people who experience disability. This is not intended to suggest that inclusive education is only about people who experience disability, nor to unthinkingly reproduce dis-belonging, but it is an essential discussion because those of us who experience disability are frequently excluded from many aspects of society – including within education. Additionally, as Erevelles contends, segregated schooling engenders this dis-belonging.[126] Given that segregation on the basis of 'disability' is, arguably, the last remaining 'respectable' form of segregation in schooling, it needs to be directly and urgently addressed as a matter of civil rights.

It follows then that since by its very definition inclusive education is about everyone, it should not be necessary to specifically recognise the right of people who experience disability to an inclusive education – after all, *all people are people*. However, "for some people these rights are conceived as natural, while for others these same rights are conceived as 'privileges'".[127] People who experience disability are the largest minority group in the world.[128] People who experience disability are also amongst the most excluded.[129] Even within anti-oppression and anti-bias movements and pedagogy, disability is frequently left unaddressed.[130] Consequently, particular attention to ending violations of the rights of people who experience disability is required.

As Slee writes, "[e]xclusion resides deep in the bones of education".[131] This has wide-reaching implications for people who experience disability who are frequently excluded as a consequence of the ease with which 'disability labels' form a path to creating a 'them'. While labels in and of themselves are not always or necessarily problematic – and can instead be used as powerful positive identity markers and advocacy tools – unfortunately in practice labels are frequently used to pathologise individuals and to justify exclusion. The fundamental role that education plays in creating paths for genuine participation in all other aspects of life underscores the significance of inclusion or exclusion in education.[132]

The national and international imperative for inclusion

There has been sustained and growing interest in inclusive education nationally and internationally for some time now.[133] The World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, and the *1990 World Declaration on Education for All*, made at the conclusion of the conference[134], played an important role in highlighting the exclusion of many students worldwide and progressed international discussions around inclusion and inclusive education.[135] This, along with the *Salamanca Declaration 1994*, the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, the *Biwako Millennium Framework 2002*, and international conventions, particularly the *United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989* and the *United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (CRPD), along with national initiatives such as the *2008 Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (currently under review), amongst others, provide the backdrop to current research, policies and practices regarding inclusive education.

Despite this sustained and widespread interest, inclusive education has continued to be a vexed issue and it sometimes seems there are as many definitions of inclusive education put forward as there are people using the term. However, as outlined in chapter one, the CRPD provides an overarching international, and legally binding, definition. Additionally, *GC4* on Article 24 of the CRPD outlines in detail the meaning of inclusive education, thus while the individual *experience* of inclusion and exclusion may differ, the CRPD no longer leaves room for individual *opinion* to determine the definition. The application of the CRPD in legislation, policy and practice also creates an important opportunity to identify and address current situations where exclusion and segregation are being masqueraded as 'inclusion'.

Article 24 of the CRPD clearly identifies the right of every person who experiences disability to participate fully in an inclusive, quality education on an equal basis with people who are not labelled disabled. Specifically, this involves the right to inclusive education at all levels of education, intended to support "the full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity".[136] Additionally, the

> " *Inclusive education cannot mean education within a segregated education class or setting… all forms of segregation and integration constitute exclusion*

realisation of the right to education requires ensuring accommodations will be made and support will be provided to "facilitate effective education … consistent with the goal of full inclusion".[137]

GC4 on Article 24 of the CRPD further explicates the meaning of inclusive education as "a process of systemic reform" and structural change in which change takes place with the intention of creating genuinely participatory and equitable learning experiences.[138] Inclusive education involves enabling all people to access general education settings and providing quality education on an equal basis with all people in the community in which they live.[139] Additionally, inclusive education does not merely involve the presence of people who do and do not experience disability within the same location but rather requires support to be provided *within* the 'general' education system to ensure that each person has access to opportunities to maximise academic and social development.[140] Inclusive education "values the well-being of all students, respects their inherent dignity and autonomy, and acknowledges individuals' requirements and their ability to effectively be included in and contribute to society".[141]

Importantly, the CRPD definition of inclusion also goes on to outline that no form of segregation or integration constitutes inclusive education. This distinction is key to defining what inclusive education is, and to clarifying ongoing, problematic and pervasive confusions that serve to perpetuate segregation. It is made explicitly clear in *GC4* that inclusive education cannot mean education within a segregated education class or setting and that all forms of segregation and integration constitute *exclusion* and entail disability-specific discrimination.[142]

As explained in *GC4*:

- "*Segregation occurs when the education of students with disabilities is provided in separate environments designed or used to respond to a particular impairment or to various impairments, in isolation from students without disabilities.*

- *Integration is the process of placing persons with disabilities in existing mainstream educational institutions with the understanding that they can adjust to the standardized requirements of such institutions.*"[143]

And, in contrast to both segregation and integration, inclusion is defined as follows:

- "*Inclusion involves a process of systemic reform embodying changes and modifications in content, teaching methods, approaches, structures and strategies in education to overcome barriers with a vision serving to provide all students of the relevant age range with an equitable and participatory learning experience and the environment that best corresponds to their requirements and preferences. Placing students with disabilities within mainstream classes without accompanying structural changes to, for example, organization, curriculum and teaching and learning strategies, does not constitute inclusion. Furthermore, integration does not automatically guarantee the transition from segregation to inclusion.*"[144]

The national legislative implications

Having ratified the CRPD, Australia is committed and legally obliged to respect, protect and fulfil the rights articulated within this treaty, including the right to inclusive education. Thus "to adopt appropriate legislative, administrative, budgetary, judicial, promotional, and other measures toward the full realization of the right", including provision of assistance and services as required to bring about inclusive education.[145] This requires acting upon the long-held recognition that inclusive education is a right for every person – it is neither conditional, nor a privilege reserved for only *some* of us.[146]

In its 2018 combined second and third periodic report under the CRPD, the Australian Government noted its commitment to inclusive education from early childhood through to adulthood, consistent with the CRPD.[147] However, in relation to the fundamental core of Article 24 of the CRPD, for which phasing out all forms of segregated education is necessary, the Australian Government goes on to state that:

"*In respect of the Committee's comments urging States Parties to 'achieve a transfer of resources from segregated to inclusive environments', Australia's view is that a State Party will meet its obligations under article 24 through an education system that allows for funding of different education modalities so students with disability are able to participate in a range of education options including enrolment in mainstream classes in mainstream schools with additional support, specialist classes or units in mainstream schools and specialist schools.*"[148]

As Bacchi outlines, while policy is generally perceived as the means for guiding positive action, it not only represents intended action but also inaction.[149] In this instance, for example, what the Australian governments intend to do, as well as intended inaction in key areas.

Policy is politically driven and both reflects and informs the dominant culture within any given context.[150] Policy and culture play a critical role in facilitating inclusive education.[151] As Johnstone and Chapman argue, "[p]olicy serves to legitimise, sanction, encourage, and disseminate desired practice".[152] Problematically then, alongside common misunderstandings of inclusive education, the fact that the conflation of 'special' education and inclusive education continues on official levels, with examples of all forms of segregation being misrepresented as inclusion, is therefore unsurprising. The presenting of state 'inclusion' awards to segregated schools in Queensland and Victoria, as has been the case in past years, is but one example.[153] Additionally, it is not uncommon when asking about inclusive education to be pointed to segregated education settings, and particularly to special units, as examples of the efforts of a government on this front, despite the reality that these examples in no way represent inclusion. The current emphasis on increasing segregated placements by the NSW State Government[154] and in 2019 budget announcements by the Queensland State Government

(contrary to its inclusion policy) is an example of this concerning trend.[155] The increasing segregation nationally puts Australia out of step with other nations, for example with North America, where segregation is decreasing.[156]

How should we live – together

Strong philosophical and moral arguments have been made for many decades regarding the importance of and right to inclusive education for all people under all circumstances. While this argument of inclusive education as a *moral* right is sometimes questioned,[157] the fact remains that inclusive education is a universal *human* right. Additionally, when identifying and recognising the full humanity of every person, arguments against inclusive education as a moral right fail to be convincing.

Montaigne, an influential 16th century French philosopher, engaged in an in-depth exploration of questions about how, as people, we can live ethical lives and make choices with integrity. For Montaigne, this question of honour was integral to the ongoing and essential question of 'how should we live?'. When considering inclusion, the question then becomes "how should we live *together*".[158] At its core, inclusive education is about how, as human beings, we wish to live with each other. Or as Slee suggests, inclusive education "invites us to think about the nature of the world we live in, a world that we prefer and our role in shaping both of these worlds".[159] This requires active and ongoing recognition and embracing of our shared humanity. It also requires a conscious rejection of the ongoing temptation to seemingly 'make easy' what is hard by dehumanising those of us, who by the nature of some form of stigmatisation,

"
Efforts to address this ableist dehumanisation are needed at every level of society.

can easily be (mis)constructed as an 'Inferior Other', from which point all manners of segregation and abuse begin to be justified. Efforts to address this ableist dehumanisation are needed at every level of society.

Expectations, attitudes and beliefs

Misinformation and (ableist) low expectations combine to continually limit opportunities for people who experience disability.[160] In contrast to common belief, children notice 'difference' from a very young age.[161] Research provides evidence demonstrating that at very young ages children demonstrate internalised cultural preferences, prejudices and social hierarchies reflective of the communities in which they live, including making unsolicited prejudiced statements about community members.[162] In research involving children aged between two and six years of age, Watson provides evidence of ableist enculturation demonstrated through children's conversations and behaviours as they construct people who experience disability as tragic and pathologised 'others'.[163] The development of these entrenched prejudices from early in the childhood years creates a vicious cycle that inhibits social cohesion. Fostering inclusion throughout the childhood years has the potential to break this cycle[164], thus making formal schooling an important focus area for developing inclusion. However, the views and behaviours of children and young people are highly influenced by adult views and behaviours and thus adults need to take seriously the need for change in themselves.[165] As discussed above, inclusive education is about every student's right to be a valued member of society and to be provided with equal opportunities to actively participate in and contribute to all areas of learning.[166] In conflict with this, inclusion is often misunderstood as an 'added extra' or a 'special effort' born out of kindness or charity.

Inclusive education requires recognising impairment as one of many forms of human diversity, and welcoming and, as noted earlier, viewing diversity as a rich resource rather than a problem.[167] Inclusive education, therefore, creates a situation where all people can be valued and experience a sense of belonging and where all people have genuine opportunities to flourish.[168]

Inclusion for democratic citizenship

Inclusive education requires ongoing engagement with removing barriers to active involvement and participation in shared learning and full and valued membership in all aspects of the community.[169] This requires all participants within an education setting to be open to listening and learning together – and this includes listening and learning together with children and young people.[170] Sapon-Shevin brings into perspective the bigger picture of inclusion, of which inclusive education is one key component:

> "[I]nclusion is not about disability, nor is it only about schools. Inclusion is about social justice. What kind of world do we want to create and how should we educate children for that world? What kinds of skills and commitments do people need to thrive in a diverse society?"[171]

Inclusive education, then, is one aspect of the realisation of democratic social values.[172] Respect for difference, collaboration, valuing families and community, and viewing all students as active and valued participants who have the right to be heard and provided with equitable access to education, are all factors identified by Australian educators as essential to inclusive education for all students.[173]

" Inclusion is often misunderstood as an 'added extra' or a 'special effort' born out of kindness or charity.

Family perspectives

Inclusive education is also about engaging inclusively with families.[174] In an inclusive community, families and the roles they play are valued. However, it is not the responsibility of an excluded person and their family to create change for inclusion, but rather inclusion is a shared community endeavour.[175] Families who experience disability have identified the lived experience of inclusive education as belonging, participation, opportunity and recognised contribution.[176] Additionally, families have identified inclusion as being accepted as "just one of the group", as something that families have to work towards, and as something that is increasing over time.[177] However, families also identify many challenges in working with education settings towards the goal of inclusive education.[178] As discussed in chapters two and six, while the continuation of segregated education is often presented as important to enable family 'choice', this notion is not only problematic in light of the fundamental human right to inclusive education, but has been revealed as a ruse through family experiences that demonstrate time and again the pressure on families to segregate, and extensive experiences of gatekeeping.[179]

In research in Italy, where all students have been educated together since all special schools were closed and segregated education ended in 1977, one final-year high school student shared his understanding of inclusion: "Inclusion is about the whole of life – the way we live together as people for the whole of life".[180] This understanding of inclusive education as one aspect of broader inclusion in society draws our thinking towards an understanding that inclusive education is an ongoing process.[181] When a student enrols in an education setting, this is the beginning (not the endpoint) of the processes of inclusion.[182] Placing a student who experiences disability into a 'mainstream' setting without undertaking transformation for inclusion does not change understandings of 'disability' or 'difference' and can simply transfer the idea of 'special' students from a segregated setting to being segregated within a 'mainstream' setting.[183] As families who experience disability have identified, in addition to presence, genuinely belonging – with all that belonging entails – is fundamental to inclusion.

> " *Translating values into action requires engaging with inclusive education as a very practical, everyday process.*

Transformation for inclusion

Bringing about inclusive education is about transformation. It "requires developing and putting into action inclusive values, policies and practices… to engage in education for social justice and democracy, with a focus on reducing or removing oppression within and beyond education experiences and systems".[184] Translating values into action requires engaging with inclusive education as a very practical, everyday process. As Mogharreban and Bruns write, "[i]nclusion is not simply an intellectual ideal; it is a physical and very real experience".[185]

Ferguson argues that bringing about inclusive education requires considering "[h]ow teachers understand the nature of knowledge and the student's role in learning, and how these ideas about knowledge and learning are manifested in teaching and classwork".[186] As such, inclusive education can be understood as ongoing critical engagement with flexible and student-centred pedagogy that caters for and values diversity, and holds high expectations for all people.[187] Bringing about inclusive education is about identifying and addressing exclusion wherever it occurs in policy and practice.[188] Simultaneously, inclusive education is about belonging and becoming, *together.*[189] Inclusive education requires recognising that we are all equally human and putting this recognition into action.

Ending segregation of students by location (within or between education settings) is a critical first step towards inclusive education. However, inclusive education requires much more than the co-location of students. As well as an end to all forms of segregation, it also involves:

- all students being welcome and valued, and the contribution of each student being recognised. This includes building inclusive relationships and engaging in critical reflection on attitudes;

- ensuring that all educational experiences are set up in ways to facilitate the equitable and genuine participation and belonging of every student;

- all necessary supports (for students and teachers) are provided and embedded inclusively within everyday practices;

- additional staff (for example, additional educators or paraprofessionals) working inclusively across the setting, without directly or indirectly 'othering' or segregating students;

- ensuring that there are no segregated (separate) groups, units, classes or settings for any student or group of students. This includes avoidance of all forms of streaming or ability grouping;

- facilitating the genuine participation of every student within the same learning activities, for example, all students working together within the same lessons without separate lessons or curricula based on student labels;

- making sure that all students are meaningfully involved in all aspects of learning; and

- ensuring that all students are supported to flourish.

114 Lorde, 1994

115 UN General Assembly, 2016

116 *Ibid*

117 Agbenyega & Klibthong, 2014; Cologon, 2014a

118 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Chung, Lee, & Goh, 2008; Colibaba, Gheorghiu, Colibaba, & Munteanu, 2013; Cologon, 2014b; Curcic, 2009; Lalvani, 2013; Rietveld, 2010; Slee, 2001

119 Barton, 1997

120 Best, Corcoran, & Slee, 2018, p. 4

121 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011, p. 2123

122 Paugh & Dudley-Marling, 2011, p. 831

123 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Cologon, 2010; Cologon, 2014b; Cologon & D'Alessio, 2015; Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013; Slee, 2011

124 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013, p. 311

125 Cologon & D'Alessio, 2015, p. 178

126 Erevelles, 2011

127 D'Alessio, 2011, p. 141

128 World Health Organisation (WHO), 2011

129 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016; Hobson, 2010; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015

130 Agosto, White, & Valcarlos, 2019; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019

131 Slee, 2018a, p. 1

132 Hehir, Grindal, Freeman, Lamoreau, Borquaye, & Burke, 2016

133 Cummings, Sills-Busio, Barker, & Dobbins, 2015; Reupert, Deppeler, & Sharma, 2015; Slee, 2018b

134 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 1990

135 Miles & Singal, 2010

136 United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006, Article 24, para 1a

137 *Ibid*, Article 24, para 2e

138 UN General Assembly, 2016, para 11

139 United Nations, 2016

140 *Ibid*

141 UN General Assembly, 2016, para 10b

142 Cukalevski & Malaquias, 2019

143 UN General Assembly, 2016, para 11

144 *Ibid*

145 Jonsson, 2007, p. 118

146 D'Alessio, 2011; Degener, 2016; Kliewer, 1998

147 Australian Government, 2018

148 *Ibid*, p. 40

149 Bacchi, 1999

150 *Ibid*

151 Arduin, 2015; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Cologon, 2013b; Cologon, 2014b; Cologon & D'Alessio, 2015; D'Alessio, 2011; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; McDonald & Tufue-Dolgoy, 2013

152 Johnstone & Chapman, 2009, p. 131

153 For example, see: Queensland Government, 2018; Queensland Government, 2016; Victorian Government, 2018; Victorian Government, 2017

154 NSW Government, 2018

155 At a Budget Estimates Committee hearing on 1 August 2019, the Queensland Education Minister, Ms Grace Grace, announced a $136.2 million funding boost for segregated education, including the establishment of new 'special' schools, stating also that: "The numbers are increasing greater than in the mainstream. We will have a four per cent increase over the next five years compared with around 1.5 per cent in the mainstream." QLD Government, 2019

156 De Bruin, 2019

157 Gordon, 2013

158 Cologon, 2014b, p. 14

159 Slee, 2011, p. 14

160 Cologon, 2012

161 Cologon, Mevawalla, Niland, Artinian, Salvador, & Wright, In press; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Watson, 2018

162 Connolly, Smith, & Kelly, 2002; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Mevawalla, In press; Watson, 2018

163 Watson, 2018

164 Cologon, 2012; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Symeonidou & Loizou, 2018

165 Ainscow, 2007; Beckett, 2009; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Srinivasan, 2017; UNESCO, 2013

166 Armstrong & Barton, 2008; Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Cologon, 2014b; Cologon & Salvador, 2016; Cologon & Mevawalla, 2018; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Mackenzie, Cologon, & Fenech, 2016; McCullough, 2009; Naraian, 2011; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009; Theodorou & Nind, 2010; UNESCO, 2013; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015

167 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Beckett, 2009; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Cologon, 2013b; den Houting, 2019; Gable, 2013; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; McCullough, 2009; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009

168 Connor & Goldmansour, 2012; Miller, 2009; Petriwskyj, 2010

169 Curcic, 2009; Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Lalvani
& Bacon, 2019; Theodorou & Nind, 2010; Vakil, Welton,
O'Connor, & Kline, 2009

170 Macartney & Morton, 2011

171 Sapon-Shevin, 2003, p. 26

172 Barton, 1997; Opertti, Walker, & Zhang, 2014; Slee, 2011

173 Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Cologon, 2010;
Mackenzie, Cologon, & Fenech, 2016; Wright, 2017

174 Berlach & Chambers, 2011; Breitenbach, Armstrong, &
Bryson, 2013; Burke & Goldman, 2015; Burke & Hodapp, 2014;
Cologon, 2014a; Buswell Griffiths, Norwich, & Burden, 2004;
Dinneson & Kroeger, 2018; Dockett, Perry, & Kearney, 2011;
Edmiaston & Fitzgerald, 2000; Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-
Andrews, 2010; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009;
Vakil, Welton, O'Connor, & Kline, 2009; Valle, 2009

175 Mayer, 2009

176 Cologon, 2014a

177 Neely-Barnes, Graff, Roberts, Hall, & Hankins, 2010, p. 251

178 Cologon, 2014a; Honkasilta, Vehkakoski, & Vehmas, 2015;
Lilley, 2013

179 Baker-Ericzén, Mueggenborg, & Shea, 2009; Lilley, 2013;
Mann, Cuskelly, & Moni, 2018; Mann, 2016; Palmer, Fuller,
Arora, & Nelson, 2001; Poed, Cologon, & Jackson, 2017;
Runswick-Cole, 2008; Slee, 2011

180 Cologon, 2013b

181 Booth, & Ainscow, 2011; Cologon, 2014b; Curcic, 2009

182 Armstrong & Barton, 2008).; Beckett, 2009; Berlach &
Chambers, 2011; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Booth, Ainscow,
& Kingston, 2006; Chung, Lee, & Goh, 2008; Cologon, 2010;
Cologon, 2013b; Cologon, 2014b; Cologon, 2014c; Curcic,
2009; D'Alessio, 2011; de Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011;
Humphrey, 2008; Klibthong, 2013; Komesaroff & McLean, 2006;
McLeskey & Waldron, 2007; Petriwskyj, 2010; Rietveld, 2010

183 Cologon, 2014b; Curcic, 2009; Jelas, & Ali, 2014

184 Cologon, 2014b, p. 4

185 Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009, p. 407

186 Ferguson, 2008, p. 113

187 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Grenier, 2010;
Petriwskyj, 2010

188 Bevan-Brown, 2013

189 Cologon, 2013b

CHAPTER
FOUR

•

Illusions
of inclusion

"Exclusion by any name remains exclusion."[190]

In direct contrast to being included, with all of the benefits of inclusive education as outlined in chapter two, segregation or exclusion is experienced as a stigmatising mark of being a 'lesser' or 'inferior' person.[191] As discussed in chapter three, exclusion is a process of dehumanisation resulting in the construction of an 'Inferior Other' – the 'them' in the consequent 'them and us'. Both macro and micro-exclusion are currently rampant across and beyond Australia.[192] Indeed, misappropriation of the term 'inclusion' and misguided attempts to globalise narrow and exclusionary notions of inclusive education have, at times, posed a danger to pre-existing inclusive cultural beliefs and practices.[193]

Macro-exclusion

In its most extreme form, macro-exclusion in education involves denial of any formal education opportunities. While this form of macro-exclusion is ongoing[194], macro-exclusion more commonly occurs when a student is excluded from 'mainstream' education and segregated into a 'special' school or 'special' class/unit for all or part of the day, the week or the year.

Macro-exclusion is a clear form of segregation that is straightforward to identify. However, the frequent misunderstandings of the term 'inclusive education' lead to a situation where exclusion is often called, or misappropriated as, 'inclusion'.[195] Many genuine efforts towards inclusive education have been and continue to be made, in response to the national and international attention to the importance of inclusive education over the past decades. In many instances, however, the terms 'special education' or 'special needs education' have been replaced with the term 'inclusive education', without any actual change in policy or practice.[196]

Micro-exclusion

When exclusion occurs within 'mainstream' settings that claim to be inclusive, this results in 'micro-exclusion'.[197] One common form of micro-exclusion is where a student is present within a 'mainstream' setting, but is separated from the group and the curriculum, often through the provision of 'inclusion support' that (usually unintentionally) isolates the student educationally, socially and even physically.[198]

> **"** Segregation or exclusion is experienced as a stigmatising mark of being a 'lesser' or 'inferior' person.

Micro-exclusion forms one of the biggest barriers to inclusive education. As I have written elsewhere:

"Micro-exclusion is where, for example, a child is enrolled in a mainstream setting but is segregated into a separate area of the classroom or school for all or part of the day; or where a child is only permitted to attend for part of the day. Other examples of micro-exclusion are where a child is present but not given the opportunity to participate in the activities along with the other children in the setting or is present but viewed as a burden and an unequally valued member of the class or setting. This is not inclusion."[199]

Micro-exclusion is more insidious and much less often recognised than macro-exclusion, but it is critical to address. So, for example, a student might be attending a 'mainstream' education setting, but if the student is not fully valued and supported to participate within the experiences of the settings along with their peers, then the student is *not actually included*.

"Micro-exclusion occurs when children are placed into a mainstream education context, but are segregated or excluded within the classroom/school activities or community. For example, when children are given separate activities (often with different staff) that are not connected with what the rest of the group is doing, or when they are removed from the class for particular lessons. Micro-exclusion also occurs when someone is not fully included as a valued member of the classroom community (often as a consequence of other forms of micro-exclusion)… micro-exclusion commonly occurs when integration is misunderstood as inclusion."[200]

Misunderstanding integration as inclusion

Micro-exclusion can occur when people misunderstand inclusion as a continuation of 'special' education but in a 'mainstream' context. As discussed in chapter three, conflating integration and inclusion is a common misunderstanding of inclusion.[201] Integration involves a student attending a 'mainstream' education setting, some or all of the time, with some adaptations or accommodations intended to make this attendance possible, but without change to the setting.[202] However, inclusion goes "beyond access and support to incorporate curricular and pedagogic differentiation supporting children's sense of belonging and being valued".[203]

While the deficit focus of integration is unintentional, integration is constructed on the deficit-based assumption that there is a 'problem' within the student that is preventing inclusion and that it is ultimately the student who needs to change, rather than the environment or pedagogy. For integration, minor adjustments are made to enable a student who is perceived as 'close enough' to 'fit' within an existing mainstream setting. Consequently, integration remains conditional and does not involve or require critical reflection on beliefs and practices to bring about inclusive educational experiences for all students.

The assimilation muddle

The notions of assimilation inherent within concepts and approaches to integration are present more broadly within education and thus the misunderstanding of inclusion as being about assimilation is also very common. Assimilation is about making everyone 'the same'. In contrast, inclusion is about celebrating and embracing diversity and 'difference'. As noted in chapters one and three, when inclusion is mistakenly viewed as assimilation, it becomes about changing or 'fixing' students to 'fit' within existing structures, systems and practices.[204] This way of thinking leads to the problematic idea whereby inclusion is misunderstood as being conditional and dependent on students being 'the same enough' or 'close enough' to the mythical 'normal' to meet certain requirements to be included.[205]

> " Assimilation is about making everyone 'the same'. In contrast, inclusion is about celebrating and embracing diversity and 'difference'.

This confusion of inclusion as assimilation is a significant barrier to inclusion and stems from the myth of the 'normal' person.[206] This is the false idea that there is such a thing as a 'normal person' and that this is the ideal that all people need to aspire – or be moulded – to be. The very notion of assimilation is exclusionary and assumes that a student's inclusion, and the value of that student, is dependent on being 'normal' or 'normal enough'. In reality, inclusive education involves acknowledging that *all* students are unique individuals and that there is no such thing as 'normal'. "[I]t is through valuing and enjoying difference that inclusion can be achieved."[207]

Unpacking micro-exclusion highlights the fact that inclusion is not a product or a program or a type of setting – it is a process. Frequent claiming of micro (and even macro) exclusion as inclusion creates significant barriers to, and confusion about, inclusion. Lack of understanding of what inclusion is, and subsequent unwarranted fear of inclusion, are also significant barriers. At the core of this is the lingering idea – perpetuated by the continuing presence of segregated settings and the insidious creep of the neo-liberal agenda and illusions of 'choice'[208] – that inclusion is *optional*, rather than the right of every person.

Micro-exclusion through paraprofessional 'support' for inclusion

As noted above, micro-exclusion often occurs through well-intended but problematic use of 'support' for 'inclusion'. GC4 on the CRPD specifically outlines that:

"Any support measures provided must be compliant with the goal of inclusion. Accordingly, they must be designed to strengthen opportunities for students with disabilities to participate in the classroom and in out-of-school activities alongside their peers, rather than marginalize them."[209]

There are many different and important forms of support for inclusion that are currently implemented in education settings. One of the most common forms of inclusion support is the employment of a paraprofessional educator. Indeed, as Rutherford notes "aides are often regarded as the 'solution to inclusion', the resource upon which students' entry to the (compulsory) education system depends".[210]

While the employment of a paraprofessional educator is a common form of support for inclusion, there are many different terms used interchangeably in different locations and settings for this role. These include learning support assistant, additional educator, teaching assistant, teacher's aide, paraeducator, special teacher's assistant, instructional assistant, educational assistant and classroom assistant. A paraprofessional educator is an assistant and not a qualified teacher.

As explored further in chapter seven, in research involving parents, teachers, students and paraprofessional educators it is argued that, with careful planning, preparation and implementation, paraprofessional support may assist in facilitating inclusive education. In particular, it is contended that specific planning around the roles and responsibilities of paraprofessional educators and teachers can result in improved educational experiences and increased student involvement in the curriculum.[211] Paraprofessional educators report the belief that their support can be beneficial in providing teachers with another adult to discuss and reflect on ideas and problem-solving within the everyday.[212] Research provides evidence that, working in close partnership with the teacher, paraprofessional support may be implemented in such a way that it is beneficial for organising the learning

environment, preparing or adapting materials in ways that can benefit all students, and providing general assistance to support the teaching and learning that occurs in the classroom.[213] Unobtrusive, discreet support from a paraprofessional educator to further scaffold what is being taught by the teacher may allow for student autonomy and facilitate inclusion.[214]

However, in contrast, research provides substantial evidence that the current approaches to paraprofessional support can impede or even prevent, rather than facilitate, inclusion. Indeed, despite the frequent use of paraprofessional educators, serious concerns have been raised regarding whether this is actually beneficial for bringing about inclusive education. As Giangreco points out, there is insufficient data to support the employment of paraprofessional educators; they are often expected, but not qualified, to teach; there is a substantial amount of research showing the detrimental effects of the common practice of one-to-one paraprofessional support; current approaches to decision-making are inadequate and often place an undue burden on paraprofessional educators; and assigning a paraprofessional educator to a classroom or student does not address the substantial change required to actually bring about inclusion in practice.[215]

> " When inclusion is mistakenly viewed as assimilation, it becomes about changing or 'fixing' students to 'fit' within existing structures, systems and practices.

Over-reliance on paraprofessional educators, who often become a replacement for, rather than assistant to, the teacher, has been identified as a major issue with the use of paraprofessional support.[216] This prevents inclusion in grade-appropriate educational experiences with peers and results in education decisions being made by unqualified or underqualified personnel, rather than by the teacher.[217] Consequently, paraprofessional educators end up being required to provide academic support in subjects they are unskilled in and students receive most of their education from the paraprofessional educator rather than the classroom teacher.[218] This results in poor quality educational experiences, is an inappropriate and unfair expectation of paraprofessional educators, and leads to teachers and students becoming highly (and unnecessarily) dependent on paraprofessional educators, with negative outcomes for students and for peer relationships.[219]

Negative impact on quality of education

Current approaches to paraprofessional support have been repeatedly found to have detrimental outcomes on educational quality. Conroy argues that:

> "*By increasing the use of paraprofessionals in the classroom, administrators have shifted the responsibility for teaching the most unique and complex learners to the least trained and lowest paid workers rather than making fundamental changes in general and special education to meet the needs of all students.*"[220]

Teachers are reported to be less engaged with the student when there is a paraprofessional educator assigned to that student.[221] Consequently, students have limited access to quality, or even adequate and appropriate, teachers and learning opportunities.[222] Where some shared teaching occurs, students have reported a mismatch of information whereby the teacher and the paraprofessional educator would provide conflicting information.[223] Additionally, due to the common approaches to the ways in which paraprofessional educators are expected to work, students often develop 'learned helplessness'.[224]

Unsurprisingly then, in addition to the lack of positive outcomes and absence of empirical evidence to demonstrate that the use of paraprofessional

educators in the classroom is effective, research provides evidence that paraprofessional support can have a negative impact on student performance. For example, research in primary and secondary schools has found that students receiving paraprofessional support made less progress than students considered to have similar 'support needs' who were receiving little or no formal support at all.[225]

The impact of paraprofessional presence on peer relationships

It has long been recognised that the model of one-on-one paraprofessional educator support is detrimental to educational outcomes and social engagement. Additionally, research provides evidence that when paraprofessional support is in place, students with disability labels are often physically separated from the rest of the students in the classroom.[226] Unsurprisingly then, the presence of a paraprofessional educator has been found to reduce time with peers.[227] Additionally, having paraprofessional support can influence other students' perceptions of the capabilities of the student who experiences disability.[228]

Students who experience disability report feeling isolated, stigmatised and rejected by their peers when they have a paraprofessional educator working with them.[229] For example, in research with students' who have visual impairments who are attending Australian secondary schools, Whitburn found that students who received paraprofessional support compared themselves negatively with their peers.[230] Broer and colleagues argue that on account of the way that paraprofessional support is often implemented, "students are denied typical opportunities to develop peer relationships and a sense of self that is so important for social-emotional maturation".[231] It has been found that peers often address the paraprofessional educator rather than the student and students who work with paraprofessional educators are often actively teased or rejected by their peers.[232]

Student perspectives on paraprofessional support

Too much support from paraprofessional educators can lead to lack of autonomy for students.[233] Students report finding the presence of a paraprofessional educator invasive.[234] For example, some students likened paraprofessional support to having a mother around all the time and reported that it inhibited peer engagement

> "Underpinning micro and macro-exclusion is the idea that people who experience disability are in some sense 'lacking' or less human than those who are not labelled disabled.

and prevented romantic relationships.[235] Research exploring student perceptions on paraprofessional support finds that students who had paraprofessional educators working with them report beliefs that they are not 'worthy enough' to have the teacher's attention and help.[236] Additionally, students expressed a desire for more independence, finding it 'embarrassing' to have the constant presence of the paraprofessional educator.[237] At the same time, students express sympathy, concern and appreciation for the paraprofessionals involved in their lives.[238]

Transformation, not just trading places

It is clear that exclusion can occur in classrooms claiming to be inclusive.[239] Experiences of exclusion, whether micro or macro, have considerable negative impacts on peer interactions and understandings. In such situations, Rietveld notes that people who experience disability are "likely to internalise the messages that they are inferior, incompetent and undesirable peer group members, which in turn is likely to negatively impact on their motivation to seek inclusion, thus interfering with their learning of culturally-valued skills".[240]

The misappropriation of the term 'inclusion' or 'inclusive education' by those actually committed to perpetuating systems of 'special' education poses a serious barrier to the realisation of inclusive education.[241] The term 'special education' is inherently 'othering' and suggests exclusion rather than equal participation.[242] From this (mis)understanding of 'inclusion' situations of micro-exclusion occur and are justified. Consequently, "[t]he purpose of inclusion must not be simply to replicate special education services in the general education classroom".[243]

More blatant segregation occurs in macro-exclusion whereby students are educated in segregated 'special' schools or 'special' classes or units, rather than together with all peers who do and do not experience disability. If a setting is actually inclusive then "[c]hildren with disabilities are not segregated in the classroom, at lunchtime or on the playground".[244]

It has long been argued that:

> "*Inclusive education is part of a human rights approach to social relations and conditions. The intentions and values involved are an integral part of a vision of the whole society of which education is a part. Therefore the role education plays in the development of an inclusive society is a very serious issue. It is thus important to be clear in our understanding that inclusive education is not about 'special' teachers meeting the needs of 'special' children …it is not about 'dumping' pupils into an unchanged system of provision and practice. Rather, it is about how, where and why, and with what consequences, we educate all pupils.*"[245]

This means that bringing about inclusive education requires transformation.[246] It requires a deeply thoughtful, reflective and ongoing commitment to enacting change towards inclusion and thus towards a better education for all. One key element is moving beyond conceptualising needs as 'special' or 'additional'. As humans we all have needs. While the ways in which these needs can be or are met vary from one person to another, this does not make our needs 'special' or 'additional' – they are simply human needs. As I have written elsewhere, "terms like 'children with special rights' and 'children with additional needs' infer that some children want more than their basic needs and rights. Of course in reality, people who experience disability are fighting for … basic human rights and needs to be met – not for anything extra".[247]

The contributions and challenges of 'special' education

Segregated – or 'special' – education began approximately a century ago as a then-revolutionary idea that students who experienced disability could and should receive some form of formal education (prior to which most students who experienced disability were denied any formal education). In the decades that followed, gradually questions were raised about whether segregation was necessary and whether it provided the best educational

opportunities. Following the introduction of the *1992 Disability Discrimination Act*, it became unlawful across Australia for any setting to discriminate against a person on the basis of disability. However, unfortunately, discrimination continues despite national and international law.

As D'Alessio argues, inclusive education "requires the abandonment of special educational stances which focus on compensatory approaches to individual 'needs', to embrace a pedagogy of inclusion and a commitment to the rights of all to belong".[248] This involves abandoning the myth of 'normal' and the associated ableist idea of 'making normal' people who experience disability.[249] From this perspective, a contemporary understanding of inclusive education is possible. However, underpinning micro and macro-exclusion is the idea that people who experience disability are in some sense 'lacking' or less human than those who are not labelled disabled.[250] This fundamentally ableist view must be addressed in order to understand and bring about inclusive education.

Slee writes that:

> "… traditional special education sustains ableist assumptions about disability through longstanding practices of categorisation and separation of children according to deficits. Exclusion is attributed to individual student impairment rather than to the disabling cultures and practices of schooling"[251]

In the face of ongoing and increasing segregation in education,[252] the legal requirement to transition to a fully inclusive education system is challenging to implement, but absolutely necessary. While the option to exclude remains, both macro and micro-exclusion will flourish and continue to stymie the impetus for the transformation required to achieve genuine inclusive education. Australia needs to move away from parallel systems of 'special' and 'mainstream' education towards shared schools for *everyone*.

190 Slee, 2018a, p. 55

191 Biklen & Burke, 2006; Rietveld, 2010; Slee, 2004

192 Chowdhury, 2011; Jelas & Ali, 2014; Kalyanpur, 2011; Klibthong, 2013; Lilley, 2013; Lilley, 2015; Sharma & Ng, 2014; Sukbunpant, Arthur-Kelly, & Dempsey, 2013

193 Miles, Lene, & Merumeru, 2014

194 For example: Pirrie, Macleod, Cullen, & McCluskey, 2011

195 Sukbunpant, Arthur-Kelly, & Dempsey, 2013

196 Florian, 2010; Slee, 2018a; Slee, 2018b

197 D'Alessio, 2011

198 Cologon, 2014b

199 Cologon, 2016

200 Cologon & D'Alessio, 2015, p. 185

201 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011, p. 2123; Cologon, 2014b

202 Cologon, 2014b, p. 10

203 Petriwskyj, 2010, p. 346

204 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Colibaba, Gheorghiu, Colibaba, & Munteanu, 2013; Cologon, 2014b; Curcic, 2009; Lalvani, 2013; Rietveld, 2010

205 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013; Jelas & Ali, 2014

206 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011, p. 2123; Cologon, 2014d

207 Cologon, 2012, p. 1158

208 Armstrong, 2017; Best, Corcoran, & Slee, 2018; Slee, 2018a

209 UN General Assembly, 2016, para 34

210 Rutherford, 2012, p. 760

211 Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008

212 Patterson, 2006

213 Conroy, 2007; Hughes & Valle-Riestra, 2008; Rutherford, 2012; Stockall, 2014; Whitburn, 2013

214 Brock & Carter, 2015; Conroy, 2007; Lane, Carter, & Sisco, 2012; Whitburn, 2013

215 Giangreco, 2010

216 Burdick & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Devlin, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Patterson, 2006; Rutherford, 2012; Saddler, 2014; Webster & Blatchford, 2019

217 Breton, 2010; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Webster & Blatchford, 2019

218 Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Rutherford, 2012; Saddler, 2014; Webster & Blatchford, 2019

219 Burdick & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Rutherford, 2012; Suter & Giangreco, 2009; Whitburn, 2013

220 Conroy, 2007 p. 47

221 Conroy, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Rutherford, 2012; Webster & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2015; Webster & Blatchford, 2019

222 Brock & Carter, 2015; Conroy, 2007; Martin & Alborz, 2014; Rutherford, 2012; Saddler, 2014; Suter & Giangreco, 2009; Werts et al., 2004; Westover & Martin, 2014; Webster & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2015; Webster & Blatchford, 2019

223 Broer et al., 2005

224 Broer et al., 2005; Conroy, 2007; Saddler, 2014

225 Webster & Blatchford, 2019; Saddler, 2014

226 Broer, Doyle, & Giangreco, 2005; Burdick & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Rutherford, 2012; Webster & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2015

227 Brock & Carter, 2015; Broer et al., 2005; Burdick & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Suter & Giangreco, 2009; Webster & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2015; Whitburn, 2013

228 Broer et al., 2005

229 Broer et al., 2005; Rutherford, 2012; Stockall, 2014; Webster & Blatchford, 2019; Whitburn, 2013

230 Whitburn, 2013

231 Broer et al., 2005, p. 425

232 Broer et al., 2005; Conroy 2007; Westover & Martin, 2014

233 Suter & Giangreco, 2009; Webster & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2015; Webster & Blatchford, 2019; Whitburn, 2013

234 Rutherford, 2012; Whitburn, 2013

235 Broer et al., 2005

236 Broer et al., 2005; Rutherford, 2012

237 Broer et al., 2005

238 Rutherford, 2012

239 D'Alessio, 2011; Curcic, 2009; Purdue, Ballard, & MacArthur, 2001; Rietveld, 2010

240 Rietveld, 2010, p. 27

241 Allan, 2010; Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011; D'Alessio, 2011; Lalvani, 2013

242 Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011

243 McLeskey & Waldron, 2007, pp.162-163

244 United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 2013, p. 29

245 Barton, 1997, p.234

246 Giangreco & Suter, 2015; Slee, 2018a

247 Cologon, 2014d, p. 59

248 D'Alessio, 2011, p. 141

249 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011; Connor & Goldmansour, 2012; Goodley & Runswick-Cole, 2011

250 Ainscow, 2007; Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011; Biklen & Burke, 2006; Rietveld, 2010

251 Slee, 2018b, p. 14

252 Anderson & Boyle, 2015; Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), 2017; Graham, & Sweller, 2011; Guldberg, Parsons, MacLeod, Jones, Prunty, & Balfe, 2011; Shaw, 2017; Valle, Connor, Broderick, Bejoian, & Baglieri, 2011

●

Uncovering ableism in education

As outlined in the previous chapter, despite the research evidence and the considerable efforts of so many people, segregation and exclusion in education is flourishing.[253]

The guises and modes of justification for segregation continue to become simultaneously more insidious, more sophisticated and – perhaps ironically – more blatant. Weary and wearying phrases such as "inclusive education is a good idea, BUT…" or "I do believe in inclusion, BUT…" power on. So powerful are these ways of thinking and so insidious is the stigmatisation that leads to the perception of 'respectable' exclusion of so many children and young people, that somehow inclusive education becomes perceived as the territory of opinion and preference, rather than a universal and fundamental human right with the support of research evidence and ethical considerations. The question is, why? So many people for so many years have worked to bring inclusive education to a reality. Both 'mainstream' teachers and proponents of 'special' education alike are almost universally caring, well-meaning and hardworking people who are all seeking positive outcomes for students who experience disability. The failings of our education systems are not wished for or intentional. There is much good will. However, thriving in the underlife is rampant and unchecked ableism thwarting efforts towards inclusion at every turn.

The ableist perpetuation of exclusion and segregation is, at its core, based on the myth of the 'normal person'. This notion of a 'normal person' necessarily results in a division of people into 'normal' – which is then taken to be 'human' – and the inferred 'Other', which is constructed as 'abnormal'.[254] From an ableist viewpoint, therefore, a student who experiences disability is negatively constructed as 'abnormal' and the myth of the 'normal student' is an example of ableist thinking. This difficult to shake belief is so deeply entrenched at the basis of so many approaches to and beliefs about education. The resulting parallel myth is that of the pathologised 'special educational needs child'.[255] Our education systems are built around the notion of this mythical creature and success or failure in schooling depends in very large part on how close to or far from 'passing' for 'normal' a person can be. Echoing Foucault[256], the power of this myth is incessantly reproduced as we continue to seek to shape, tame and discipline ourselves and each other. This endeavour leads to misery not only for people constructed by ableist inference, as 'subnormal' or 'abnormal', but also for people constructed as 'normal' who must perpetually

seek to live up to this notion and who, as Goodley, Liddiard and Runswick-Cole argue, are inevitably plunged "into emotional turmoil".[257]

Extensive and elaborate processes of sorting, classifying, categorising and labelling create an illusion of legitimacy to the myth of the 'normal person'. For example, as Slee unpacks, the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, now in its fifth edition, "attempts to standardize *post hoc* – it forms a shaky science that becomes the basis for the classification and management of students who trouble, or are troubled by, the cultures, structures and operation of a school system".[258] Under globalised neoliberal reforms to education, these collective fictions are shrouded in the continuing spin-off of further myths characterised by a "punitive and paternalistic benevolence", from which some of us, who are cast as 'sub-normal', 'defective' or in some sense 'less than', are conditionally 'accepted' into the margins of society, thus commencing on a journey of a life apart.[259] These 'collective fictions' enable tolerance, acceptance, or even promotion of segregation and the continuation of exclusionary systems of schooling.[260]

Ableism: enculturated exclusion

Purdue and colleagues write that inclusive education involves "all children, families and adults' rights to participate in environments where diversity is assumed, welcomed and viewed as a rich resource rather than seen as a problem".[261] However, in a culture where disability is commonly viewed as a tragic within-person characteristic, this is challenging to achieve. As noted above, ableism is a dehumanising process in which we create a 'them' and 'us' whereby some people are constructed as an 'Inferior Other', as less, as 'different', as undesirable, as pitiable, as needing to be 'fixed' or changed, as sub-human.[262] Ableism plays out insidiously in everyday situations. The sense that an interaction or relationship between a person who does and a person who doesn't experience disability is somehow benevolent on the part of the non-disabled person; the frequently unquestioned inaccessibility of places, events and materials; patronising interactions such as the often cited congratulatory remarks that a person who experiences disability may receive from strangers for simply being out and about – these are all examples of ableism. So too is the internalised ableism where a person views themselves as inferior or lesser due to impairment. Like racism, sexism and homophobia, for example, ableism results in stigma, including discrimination. From an ableist perspective, disability is

cast as diminished state of being. However, ableism remains little recognised, so much so that Hodge and Runswick-Cole suggest that "[t]he practices of ableism are negotiated and agreed without ever being overtly recognised and acknowledged".[263] Ableism involves discrimination and exclusion based on legitimising the notion of the 'Inferior Other' and the idea that 'fixing' or changing a 'broken person' is a benevolent and necessary act as a response to the 'tragedy' and 'deficit' of disability. "Like racism, ableism directs structural power relations in society, generating inequalities located in institutional relations and social processes."[264] These discriminatory inequalities have powerful implications in terms of barriers to genuine inclusion in education.[265]

The myth of 'normal' – and therefore the myth that there is a 'perfect' way to be – paves the way for ableism. At the core of ableist thinking is the belief "that impairment (irrespective of 'type') is inherently negative which should, if the opportunity presents itself, be ameliorated, cured or indeed eliminated".[266] Ableist thinking results in a view of disability as a tragic within-person difference and creates an understanding of some people as 'normal' compared to a less ideal 'Other'.[267] This myth of a 'normal' student is central to exclusionary approaches to education, in which all children and young people are compared to a mythical 'normal' student and frequently found (or pathologised as) 'lacking'.[268] Therefore, the focus becomes about 'fixing' or 'curing' a person (or preventing or eliminating existence), rather than recognising that as humans we are all unique and impairment is simply one aspect of human diversity.[269] In contrast, a social model understanding of disability, as promoted within the disabled persons' movement, recognises that a person who experiences disability is whole and unbroken, but is disabled by the unaccommodating and ableist views, practices, systems and structures of society.[270]

Ableism is easily absorbed uncritically, as we demonstrate to children and young people – through micro and macro-exclusion in education and more broadly through commonly-accepted beliefs and practices, all forms of media and resources, and the design and creation of places and spaces – that some people are 'Inferior Others' and thus create a sub-class of 'disabled'.[271] Acceptance of the myth of 'normal' is so powerful and widespread that the idea that children and young people who experience disability should be permanently engaged in the pursuit of 'becoming normal' is seldom even challenged.[272] This social oppression impacts negatively on the "psycho-emotional well-being of people categorised as 'impaired' by those deemed 'normal'".[273] The depth of enculturation of ableism is such that those of us who experience disability can blame ourselves, rather than oppressive systems and structures, for ableist oppression and develop self-loathing and dislike of other people who experience disability and consequently accept or even promote segregation.[274] Hodge and Runswick-Cole argue: "Disabled children will not always be able to articulate their experience of ableism. They may assume that the fault lies in them because of their impairment rather than in disabling environments".[275] Additionally, research involving students who do not experience disability demonstrates strong deficit-based perceptions of disability *as* impairment.[276]

"Ableism is deeply and subliminally embedded within the culture"[277] and rapidly internalised by people who do and do not experience disability.[278] Children are particularly at risk of this internalisation.[279] While the research about inclusive education with students who experience disability is still limited, extant research is reflective of the effects of internalised ableism as students resign themselves, accept or even perceive as benevolent, their own segregation.[280] Additionally, segregation creates a situation where many students grow up without peers who they are aware experience disability, thus creating an unspoken 'othering'. By contrast, research provides evidence of positive attitude development between peers when students are educated together.[281]

It is not possible to bring about inclusive education in reality whilst engaging in ableist, and therefore deficit-based, views and practices.[282] However, due to the lack of awareness of ableism and its impacts, for most people ableist beliefs operate at a subconscious level. From a more hopeful perspective, Bacon and Causton-Theoharis observe that "if all parties learn to view disability as a positive identity category, medicalising, dehumanising, and deficit-oriented discourse and practices are unlikely to prevail".[283] Recognising ableism, and identifying ableist views and practices, is a critical first step in a process that has been paralleled to emerging from racist to anti-racist views.[284]

Acceptance of the notion that children and young people can be excluded from 'mainstream' education because they are labelled 'disabled' "amounts to institutional discrimination"[285] and is an example of ableist views playing out in practice. Research provides evidence that, even for those who view inclusive education as optimal for all students, "interpretations of 'all' rendered certain students inappropriate candidates".[286] This preparedness to exclude children and young people based on categories or labels of disability demonstrates ableist discrimination at the individual level. This, along with the examples of micro-exclusion explored in chapter four, would not be acceptable from a non-ableist viewpoint. Lack of awareness of ableism, and of the role people and institutions play in constructing disability, creates the conditions to perpetuate discrimination[287] and therefore ableism.[288]

Inclusive education is only possible when ableist views and practices are critically examined. As Connor and Goldmansour write:

"…students should learn with, and from, each other – coming to know true diversity in terms of physical, cognitive, sensory, and emotional differences. In this way, artificial notions of 'normalcy' that have served to diminish and devalue 'disabled' children for so long can begin to change. As microcosms of society, classrooms must come to reflect, exemplify, and engage with actual diversity."[289]

Thus, inclusive practice within classrooms not only *requires* the disestablishment of ableism, but inclusive education also *provides* the ideal conditions from which to address the disestablishment of ableism in society as a whole. This process holds the potential for the realisation of inclusive education and the creation of the conditions in which all children and young people can flourish.

---

253 Tomlinson, 2017; Slee, 2018a

254 Campbell, 2012

255 Rutherford, 2016; Slee, 2018a; Slee, 2018b

256 In his 1979 work Discipline and Punish Michel Foucault discusses the 19th century culture of 'policing' 'normal' and 'abnormal', resulting in an internalised 'disciplinary gaze' from which we monitor our own bodies to reflect a particular way of being that we have been enculturated to believe is 'normal' and 'acceptable' or 'desirable'. This lens is strongly reflected in the identification and framing of ableism.

257 Goodley, Liddiard, & Runswick-Cole, 2018, p. 209

258 Slee, 2018a, p. 54

259 Tomlinson, 2017, p. 4

260 Slee, 2018a

261 Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009, p. 807

262 Campbell, 2009; Cologon & Thomas, 2014; Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013

263 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013, p. 322

264 McLean, 2008, p. 607

265 Carrington, Mercer, Iyer, & Selva, 2015; Lalvani, 2013; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Wright, 2017

266 Campbell, 2009, p. 154

267 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013; Leiter, 2007; Loja, Costa, Hughes & Menezes, 2013; McLean, 2008

268 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011; Rutherford, 2016

269 Cologon, 2013b; Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013

270 Oliver & Barnes, 2010; Tregaskis, 2002

271 Beckett, 2014; Slee, 2004

272 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Rutherford, 2016

273 Thomas, 2012, p. 211

274 Campbell, 2009; Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013

275 Hodge & Runswick-Cole, 2013

276 Beckett, 2014

277 Campbell, 2009, p. 153

278 *Ibid*

279 Reeve, 2004

280 Hodge & Runswick-Cole 2013

281 Consiglio, Guarnera, & Magnano, 2015

282 Cologon & Thomas, 2014; Macartney, 2012; Sharma, Moore, & Sonawane, 2009; Rietveld, 2014

283 Bacon & Causton-Theoharis, 2012, p. 696

284 McLean, 2008

285 Booth & Ainscow, 2011, p. 43

286 Lalvani, 2013, p. 24

287 Booth & Ainscow, 2011

288 Broderick, Hawkins, Henze, Mirasol-Spath, Pollack-Berkovits, Clune, Skovera, & Steel, 2012; Harpur, 2012

289 Connor & Goldmansour, 2012, p. 31

●

Broken promises and further barriers to inclusion

"Rights promise much but often give very little in reality"[290]

The tragic reality of the current failure to uphold the right to inclusive education for every student is the personal toll for students and families when inclusion is promised but not delivered.[291] Indeed, false promises of inclusive education, where none is actually offered and instead micro – and even macro – exclusion is dressed up as 'inclusion', pose a serious threat to inclusive education and come at a high individual cost. Additionally, the perpetuation of misunderstandings of inclusion create situations where students are devalued and receive totally unacceptable educational experiences.

On the basis of student and family perspectives, Margrain and Farrugia argue that "policy and discourse are not enough to ensure inclusion. Professionals, including teachers, school leaders and wider community advocates, need to take stronger action to support inclusion, to minimise exclusion, and to foster partnership with families".[292] Student and family experiences of inclusive education are diverse. However, research provides evidence that many families frequently encounter considerable resistance and extensive gatekeeping practices when they seek an inclusive education for a student who experiences disability.[293] Additionally, even when students 'make it through the school gate', often the student is not included in reality and therefore is not welcome and does not experience belonging, genuine participation and opportunities, and having their contribution recognised and valued.[294] Students and families express considerable distress and negative psychosocial impacts as a consequence of these exclusionary experiences and, despite the ongoing mantra of 'parent choice', can be left feeling that they have no option other than segregated education.[295] Students and families may be left feeling that inclusive education has failed them, or is a failure. In fact, what they have experienced is *not* inclusive education. These instead are tragic examples of *exclusion* that are misrepresented to students and families as inclusion not working.

As detailed in chapters three and four, misunderstandings of inclusion form a major barrier to the realisation of the right to an inclusive education. Underpinning (as well as reaching far beyond) these misunderstandings, as outlined in chapter five, is ableism. Because ableism is rife and rarely recognised, common ableist views –

> " The perpetuation of misunderstandings of inclusion create situations where students are devalued and receive totally unacceptable educational experiences.

including tragedy and deficit-based perspectives on disability – frequently lead to ableist actions, including within education.[296] Consequently, alongside other anti-bias approaches such as those directed at addressing racism, sexism and homophobia, efforts towards inclusive education need to be intentionally anti-ableist, and founded upon non-ableist understandings of inclusive education. Addressing attitudinal and structural barriers is therefore essential.

Booth and Ainscow argue that:

> "*Learning and participation are impeded when children encounter 'barriers'. These can occur in an interaction with any aspect of a school: its buildings and physical arrangement; school organisation, cultures and policies; the relationship between and amongst children and adults; and approaches to teaching and learning. Barriers may be found, too, outside the boundaries of the school within families and communities, and within national and international events and policies.*"[297]

Exploring further the barriers to inclusive education, in this chapter I will address additional research regarding the impact of beliefs and attitudes.

Ableist cultures

Students' attitudes and choices are significantly shaped by the attitudes of their family and communities.[298] Research provides evidence to suggest the presence of negative community views about inclusion and a lack of awareness of disabling processes.[299] Ableist attitudes are frequently uncritically presented in books, toys, television, movies, social and other media.[300] A lack of support for students who are learning about inclusion has also been identified.[301]

Stemming from consciously or subconsciously ableist beliefs and practices, negative attitudes towards, and fears about, inclusion have been found to be major barriers to inclusive education. In a considerable body of research from across the world, the beliefs and attitudes of teachers, and others, have been found to be critical to preventing or facilitating inclusive education.[302] As previously noted, research finds that teachers hold a number of concerns about inclusive education, particularly in relation to inadequate support and resources, fear or lack of confidence in teacher knowledge and competency, and concerns about positively supporting the behaviour of diverse groups of students.[303]

The environment and culture of an education setting influences the ways in which teachers interact with students who experience disability, as well as teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education.[304] While much of the research focuses on the attitudes of classroom teachers, school, preschool, and centre leaders play a key role in creating the culture of a setting. Graham and Spandagou[305] found that principals' perceptions of inclusion are formed by their own understandings of inclusion, as well as the context of the school they are in. "The process is reciprocal: context influences perceptions, perceptions influence attitudes and, in return, attitudes influence the context."[306] In Graham and Spandagou's research, principals expressed clearly ableist views, making a strong distinction between students who were viewed

as 'normal' and those who, by inference, were viewed as 'sub-normal'. Unsurprisingly, this impacted negatively on attitudes towards inclusive education.[307] These findings are consistent with evidence of negative attitudes of staff in administrative positions within every level of the education system.[308]

Support and resourcing for inclusive education

Concerns regarding inadequate resources and limited support for inclusive education have been widely reported.[309] Issues of inadequate teacher education for inclusion, a subsequent lack of confidence, skills and knowledge, and issues regarding misunderstandings of and misuse of paraprofessional support sit alongside concerns about inadequate teacher-student ratios and insufficient support staff. These concerns are intensified when difficulties are encountered with collaboration or due to limited leadership for inclusion. Insufficient time for teachers to prepare educational experiences, rigid curricula, one-size-fits-all approaches and the negative impacts of the neo-liberal agenda in education are also key issues. Additionally, limited access to materials and learning resources are identified. Concerns are also raised regarding limited information available to support teachers and families in working together towards inclusive education. In addressing these concerns, a key issue is the need for careful redistribution of the existing resources. The current inequitable distribution of resources within the Australian education system is a barrier to inclusive education.[310] While increased resourcing for inclusive education is clearly needed, this does not necessarily require additional resourcing overall, in that the extensive resources that are currently directed towards segregated education settings can be redirected to support transformation to genuine inclusive education for all. This is an important part of the process of transitioning from the current parallel systems of education to an inclusive system, as required under international law (see chapter three for further discussion).

The representation of students who experience disability in education materials is also an area of concern. The deficit-based and stereotypical representation or absence of representation in materials including books, posters, toys, television, movies, social and other media, as noted above, perpetuates ableism and forms a barrier to inclusive education.[311]

> "
> Negative attitudes towards, and fears about, inclusion have been found to be major barriers to inclusive education.

In addressing these barriers, care needs to be taken not to (re)produce ableist approaches. An emphasis on resources without consideration of the structure and culture within a setting may result in deficit-based thinking that undermines the very meaning of inclusive education.[312] Additionally, lack of resources is often used as an excuse for not allowing students who experience disability to participate or enrol in an education setting.[313] Providing support for teachers is essential to facilitating inclusion. However, the provision of support needs to be approached from an understanding of inclusive education and an active desire to resist ableism.

290 Runswick-Cole & Goodley 2015, p. 173

291 Brede, Remington, Kenny, Warren, K., & Pellicano, 2017; Margrain & Farruga, 2018

292 Margrain & Farruga, 2018, p. 107

293 Children and Young People with Disability Australia (CYDA), (2017); Lilley, 2013; Poed, Cologon, & Jackson, 2017; Wills, Morton, McLean, Stephenson, & Slee, 2014

294 Brede, Remington, Kenny, Warren, & Pellicano, 2017; Cologon, 2014a; Runswick-Cole, 2008

295 Brede, Remington, Kenny, Warren, & Pellicano, 2017; Cologon, 2014a; Lilley, 2013; Runswick-Cole, 2008

296 Cologon & Thomas, 2014

297 Booth & Ainscow, 2011, p. 40

298 Diamond & Huang, 2005; Hollingsworth & Buysse, 2009

299 Beckett, 2009; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Fox, Farrell, & Davis, 2004; Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Mayer, 2009

300 Beckett, 2009; Bond, 2013; Cologon, 2013c; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Ellis, 2015; Hodkinson, 2012; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Martinez-Bello & Martinez-Bello, 2016; Salvador, 2017

301 Rietveld, 2010

302 Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Berlach & Chambers, 2011; Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Carrington, Mercer, Iyer, & Selva, 2015; Cologon, 2012; Curcic, 2009; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Graham & Spandagou, 2011; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Hsieh, Hsieh, Ostrosky, & McCollum, 2012; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Kalyanpur, 2011; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; Lalvani, 2013; Price, 2009; Sharma, Moore, & Sonawane, 2009; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012; Thaver & Lim, 2014; Varcoe & Boyle, 2014; Villa, Van Tac, Muc, Ryan, Thuy, Weill, et al., 2003

303 Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Carrington, Mercer, Iyer, & Selva, 2015; Cologon, 2012; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008; Hemmings, & Woodcock, 2011; Hsieh, Hsieh, Ostrosky, & McCollum, 2012; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Kim, 2013; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Suculoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, & Akalın, 2013; Thaver & Lim, 2014; Varcoe & Boyle, 2014

304 Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005

305 Graham & Spandagou, 2011

306 *Ibid*, p. 226

307 *Ibid*

308 Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Hurley & Horn, 2010; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009

309 Beckett, 2009; Biklen & Burke, 2006; Brown, Packer, & Passmore, 2013; Cologon, 2012; Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Hemmings, & Woodcock, 2011; Horrocks, White, & Roberts, 2008; Huang, & Diamond, 2009; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010; Kalyanpur, 2011; Kim, 2013; Klibthong, 2013; McDonald & Tufue-Dolgoy, 2013; Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009; Morris & Sharma, 2011; Petriwskyj, 2010; Petriwskyj, 2010; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009; Selvaraj, 2015; Strogilos, 2012; Suculoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, & Akalın, 2013; Sukbunpant, Arthur-Kelly, & Dempsey, 2013; Theodorou & Nind, 2010; Zhang, 2011

310 Granite & Graham, 2012

311 Beckett, 2009; Bond, 2013; Cologon, 2013c; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Ellis, 2015; Hodkinson, 2012; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Martinez-Bello & Martinez-Bello, 2016; Salvador, 2017

312 Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009

313 *Ibid*

●

'Un-othering': transformation towards inclusion

In sum, it is clear that the extant research provides strong support for inclusive education. At the same time, it is equally clear that there are currently significant barriers that need to be addressed in order to make inclusive education a reality for all.

In this final chapter I will draw together research to consider some of the key issues that need to be addressed in working towards inclusive education, concluding with policy recommendations.

As noted at the start of this report, it is important to recognise the many students, families, teachers, paraprofessional educators, principals, education department staff and others who work tirelessly every day to support inclusive education. There are many challenges and raising the issues identified within the research literature should not be read as a criticism of individuals, but rather as an attempt to draw to light important issues that require careful consideration if inclusive education is to become a reality in Australia – and as a support to all efforts towards genuine inclusion.

Ending the option to exclude by transitioning from parallel systems of 'special' and 'mainstream' education to an inclusive education system for all is a necessary, long overdue and fundamental step. In Australia, this requires serious state and federal government commitments to inclusive education, and associated legislation, policy, and appropriate provision and distribution of funding. A key and straightforward starting point is to ensure no further segregated settings (schools, preschools, classes, centres, or 'units') are created. Transitioning from the current segregated parallel 'special' and 'mainstream' settings to inclusive settings is essential but is also more complex and needs to be done with considerable care.

To avoid simply relocating students whilst maintaining ableist micro-exclusion, more than co-location is required. Without a paradigm shift away from ableist understandings of human diversity, misunderstandings of inclusive education as deficit-based 'special' education will persist.[314] This means that any genuine efforts towards transformation for inclusion necessarily require actively working towards a culture of inclusion within and beyond education settings and systems, including directly working to identify and disestablish ableism in all forms and at all levels.

Within this transition, it is important to ensure that the highest possible quality of education is provided to every student at all times. Inclusive education *is* quality education and is a necessary precursor to this goal.

As explored in the next section of this chapter, there are considerable attitudinal barriers to the culture shift required. From within 'special' education, despite the lack of research evidence to support the notion (see chapter two), barriers include the contradictory concern that ending segregated education will reduce the opportunity for quality education and a fear that it will render those who have dedicated their lives to 'special' education redundant. Within 'mainstream' settings these barriers include fear of not being able to provide quality education for all children, alongside an ableist misunderstanding, perpetuated by the current option to exclude, that children who have been ascribed disability labels are 'intruders' in 'mainstream' settings and might 'better belong elsewhere'. Reflecting on these issues not only raises the matter of the culture shift required, but also the practical considerations needed for transformation towards inclusive education.

In the remainder of the chapter, a range of aspects of the research are explored with the intention of supporting these processes of change. Before engaging with these, though, it is important to acknowledge both the magnitude of this change and the fact that it happens little by little in everyday exchanges. A necessary starting point is always to consider the existing strengths within any given system or setting. It is from what we already know we can do well that we can move forward to address what it is we need

> " A key and straightforward starting point is to ensure no further segregated settings (schools, preschools, classes, centres, or 'units') are created.

to do better. Additionally, it is important to start with a clear vision of where we are heading, why, and what steps are needed to get there. From here, we can engage in an ongoing iterative cycle of planning and review – implementing, observing, reflecting, and then planning again. Examples from research and practice can assist in getting a clearer picture of this process in action.[315] In getting started, it may be helpful to:

- document a clear vision and shared set of values for working towards inclusion
- create a 'space' to work together to build a shared understanding and collaborative starting point, and provide resources and support to enable this
- identify current strengths and enablers (practical and attitudinal)
- identify current barriers (practical and attitudinal)
- document what change is needed:
  – what will this change 'look like' when it has happened?
  – will this change be consistent with inclusive values?
- build on current strengths and acknowledge current barriers, identify the steps that might enable the process of transformation from 'where we are' to 'where we are going'
- determine what support, knowledge and skills are needed to enable these steps
- identify where this support and learning can come from

> " If the adults seeking to foster a culture of inclusion have not examined their own attitudes and practices, they are likely to perpetuate the cycle of ableism, ultimately preventing the realisation of inclusive education.

- choose a starting point (small and bigger) and begin
- take action, document, observe, reflect, review and continue this cycle.

In the remainder of this chapter the research evidence is examined to identify some key factors that may facilitate this transformation towards inclusive education. While ongoing research is required, there are a number of areas for which the research provides a strong basis to progress this transformation.

Attitudes and beliefs about inclusive education

Discussion has long been held about the *potential* of education to bring about social change.[316] As explored in chapter two, research provides evidence to demonstrate that as people we are not born prejudiced, however, we develop and demonstrate prejudice early in childhood as we are enculturated into the dominant ways of thinking and being.[317] In fact, research provides evidence that as early as two years of age, children's conversations and behaviours demonstrate ableist enculturation[318], and by the age of three, children will identify people or groups of people they 'like' or 'dislike' on the basis of symbols of conflict or stigma.[319] By age six, children will make unsolicited prejudiced statements consistent with internalised cultural preferences.[320] Awareness of the processes of enculturation emphasises the importance of working with children from young ages to foster a culture of inclusion and actively seeking to break the cycle of entrenched ableism. However, these childhood processes of enculturation are unlikely to change until attitudes begin to change amongst adults within and beyond education systems, including across the community and within media and government.[321]

If the adults seeking to foster a culture of inclusion have not examined their own attitudes and practices, they are likely to perpetuate the cycle of ableism, ultimately preventing the realisation of inclusive education. The importance of listening and learning together with children and young people is therefore particularly pertinent.[322]

While it is common to advocate for 'disability awareness' as part of the efforts towards a culture of inclusion, this tends to be interpreted to mean awareness of characteristics associated with disability labels. A critical aspect of working towards inclusion does in fact involve a form of 'disability awareness' – that is, disability equity education. This involves developing awareness of ableism and working to resist dominant negative and normative

narratives or understandings of impairment or 'disability'.[323] It entails processes of engaging in developing critical understandings of disability and our shared humanity. Disability equity education involves using or developing resources or pedagogies that represent impairment as a valued form of human diversity. This process of learning therefore involves developing understandings to recognise all people who experience disability as full, whole, capable, valued, contributing, diverse and active beings. It challenges the 'othering' of people with disability and the notion of an 'us versus them' by recognising that there is no 'them' – we are all 'us'. Supporting students and teachers to engage in disability equity education opens possibilities for actively reducing the barriers that result in the experience of disability for many people.[324]

Openness to learning through mistakes and ongoing development as a teacher has also been found to be critical, along with working collaboratively with parents and other teachers.[325] Level of parental education has been found to influence attitudes towards inclusion.[326] These findings are consistent with a growing body of research demonstrating the importance of teacher attitudes for bringing about inclusive education.[327] It is important to note that research provides evidence to suggest that differences in teachers' attitudes result in differences in teaching practices overall, not just related to students who experience disability.[328]

In longitudinal research, Jordan and colleagues provide evidence to demonstrate that when teachers take on the attitude and belief that they are responsible for and have a valuable role to play in the education of *all* students (specifically including students who experience disability), these teachers engage with *all* students more often and at higher cognitive levels.[329] Consequently, "inclusive teachers are more engaged and proactive educators".[330] This means that teachers need to be committed to the education of all students in their groups or classes.[331] Differences in teachers' beliefs result in differences in teaching practices overall, not just related to students who experience disability.[332] These findings contribute to the recognition of the importance of teacher attitudes towards inclusive education, in order to bring about the best possible education for all students – whether or not students experience disability. Indeed, a reciprocal relationship forms between attitudes and practice, in which inclusive attitudes create the conditions for engaging in inclusive practice, in turn resulting in more inclusive attitudes.

The attitudinal transformation required for inclusive education is premised on the disestablishment of ableism. To disestablish ableism in education, Hehir[333] argues that it is necessary to:

- acknowledge that ableism exists within our systems of education
- actively seek to unravel the effects ableism is having (deconstructing dominant ableist practices)
- welcome and embrace impairment as one of the many and valuable aspects of human diversity (along with diverse cultural backgrounds and genders, for example)
- avoid negative stereotyping and eliminate patronising approaches and representations
- actively seek to incorporate and celebrate multiple modes of participation
- debunk the myth that 'special' education (segregated education) is superior to education of all students together
- develop an understanding of and willingness to engage with principles of universal design for learning
- provide appropriate support within 'mainstream' settings when needed to ensure equitable access to education (e.g. providing and/or teaching braille, assistance with setting up AAC systems)
- ensure that the education of allied support providers (e.g. teachers of the D/deaf, braille teachers and allied health therapists) enables the provision of adequate support to teachers in developing key skills (fluent signing, knowledge of how to teach braille, etc), as well as supporting recognition of and resistance to ableism, and includes the ability to collaborate with teachers to support inclusive education
- apply principles of universal design for learning.

As explored throughout, perpetuation of the 'special' education paradigm, rather than resulting in inclusive education, further entrenches ableist thinking and practices. Transformation of education systems, policies and practices is required. This involves critical engagement with all aspects of education settings and systems, including examining the environment and addressing the physical arrangement of rooms, and ensuring that when students are arranged into groups that these do not create micro-exclusion (e.g. ability grouping or streaming) and instead are flexible and heterogeneous groups.[334] Additionally, it is essential

> " Teachers who receive education about inclusive education have been found to be more likely to have positive attitudes towards students who experience disability.

to ensure that the classroom teacher remains responsible to and for all students and that teachers, educational leaders and allied professionals work effectively and collaboratively to support inclusive education.[335] Consideration of inclusive approaches to assessment are essential to reveal student capabilities (rather than using inadequate or inappropriate methods of testing), as well as careful consideration of the approaches to communicating assessment processes and outcomes.[336] A strong emphasis on developing positive relationships, culture and climate within the classroom is also fundamental.[337]

Fostering positive attitudes at all levels and within all processes is a major component of inclusive education. In addition to openness and willingness to bring about inclusive education and active resistance to ableist practices (and alongside concerted efforts towards universal approaches to learning and teaching), teachers and school leaders require support to adapt the environment and materials as required for the participation of individual students.[338] This requires a combination of resources and the support of allied professionals. While all support needs to be implemented carefully to avoid creating micro-exclusion, as discussed earlier, this support is at least as important in inclusive as in segregated education. Teachers need to be supported to develop strategies for communication and participation as required, thus teachers of the Deaf and braille teachers, as well as allied health professionals, for example, play an important role in working together with students, teachers and families to support inclusive education.[339]

Teachers and other professionals often benefit from support to develop understanding about roles and responsibilities in the education of students who experience disability.[340] As illustrated through the examination of the research evidence regarding the role of paraprofessional educators, careful consideration of and communication about the roles of all professionals is essential to avoid creating situations of micro-exclusion.[341]

Regular collaboration with all members of the education team, including parents, and allied support professionals is required.[342] This involves allied professionals working with teachers and families, rather than with students directly. At times it may be appropriate for support to be provided in a 'push-in' model of learning, where a support staff member is directly involved within classroom practice, rather than a traditional (and always exclusionary) 'pull-out' model.[343] However, any such 'push-in' support needs to be implemented in a genuinely inclusive manner and as part of a universal approach to education for all. This means ensuring that intended support does not end up constituting micro-exclusion. Consulting students regarding the support they need and how they believe this is best implemented is essential within this process.[344]

Addressing the changes required to meet these recommendations requires action at many levels – one key aspect is teacher education.

Teacher education for inclusive education

Teacher attitudes influence the implementation of inclusive practices in the classroom.[345] Teacher education is directly related to teacher attitudes.[346] Given the importance and implications of teacher attitudes[347], and the relationships between ableism and negative views towards inclusive education, McLean argues that engaging professionals in processes of examining their beliefs and attitudes, and disestablishing ableist views, is an ethical obligation for teacher education.[348] Additionally, what teachers do in the present can create change 'for the better'.[349]

Inadequate, or severely inadequate, teacher education for inclusion is a major barrier to inclusive education.[350] Forlin finds that teacher education for inclusion "in most regions has been tokenistic at best and non-existent at worst".[351] Furthermore, it is not only the pre-service education that teachers receive, but also ongoing professional development that needs to focus on inclusive education.[352] This is essential because education contexts (and broader contexts) change frequently, because inclusive education

is an ongoing process, and because there are many teachers currently in service who have had limited education in terms of inclusive education and require professional development to further develop their skills and understandings.[353] For this reason, research finds that less experienced teachers (who have been more recently educated) are more likely to hold positive attitudes towards inclusive education.[354] Recognising that teachers' understanding of education grows as they gain experience is also relevant in terms of acknowledging the need for pre-service as well as ongoing teacher education for inclusion.

Despite the current and serious issues in teacher education for inclusion, nationally and internationally, it has been found to have positive impacts on teacher attitudes.[355] Teachers who receive education about inclusive education have been found to be more likely to have positive attitudes towards students who experience disability.[356] However, as outlined in chapter six, research provides evidence of widespread concerns about inclusive education on the part of teachers. Lack of teacher education and support has been identified as a barrier to inclusive education.[357] Despite the positive attitudes of more recently graduated teachers, research also provides evidence to suggest that many new teachers consider their teaching education to have been inadequate to prepare them to teach inclusively, with more sustained and intensive education for inclusion required.[358] Positively though, research also finds that pre-service and in-service teacher education for inclusion can alleviate these concerns and facilitate positive attitudes towards inclusive education, as well as supporting the development of teacher skills and confidence in bringing about inclusion in practice.

> " This unexamined perpetuation of the myth of 'normal' reduces the quality of education for all students since it does not take into account any aspects of human diversity.

As noted earlier, the notion that there is a 'special' way to teach 'special' students is in itself an ableist view.[359] This ableist thinking results in categorising some students as unacceptable for inclusion.[360] By inference, this view suggests – incorrectly – that there is *one way* to teach all students *except* students who experience disability. The uncritical absorption of the myth of 'normal' creates the conditions where teachers are able to view students who experience disability as 'Other' and this process results in a lack of confidence (and sometimes unwillingness) to teach all students.[361] Additionally, this unexamined perpetuation of the myth of 'normal' reduces the quality of education for *all* students since it does not take into account *any* aspects of human diversity and thus teaching is not optimal for any student. The notion that there is one way to teach any group of students is both problematic and untrue, as it denies the individuality of all students and the diversity within any group, thus inclusive teachers are flexible and responsive and better teachers of any student.[362]

Moving beyond the myth of the 'normal' student creates the conditions to improve the education of all students. While many teachers express considerable anxiety about inclusive education[363], confidence grows with experience of inclusion.[364] However, teachers require support to prepare them for this experience.

As noted above, teacher education has been found to lead to more inclusive attitudes.[365] However, some studies show only minimal change[366] and the majority of pre-service teachers feel unprepared for inclusive education[367]. The traditional approach to teacher education in which teachers are taught about disability categories, often in a week-by-week fashion, serves to reinforce the myth of the 'normal' and 'sub-normal' student[368], thus perpetuating ableism and impeding the opportunity to develop inclusive attitudes. Instead, anti-ableist teacher education is required.

It is necessary for teacher education to equip teachers with both the awareness and the skills and knowledge to implement strengths-based approaches to inclusive education and to develop flexibility and creativity in providing multiple ways to learn and engage.[369] This strengths-based approach is important not only in relation to students, but also in collaborating with other adults. Learning processes for successful and positive collaboration with families, and other important people involved in the lives of students, is an important aspect of teacher education for inclusion.[370] Furthermore,

collaborative learning between professionals has been found to be an effective approach to increasing and improving inclusive practices.[371]

While there are a range of misunderstandings and confusions about the meaning and processes of differentiation and universal approaches to curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, and the provisioning of the environment, there is a growing body of research investigating the use and outcomes of such approaches.[372] This research is of direct relevance to recent policy development in Australia. The Nationally Consistent Collection of Data on Students with Disability (NCCD), which came into effect in 2018, now forms the basis for funding support across education settings in Australia.[373] Under the NCCD, all teachers are required to engage in Quality Differentiated Teaching Practice (QDTP) in order to facilitate the inclusion of all students, and to meet the requirements of the *Disability Standards for Education*.[374] QDTP is understood as an approach to teaching that is responsive to all students and that can be "reasonably expected as part of quality teaching or school practice".[375] Under the NCCD, additional funding is provided to support teachers in undertaking further levels of adjustments, which are categorised as: Supplementary Adjustments, Substantial Adjustments and Extensive Adjustments. However, additional funding is not provided for engaging in QDTP and instead it is expected as a foundation of teaching for all.[376] This means that to meet current Australian Government teacher requirements, all teachers need to be equipped to take a universal approach to accessibility and participation in curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, and the provisioning of the environment in order to facilitate QDTP.

Teacher education for inclusion needs to be based on understanding the importance of relationships, particularly in regards to positive approaches to supporting behaviour development.[377] Additionally, teachers need support to understand that inclusion is an ongoing process.[378] The idea of inclusion as a 'work in progress' can facilitate teachers' willingness to adapt strategies and ideas as they build relationships with students and families and learn more about the processes of teaching and about each individual student with whom they work.[379]

From the research it is clear that key elements of teacher education that result in more positive attitudes towards, and understanding of, inclusive education include:

- teacher education based on an anti-bias, rights-based approach to inclusive education for all students[380]
- education for critical reflection and critical consciousness to facilitate inclusive attitudes[381]
- support for teachers to develop skills in identifying, challenging and addressing barriers to inclusion[382]
- teacher education that enables teachers to develop an understanding of ableism, recognise ableist values and practices, and seek to disestablish ableist attitudes, including consideration of representation of people who experience disability[383]
- support to move beyond deficit thinking entrenched within the 'special' education paradigm towards a strengths-based approach to education that welcomes and celebrates diversity[384]
- learning about and developing a rights-based understanding of inclusive education[385]
- engaging in critical reflection about beliefs and practices[386]
- building confidence for inclusive education through reflective practice on developing knowledge of flexible pedagogy[387]
- engaging with critical disability studies to develop understanding of the social construction of disability and the role of the teacher in reducing ableism[388]
- developing an understanding of diversity as a resource rather than a 'problem' and learning to presume competence and hold positive expectations of all students[389]
- learning about available supports for facilitating inclusive education[390]
- critical engagement with resources and inclusive approaches to provisioning the environment[391]
- developing an understanding of the importance of building relationships with students to facilitate inclusion[392]

- developing an understanding of the importance of listening to people who experience disability, including children and young people, and drawing on the disability rights movement in striving towards inclusive education[393] (and within this, providing opportunities for respectful engagement with people who experience disability and their families[394])

- establishing strategies for ongoing collaboration with other teachers, including the provision of a 'theoretical toolbox' to assist with engaging in ongoing critical thinking and critical reflection[395]

- learning about effective approaches to using support for inclusive education, particularly awareness of common pitfalls and important practices for collaborating with paraprofessionals, and alternative approaches to support[396]

- support for developing understanding of and skills for engaging in differentiation and universal approaches to curriculum, pedagogy, the environment and assessment.[397]

When teachers perceive a culture of exclusion or feel that they are not supported through policy, and when they experience the effects of a lack of support, this can have a detrimental impact on their attitudes towards inclusive education.[398] One key area of policy is teacher education for inclusive education. This requires providing education in disability studies and inclusive education as an essential component of teacher education and ongoing professional development for all teachers and all other professionals involved in supporting inclusive education. Consistent with international obligations under the CRPD, the delivery of this teacher education needs to include *at least* one compulsory, semester-long subject dedicated solely to inclusive education. This needs to be undertaken alongside embedded approaches to ensuring all aspects of teacher education address inclusion. Additionally, ongoing professional development for in-service teachers is required.

Paraprofessional support for inclusion

As discussed in chapter four, despite substantial concerns about common approaches to using paraprofessional support for inclusive education[399], in research involving parents, teachers, students and paraprofessional educators it is argued that with careful planning, preparation and implementation, paraprofessional support may help facilitate inclusion. It has also been argued that

> " It is clear that current policies are inadequate for the realisation of inclusive education.

specific planning around the roles and responsibilities of paraprofessional educators and teachers can result in improved educational experiences and increased student involvement in the curriculum.[400] Paraprofessional educators report the belief that their support can be beneficial in providing teachers with another adult to discuss and reflect on ideas and problem-solving within the everyday.[401]

Research provides evidence that, working in close partnership with the teacher, paraprofessional support may be implemented in such a way that it is beneficial for organising the learning environment, preparing or adapting materials in ways that can benefit all students, and providing general assistance to support the teaching and learning that occurs in the classroom.[402] Unobtrusive, discreet support from a paraprofessional educator to further scaffold what is being taught by the teacher may allow for student autonomy and facilitate inclusion.[403] Indeed, in research with 16 young adults labelled with intellectual disabilities, Broer and colleagues found that students reported that at times paraprofessional educators were able to assist by providing useful explanations to clarify teacher instruction.[404]

When paraprofessional educators are from the same community or cultural backgrounds as families, or have experienced similar life situations, Appl reports that paraprofessional support has been found to bring together families and professionals when many different professionals are involved in the lives of the student and family.[405] Paraprofessional support can be useful for assistance with small group learning and supervision of students, including assistance with emergencies and classroom management.[406]

" Research provides substantial evidence that the current approaches to paraprofessional support can impede, rather than facilitate, inclusion.

When adequate education and professional development is provided and careful and ongoing collaboration with the teacher is in place, paraprofessional educators report beliefs that they can provide effective support for inclusive education.[407] However, suggestions that further education for paraprofessionals is the key strategy needed require cautious examination given the risk that this may serve to legitimise the problematic tendency for teachers to inappropriately transfer teacher responsibility for students to the paraprofessional.[408]

Overall, it is clear that the common strategy of employing paraprofessional educators to support the education of students who experience disability may hold some promise. However, by contrast (as outlined in chapter four), research provides substantial evidence that the current approaches to paraprofessional support can impede, rather than facilitate, inclusion. Consequently, careful, comprehensive and research-based policy-making is required.

Policy and practice for inclusive education

"*Inclusive education is an example of a policy initiative that is socially just, but requires significant commitment and knowledge to implement.*"[409]

In relation to policy, two key matters of concern are raised in the research literature. Firstly, policies are frequently inadequate (or non-existent) and misunderstandings of inclusive education are evident in many policies that purport to be about inclusion.[410] Secondly, while many policies do outline inclusive approaches, there is a need for stronger links between policy and practice.[411] Indeed, what is stated in policy and legislation is not necessarily reflective of implemented practice.[412]

Regarding the first of these two key issues, it is clear that current policies are inadequate for the realisation of inclusive education. To bring inclusive education to a reality, policy transformation is required. Critically, policy makers need to engage with inclusive education as a fundamental human right for every person, and thus to shift from inclusive education as a choice – or an optional extra – to inclusive education as everyday practice for all.[413]

Concerning the links between policy and practice, inclusive education policies are common nationally and internationally. However, the translation of these policies into practice is limited and many barriers to genuine realisation of inclusive education have been identified.[414] Fragmentation between policy and practice is an issue that requires thoughtful consideration in undertaking policy-making to bring about inclusive education.[415]

Policy recommendations

Building on the research literature, there is scope for a coordinated framework for inclusive education in all Australian education settings. Cognisant of the importance of policy transformation and a coherent approach between policy and practice, the following research-based recommendations are provided with a view to working towards the realisation of genuine inclusive education:

1 Develop and implement a National Action Plan for Inclusive Education to ensure a successful transition from parallel systems of education to one inclusive system of education

Conduct a comprehensive review of policy and practice at all levels of the education system and develop a national plan with measurable actions and robust monitoring and accountability to ensure the rights of students who experience disability are upheld, consistent with Australia's obligations under the CRPD, and in keeping with the definition of inclusive education outlined in *GC4*. There must be no confusion or conflation of inclusion with any forms of exclusion including assimilation, integration or remediation. Careful attention needs to be paid to how the evidence-base on inclusive education is translated to policy, practice and funding systems in order to create an achievable plan for the transition from parallel 'special' and 'mainstream' education systems to one education system for all. This includes a reallocation of current funding to ensure that the distribution of education funds fully and equitably supports the transition and ongoing successful functioning of a genuinely inclusive education system.

2 Ensure that no new segregated settings (schools, pre-schools, centres, units or classrooms) are created

As part of the review, the educational practices and culture of segregated schools should be specifically examined, with a view to defining policy and funding arrangements that are consistent with Australia's obligations and contemporary theory. This needs to include a clear plan to ensure a positive transition of current students to a fully inclusive education system. A key initial step in moving towards this is to cease the creation of new segregated settings.

3 Ensure the full recognition of human rights

From the above review, define clear expectations for inclusive education in Australian schools. As part of the review process, conduct a robust review, in consultation with organisations of persons with disability, of the *Disability Standards for Education 2005* and implement the recommendations in the new standards. The expectations need to ensure that there is no implicit hierarchy of students and that no students can be considered 'too disabled' for inclusive education. As such, it needs to be explicit that there are no exceptions to the fundamental human right to inclusive education. Expanding the current data collection practices to include recording and transparent reporting of the numbers of students who do not qualify for an adjustment, who are prevented from enrolling in their local education settings, and of all use of restrictive practices, suspension and expulsion is required. Transparent and disaggregated reporting of educational attainment and completion rates is also required.

4 Foster a culture of inclusion

Addressing ableism within and beyond education settings and systems is essential to facilitating inclusive education. This includes the need for policy to engage the broader community with anti-ableist education and disability equity education.

5 Introduce compulsory, comprehensive and ongoing teacher education for inclusion

Ongoing pre-service and in-service professional development for educators on inclusive education (not to be confused with 'special' education) is essential (including developing awareness regarding ableism and the provisions of the CRPD). Within pre-service teacher education, the CRPD requires at least one compulsory core (semester-long) subject in every teacher education program that is solely dedicated to inclusive education. This approach is complemented, but not replaced, by an embedded approach throughout the curriculum. At least one subject dedicated to critical disability studies, free of ableism and underpinned by a disability equity education approach, is also recommended.

6 **Build the foundations for successful collaboration for inclusion**

Inclusive education practice should become an integral part of education for all allied health and education leaders and other education support professionals. Additionally, teachers and allied professionals require support for collaborating for inclusion. This includes addressing the considerable policy gap regarding the use of paraprofessional support. Information and support for families to assist with the currently complex and often very frustrating process of advocating for inclusive education is also essential.

7 **Ensure flexible and responsive curriculum and assessment approaches**

The role of differentiation in teaching practice is clearly identified in the implementation of the NCCD. Further development of policy to ensure differentiated, universal approaches to curriculum, pedagogy, environments and assessment is required, with space needed for flexible and responsive approaches. Clear consideration of the impacts of high-stakes student achievement testing is also required.

8 **Listen to students**

Ongoing commitment to direct, accountable and regular consultation with students who experience disability and their families is required across all aspects of policy-making and implementation for inclusive education.

9 **Prioritise disability equity education**

Further development of the diversity approach within the *Australian Curriculum* and the *Early Years Learning Framework for Australia* is needed to incorporate disability equity education, including awareness-raising regarding ableism and educational practice.

Conclusion

As evident in this review, it is now well established that inclusive education is a positive and necessary progression for education systems the world over. Inclusive education is recognised as a fundamental human right. The research demonstrates the positive outcomes of inclusive education. However, the evidence is also clear that there are many barriers to inclusive education that are still prevalent. More than 20 years ago, Barton argued that,

"it is because of the offensiveness of existing injustices and barriers that we must not on the one hand underestimate the degree of the struggle involved if our vision of an inclusive society is to be realized, or on the other hand fail to recognize the importance of establishing effective working relationships with all those involved in removing oppression and discrimination."[416]

This has not changed. It is clear, therefore, that bringing inclusive education to a reality for all is an urgent ethical and educational imperative. However, this does require transformation, starting with recognising and actively working to disestablish ableism at every level of our education systems, and within society more broadly. As with the social movements that have come before, this is not an easy task and many of us will necessarily feel uncomfortable as we encounter our own ableism and the ableism that abounds in our society. This discomfort is necessary and important to bring about transformation. However, we need to support each other in solidarity as we take on this challenge. Being genuinely inclusive involves ongoing commitment and continual critical reflection. This is not always easy, but it is a worthy challenge when we consider what kind of world we wish to live in *together*.
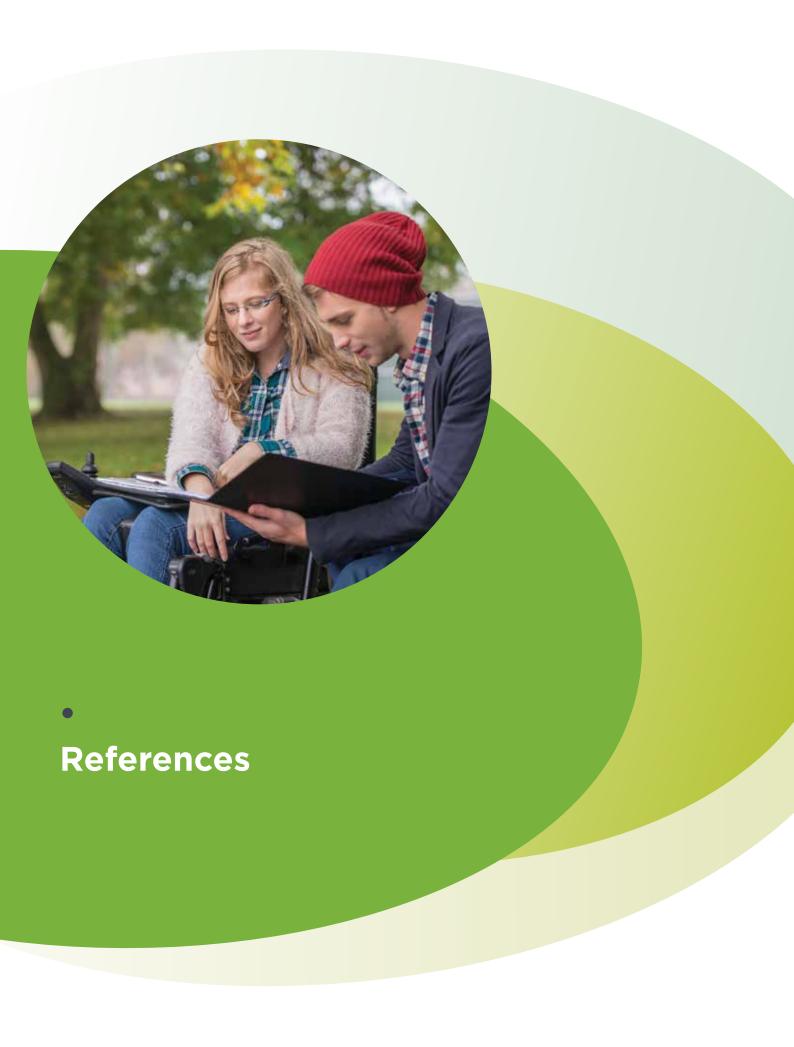
314 Alhassan, 2014

315 For example, see: Armstrong & Tsokova, 2019; Nutbrown & Clough, 2009

316 Beckett, 2009

317 Beckett, 2009; Connolly, Smith, & Kelly, 2002; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Mevawalla, In press; Watson, 2018; Werner, Peretz, & Roth, 2015

318 Watson, 2018

319 Connolly, Smith, & Kelly, 2002; Watson, 2018

320 *Ibid*

321 United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 2013

322 Macartney & Morton, 2011

323 Biklen, 2000

324 Cologon, Mevawalla, Niland, Artinian, Salvador, & Wright, in press; Lalvani, 2015; Symeonidou & Loizou, 2018

325 Lalvani, 2015; Symeonidou & Loizou, 2018

326 Stahmer, Akshoomoff, & Cunningham, 2011

327 Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Brownlee & Carrington, 2000; Curcic, 2009; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Forlin, Douglas, & Hattie, 1996; Frankel, Gold, & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Graham & Spandagou, 2011; Hurley & Horn, 2010; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; Komesaroff, 2007; Koutrouba, Vamvakari, & Steliou, 2006; McMahon, 2012; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009; Qi & Ha, 2012; Rietveld, 2010; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Sharma, Moore, & Sonawane, 2009; Stanovich & Jordan, 1998; Sze, 2009

328 Curcic, 2009; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

329 Jordan & Stanovich, 2001; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

330 Cologon, 2012, p. 1156

331 Florian, 2010

332 Curcic, 2009

333 Hehir, 2002

334 Ferguson, 2008; Johnston & Wildy, 2016; Macqueen, 2013; C. Tomlinson, 2017

335 Ferguson, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Rutherford, 2012; Saddler, 2014

336 Ferguson, 2008; Florian, Rouse, & Black-Hawkins, 2017; Smith, 2018

337 Downer, Rimm-Kaufman, & Pianta, 2007; Essa, Bennett, Burnham, Martin, Bingham, & Allred, 2008; Ferguson, 2008; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Mashburn, Pianta, Hamre, Downer, Barbarin, Bryant, et al., 2008; Pianta, 1999; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004

338 Batu, 2010; Brown, Packer, & Passmore, 2013; Curcic, 2009; Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Cologon, 2012; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; Morris & Sharma, 2011

339 Hehir, 2002

340 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Mayer, 2009

341 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009

342 Batu, 2010; Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Fox, Farrell, & Davis, 2004; Hurley & Horn, 2010; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009; Recchia & Puig, 2011; Theodorou & Nind, 2010; Trepanier-Street, 2010

343 Finke, McNaughton, & Drager, 2009; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Mogharreban & Bruns, 2009; Vakil, Welton, O'Connor, & Kline, 2009

344 Coates & Vickerman, 2010; Macartney & Morton, 2011

345 Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Curcic, 2009; Huang & Diamond, 2009; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; McCray & McHatton, 2011; Srinivasan, 2017; Lalvani, 2015

346 Appl & Spenciner, 2008; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Baglieri, 2008; Cologon, 2012; Dart, 2006; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Faamanatu-Eteuati, 2011; Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Suculoğlu, Bakkaloğlu, Karasu, Demir, & Akalın, 2013; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012; Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, & Simon, 2005

347 Bacon & Causton-Theoharis, 2012

348 McLean, 2008

349 Hart, Dixon, Drummond, & McIntyre, 2004

350 Chowdhury, 2011; Kalyanpur, 2011; Sukbunpant, Arthur-Kelly, & Dempsey, 2013; Zhang, 2011

351 Forlin, 2012, p. 4

352 Waitoller & Artiles, 2013

353 Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Varcoe & Boyle, 2014; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Subban & Sharma, 2005; Todorovic, Stojiljkovic, Ristanic, & Djigic, 2011

354 Alghazo & Naggar Gaad, 2004; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; de Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011; Forlin, Keen, & Barrett, 2008; Subban & Sharma 2005

355 Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Faamanatu-Eteuati, 2011; Ojok & Wormnæs, 2013

356 Cologon, 2012

357 Brown, Packer, & Passmore, 2013; Hehir, 2002

358 Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011

359 Barton, 1997; Lalvani, 2013; Purdue, Gordon-Burns, Gunn, Madden, & Surtees, 2009; Valle & Connor, 2011

360 Biklen, 2000; Biklen & Burke, 2006; Kliewer, 1998; Kliewer, 2008

361 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011

362 Curcic, 2009; Jordan, Schwartz, & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010

363 Huang & Diamond, 2009; Mayer, 2009; Vakil, Welton, O'Connor, & Kline, 2009

364 Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Curcic, 2009; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993

365 Appl & Spenciner, 2008; Baglieri, 2008; Bishop & Jones, 2003; Brown, Packer, & Passmore, 2013; Brownlee & Carrington, 2000; Cagran & Schmidt, 2011; Cologon, 2012; Dart, 2006; Florian & Linklater, 2010; Forlin, Cedillo, Romero-Contreras, Fletcher, & Hernández, 2010; McLean, 2008; Niemeyer & Proctor, 2002; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Sharma, Moore, & Sonawane, 2009

366 Carroll, Forlin, & Jobling, 2003; Forlin, & Chambers, 2011; Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, & Simon, 2005; Tait, & Purdie, 2000

367 Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011

368 Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011

369 Cologon & Cocksedge, 2014; Darragh, 2007; Edmiaston & Fitzgerald, 2000; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005

370 Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012; Edmiaston & Fitzgerald, 2000

371 Carlson, Hemmings, Wurf, & Reupert, 2012

372 For example, see: Capp, 2017; Goddard, Goddard, & Kim, 2015; Little, McCoach, & Reis, 2014; Reis, Eckert, McCoach, Jacobs, & Coyne, 2008; Reis, McCoach, Coyne, Schreiber, Eckert, Gubbins, 2007; Reis, McCoach, Little, Muller, & Kaniskan, 2011; C. Tomlinson, 2017

373 Australian Government, 2017

374 Australian Government, 2019

375 *Ibid*

376 *Ibid*

377 Downer, Rimm-Kaufman, & Pianta, 2007; Essa, Bennett, Burnham, Martin, Bingham, & Allred, 2008; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Mashburn, Pianta, Hamre, Downer, Barbarin, Bryant, et al., 2008; Pianta, 1999; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004

378 Cologon, 2014e

379 Cologon, 2014b; Cologon, 2014e; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005

380 Cologon, Niland, Salvador, Mackenzie, & Artinian, 2016; Cologon, Mevawalla, Niland, Artinian, Salvador, & Wright, In press; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019

381 Baglieri, 2008; Beckett, 2009; Broderick, Hawkins, Henze, Mirasol-Spath, Pollack-Berkovits, Clune, Skovera, & Steel, 2012; Cologon, 2012; Lalvani, 2013; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008; Slee, 2001

382 Carrington, Macarthur, Kearney, Kimber, Mercer, Morton, & Rurtherford, 2012; Carrington & Saggers, 2008; Cologon, 2012; Cologon & Thomas, 2014; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Mergler, Carrington, Kimber, & Bland, 2016; Wright, 2017

383 Beckett, 2009; Cologon, 2012, Cologon, 2013c; McLean, 2008; Salvador, 2017

384 Bacon & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Baglieri, 2008; Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011; Broderick, Hawkins, Henze, Mirasol-Spath, Pollack-Berkovits, Clune, Skovera, & Steel, 2012; Cologon, 2012; Cologon & Cocksedge, 2014; Darragh, 2007; Edmiaston & Fitzgerald, 2000; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005; Lalvani, 2013; Lalvani, 2015; Macartney & Morton, 2011; Slee, 2001

385 Breitenbach, Armstrong, & Bryson, 2013; Cologon, 2012; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011

386 Baglieri, 2008; Cologon, 2012; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012

387 Cologon, 2012; Connor & Goldmansour, 2012; Florian & Linklater, 2010; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005

388 Broderick, Hawkins, Henze, Mirasol-Spath, Pollack-Berkovits, Clune, Skovera, & Steel, 2012; Cologon, 2012; Cologon, 2013b; Cologon, 2013c; Grenier, 2010; Lalvani, 2013

389 Biklen, 2000; Biklen & Burke, 2006; Cologon, 2012; Diamond & Huang, 2005; Grenier, 2010; Kasa-Hendrickson & Kluth, 2005

390 Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Cologon, 2012; Dart, 2006; Koutrouba, Vamvakari, & Steliou, 2006; Sharma, Forlin,& Loreman, 2008

391 Cologon, 2013c; Lalvani & Bacon, 2019; Salvador, 2017

392 Cologon, 2014; Mackenzie, Cologon, & Fenech, 2016

393 Biklen, 2000; Connor & Goldmansour, 2012; Macartney & Morton, 2011

394 Broomhead, 2013; Cologon, 2012; Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman, 2008

395 Broderick, Hawkins, Henze, Mirasol-Spath, Pollack-Berkovits, Clune, Skovera, & Steel, 2012

396 Egilson, & Traustadottir, 2009; Giangreco & Doyle, 2007; Rutherford, 2012

397 Basham, Israel, Graden, Poth, & Winston, 2010; Edyburn, 2005; Edyburn, 2010; Katz, 2013; McTighe & Brown, 2005; Morningstar, Shogren, Lee, & Born, 2015; Price, 2015; C. Tomlinson, 2017; Valle & Connor, 2011

398 Berlach & Chambers, 2011; Cologon & D'Alessio, 2015

399 For example, see: Breton, 2010; Brock & Carter, 2015; Broer, Doyle, & Giangreco, 2005; Burdick & Causton-Theoharis, 2012; Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Giangreco, 2010; Patterson, 2006; Martin & Alborz, 2014; Rutherford, 2012; Saddler, 2014; Stockall, 2014; Suter & Giangreco, 2009; Westover & Martin, 2014; Whitburn, 2013

400 Conroy, 2007; Devlin, 2008

401 Patterson, 2006

402 Conroy, 2007; Hughes & Valle-Riestra, 2008; Rutherford, 2012; Stockall, 2014; Whitburn, 2013

403 Brock & Carter, 2015; Conroy, 2007; Lane, Carter, & Sisco, 2012; Whitburn, 2013

404 Broer, Doyle, & Giangreco, 2005

405 Appl, 2006

406 Brock & Carter, 2015; Giangreco, 2010; Lane, Carter, & Sisco, 2012; Patterson, 2006; Westover & Martin, 2014

407 Breton, 2010

408 Bourke, 2010; Giangreco & Broer, 2007; Rutherford, 2012

409 Johnstone & Chapman, 2009, p. 144

410 Kalyanpur, 2011

411 Chowdhury, 2011; Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012; Miles, Lene, & Merumeru, 2014; Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013

412 Curcic, 2009

413 Mackenzie, Cologon, & Fenech, 2016

414 Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012; Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013

415 Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, & Guang-Xue, 2013

416 Barton, 1997, p. 239

References

TOWARDS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION:
A NECESSARY PROCESS OF TRANSFORMATION

Agbenyega, J. S., & Klibthong, S. (2014). Assessing Thai early childhood teachers' knowledge of inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(12), 1247–1261. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2014.886306

Agosto, V., White, A., & Valcarlos, M. M. (2019). Deficit-laden use of constructs in anti-oppressive curriculum. J*ournal of Curriculum Theorizing*, 34(1), 36–49. Retrieved from: http://journal.jctonline.org/index.php/jct/article/view/765

Ainscow, M. (2007). Taking an inclusive turn. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 7(1), 3–7. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-3802.2007.00075.x

Ainscow, M., & Cesar, M. (2006). Inclusive education ten years after Salamanca: Setting the agenda. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 21(3), 231–238. doi: 10.1007/BF03173412

Alghazo, E., & Naggar Gaad, E. (2004). General education teachers in the United Arab Emirates and their acceptance of the inclusion of students with disabilities. *British Journal of Special Education*, 31(2), 94–99. doi: 10.1111/j.0952-3383.2004.00335.x

Alhassan, A. M. (2014). Teachers' implementation of inclusive education in Ghanaian primary schools: An insight into government policy and practices, *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 1(2), 115–129. doi: 10.14738/assrj.12.124

Allan, J. (2010). The inclusive teacher educator: spaces for civic engagement. *Discourse*, 31(4), 411–422. doi: 10.1080/01596306.2010.504359

Anderson, J., & Boyle, C. (2015). Inclusive education in Australia: Rhetoric, reality and the road ahead. *Support for Learning*, 30(1), 4–22. doi: 10.1111/1467-9604.12074

Annamma, S. A. (2018). *The pedagogy of pathologization. Dis/abled girls of color in the school-prison nexus*. New York: Routledge.

Antia, S. D., Jones, P., Luckner, J., Kreimeyer, K. H., & Reed, S. (2011). Social outcomes of students who are deaf and hard of hearing in general education classrooms. *Exceptional Children*, 77(4), 489–504. doi: 10.1177/001440291107700407

Appl, D. (2006). First-year early childhood special education teachers and their assistants: "Teaching along with her". *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 38(6), 34–40. doi: 10.1177/004005990603800605

Appl, D., & Spenciner, L. (2008). What do pre-service teachers see as their roles in promoting positive social environments? I see myself as a facilitator of acceptance. *Early Childhood Education Journal* 35(5), 445–50. doi: 10.1007/s10643-007-0188-1

Arduin, S. (2015). A review of the values that underpin the structure of an education system and its approach to disability and inclusion. *Oxford Review of Education*, 41(1), 105-121. doi: 10.1080/03054985.2015.1006614

Armstrong, F., & Tsokova, D. (Eds.) (2019). *Action research for inclusive education: Participation and democracy in teaching and learning*. London: Routledge. doi: 10.4324/9781351048361

Armstrong, D., Armstrong, A. C., & Spandagou, I. (2011). Inclusion: by choice or by chance? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(1). doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010.496192

Armstrong, F., & Barton, L. (2008). Policy, experience and change and the challenge of inclusive education: the case of England. In L. Barton and F. Armstrong (Eds.), *Policy, experience and change: cross-cultural reflections on inclusive education* (5–18). London, UK: Springer.

Armstrong, D. (2017). Wicked problems in special and inclusive education. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 17(4), p. 229–236. doi: 10.1111/1471-3802.12402

Australian Government (2017). *Fairer funding for students with disability*. Retrieved from: https://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/fairer_funding_for_students_with_disability_v3.pdf

Australian Government (2019). *Level of adjustment provided to the student*. Retrieved from: http://www.schooldisabilitydatapl.edu.au/docs/default-source/default-document-library/level-of-adjustment-provided-to-the-student.pdf

Australian Government (2018). *Australia's combined second and third periodic report under the convention on the rights of persons with disabilities*. Retrieved from: https://www.ag.gov.au/Consultations/Pages/Convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities-draft-combined-second-and-third-periodic-report.aspx

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW). (2017). *Disability in Australia: changes over time in inclusion and participation in education*. Retrieved from: https://www.aihw.gov.au/getmedia/34f09557-0acf-4adf-837d-eada7b74d466/Education-20905.pdf.aspx

Australian Research Alliance for Children & Youth (ARACY). (2013), *Inclusive education for students with disability: A review of the best evidence in relation to theory and practice*. Retrieved from: http://www.aracy.org.au/publications-resources/command/download_file/id/246/filename/Inclusive_education_for_students_with_disability_-A_review_of_the_best_evidence_in_relation_to_theory_and_practice.pdf;

Avramidis, E., & Kalyva, E. (2007). The influence of teaching experience and professional development on Greek teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22(4), 367–389. doi: 10.1080/08856250701649989

Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers' attitudes towards integration / inclusion: a review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17(2), 129–147. doi:10.1080/08856250210129056

Bacchi, C. L. (1999) *Women, policy and politics: The construction of policy problems*. London: Sage.

Bacon, J. K., & Causton-Theoharis, J. (2012) 'It should be teamwork': a critical investigation of school practices and parent advocacy in special education, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(7), 682–699 doi:10.1080/13603116.2012.708060

Baer, R. M., Daviso, A. W., Flexer, R. W., Queen, R. M., & Meindl, R. S. (2011). Students with intellectual disabilities: Predictors of transition outcomes. *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals*, 34(3) 132–141. doi: 10.1177/08857F28811399090

Baglieri, S. (2008). 'I connected': Reflection and biography in teacher learning toward inclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 12(5), 585–604. doi: 10.1080/13603110802377631

Baglieri, S., Bejoian, L. M., Broderick, A. A., Connor, D. J., & Valle, J. (2011). [Re]claiming "inclusive education" toward cohesion in educational reform: Disability studies unravels the myth of the normal child. *Teachers College Record*, 113(10), 2122–2154. Retrieved from: https://www.tcrecord.org

Baker-Ericzén, M. J., Mueggenborg, M. G., & Shea, M. M. (2009). Impact of trainings on child care providers' attitudes and perceived competence toward inclusion: What factors are associated with change? *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 28(4), 196–208. doi: 10.1177/0271121408323273

Barton, L. (1997). Inclusive education: romantic, subversive or realistic? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1(3), 231–242. doi:10.1080/1360311970010301

Barton, L. (2009). Disability, physical education and sport: Some critical observations and questions. In H. Fitzgerald (Ed.), *Disability and Youth Sport* (pp. 39–51) London: Routledge.

Basham, J. D., Israel, M., Graden, J., Poth, R., & Winston, M. (2010). A comprehensive approach to RTI: embedding universal design for learning and technology. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 33, 243–255. doi: 10.1177/073194871003300403

Batu, S. E. (2010). Factors for the success of early childhood inclusion & related studies in Turkey. *Early Childhood Inclusion & Related Studies*, 2(1), 57–71. Retrieved from: https://www.int-jecse.net/index.php/ijecse/article/view/25

Beckett, A. E. (2009). 'Challenging disabling attitudes, building an inclusive society': considering the role of education in encouraging non-disabled children to develop positive attitudes towards disabled people. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 30(3), 317–329. doi: 10.1080/01425690902812596

Beckett, A. E. (2014). Non-disabled children's ideas about disability and disabled people. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 35(6), 856–875. doi: 10.1080/01425692.2013.800444

Berlach, R. G. & Chambers, D. J. (2011). Interpreting inclusivity: an endeavour of great proportions. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(5) 529–539. doi: 10.1080/13603110903159300

Best, M., Corcoran, T., & Slee, R. (2018). Who's in? Who's out? What to do about inclusive education. In M. Best, T. Corcoran, & R. Slee (Eds) *Who's in? Who's out? What to do about inclusive education* (1–6). Koninklijke Brill NV, Leiden, The Netherlands. p. 4.

Bevan-Brown, J. (2013). Including people with disabilities: An indigenous perspective. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(6), 571–583. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.694483

Biklen, D. (2000). Constructing inclusion: Lessons from critical, disability narratives. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 4(4), 337–353. doi: 10.1080/13603110050168032

Biklen, D., & Burke, J. (2006). Presuming Competence. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 39(2), 166–175. doi: 10.1080/10665680500540376

Bishop, A., & Jones, P. (2003). 'I never thought they would enjoy the fun of science just like ordinary children do' – Exploring science experiences with early years teacher training students and children with severe and profound learning difficulties. *British Journal of Special Education* 30(1), 34–43. doi: 10.1111/1467-8527.00279

Bond, B, J. (2013). Physical disability on children's television programming: A content analysis. *Early Education & Development*, 24(3), 408–418. doi: 10.1080/10409289. 2012.670871

Booth, T., & Ainscow, M. (2011). *Index for inclusion: Developing learning and participation in schools*. Bristol, UK: Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education.

Booth, T., Ainscow, M., & Kingston, D. (2006). *Index for inclusion: Developing play, learning and participation in early years and childcare*. Bristol, UK: Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education

Bourke, P. E. (2010): Inclusive education reform in Queensland: implications for policy and practice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(2), 183–193. doi: 10.1080/1360311 0802504200

Boutot, E. A., & Bryant, D. P. (2005). Social integration of students with autism in inclusive settings. *Education and Training in Developmental Disabilities*, 40(1), 14–23. Retrieved from: https://www.jstor.org/stable/23879768

Brede, J., Remington, A., Kenny, L., Warren, K., & Pellicano, L. (2017). Excluded from school: Autistic students' experiences of school exclusion and subsequent re-integration into school. *Autism & Developmental Language Impairments*, 2, 1–20. doi: 10.1177/2396941517737511

Breitenbach, M. M., Armstrong, V. L., & Bryson, S. E. (2013). The implementation of best education practices for a student severely affected by autism. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(3), 277–294. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012. 676087

Breton, W. (2010). Special education paraprofessionals: Perceptions of preservice preparation, supervision, and ongoing developmental training. *International Journal of Special Education*, 25(1), 34–45. Retrieved from http://simsrad.net.ocs. mq.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?d irect=true&db=ehh&AN=51892020&site=ehost-live

Brock, M. E., & Carter, E. W. (2015). Effects of a Professional Development Package to Prepare Special Education Paraprofessionals to Implement Evidence-Based Practice. *Journal of Special Education*, 49(1), 39–51. doi: 10.1177/ 0022466913501882

Broderick, A. A., Hawkins, G., Henze, S., Mirasol-Spath, C., Pollack-Berkovits, R., Clune, H. P., Skovera, E., & Steel, C. (2012). Teacher counternarratives: transgressing and 'restorying' disability in education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(8), 825–842. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010. 526636

Broer, S. M., Doyle, M. B., & Giangreco, M. F. (2005). Perspectives of students with intellectual disabilities about their experiences with paraprofessional support. *Exceptional Children*, 71(4), 415–430. Retrieved from: http://simsrad.net. ocs.mq.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.as px?direct=true&db=ehh&AN=17403813&site=ehost-live

Broomhead, K. E., (2013). 'You cannot learn this from a book': pre-service teachers developing empathy towards parents of children with Special Educational Needs (SEN) via parent stories. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 28(2), 173–186. doi: 10.1080/08856257.2013.778109

Browder, D., Spooner, F., Ahlgrim-Delzell, L., Harris, A. A., & Wakeman, S. (2008). A meta-analysis on teaching mathematics to students with significant cognitive disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 74(4), 407–432. doi: 10.1177/001440290807400401

Brown, C. M., Packer, T. L., & Passmore, A. (2013). Adequacy of the regular early education classroom environment for students with visual impairment. *Journal of Special Education*, 46(4), 223–232. doi: 10.1177/0022466910397374

Brownlee, J., & Carrington, S. (2000). Opportunities for authentic experience and reflection: A teaching programme designed to change attitudes towards disability for pre-service teachers. *Support for Learning* 15(3), 99–105. doi: 10.1111/1467-9604.00157

Burdick, C., & Causton-Theoharis, J. (2012). Creating effective paraprofessional support in the inclusive art classroom. *Art Education*, 65(6), 33–37. doi: 10.1080/00043125.2012. 11519198

Burke, M. M., & Goldman, S. (2015). Identifying the associated factors of mediation and due process in families of students with autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 45(5), 1345–1353. doi 10.1007/s10803-014-2294-4

Burke, M.M. & Hodapp, R.M. (2014) Relating Stress of Mothers of Children with Developmental Disabilities to Family School Partnerships. *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities*, 52(1), 13–23. doi:10.1352/1934-9556-52.1.13

Buswell Griffiths, C., Norwich, B., & Burden, B. (2004). Parental agency, identity and knowledge in mothers of children with dyslexia. *Oxford Review of Education* (30)3, 417–433. doi: 10.1080/0305498042000260511

Cagran, B., & Schmidt, M. (2011). Attitudes of Slovene teachers towards the inclusion of pupils with different types of special needs in primary school. *Educational Studies* 37(2), 171–195. doi: 10.1080/03055698.2010.506319

Calberg, C., & Kavale, K. (1980). The efficacy of special versus regular placement for exceptional children: A meta analysis. *The Journal of Special Education*, 14(3), 295–309. doi: 10.1177/002246698001400304

Campbell, F.K. (2009). *Contours of ableism: The production of disability and abledness*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Campbell, F.K. (2012). Stalking ableism: Using disability to expose 'abled' narcissism. In D. Goodley, B. Hughes, & L. Davis (Eds.), *Disability and social theory: New developments and directions* (212–231). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan

Capp, M. J. (2017). The effectiveness of universal design for learning: A meta-analysis of literature between 2013 and 2016. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 21(8), 791–807. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2017.1325074

Carlson, L., Hemmings, B., Wurf, G., & Reupert, A. (2012). The instructional strategies and attitudes of effective inclusive teachers. *Special Education Perspectives*, 21(1), 7–20. Retrieved from: http://www.aase.edu.au/about-us/publications/perspectives

Carrington, S., Macarthur, J., Kearney, A., Kimber, M., Mercer, L., Morton, M. & Rurtherford, G. (2012). Towards and Inclusive education for all. In S. Carrington & J. Macarthur (Eds.), *Teaching in inclusive school communities* (pp.4–38). Queensland, Australia: John Wiley and Sons.

Carrington, S. Mercer, L., Iyer, R. & Selva, G. (2015). The impact of transformative learning in a critical service-learning program on teacher development: building a foundation for inclusive teaching. *Reflective Practice*, 16(1), 61–72.doi: 10.1080/14623943.2014.969696

Carrington, S. & Saggers, B. (2008). Service learning informing the development of an inclusive ethical framework for beginning teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies*, 24(3), 795–806. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2007.09.006

Carroll, A., Forlin, C. & Jobling, A. (2003). The impact of teacher training in special education on the attitudes of Australian preservice general educators towards people with disabilities. *Teacher Education Quarterly* 30(3), 65–79. Retrieved from: http://www.teqjournal.org/backvols/2003/30_3/volume_3_number_3.htm

Carter, E. W., Moss, C. K., Hoffman, A., Chung, Y. C., & Sisco, L. (2011). Efficacy and social validity of peer support arrangements for adolescents with disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 78(1), 107–125. doi: 10.1177/001440291107800107

Causton-Theoharis, J., Theoharis, G., Orsati, F., & Cosier, M. (2011). Does self-contained special education deliver on its promises? A critical inquiry into research and practice. *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, 24(2), 61–78. Retrieved from: http://www.casecec.org/resources/jsel.asp

Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation. (2018). *An overview of the research, publications and capacity building resources available from the Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation* (CESE). Presentation, 30th October 2018 at Macquarie University, Department of Educational Studies.

Children and Young People with Disability Australia, (2017). *CYDA education survey 2017*. Retrieved from: https://www.cyda.org.au/Default.aspx?PageID=7327229&A=SearchResult&SearchID=12237931&ObjectID=7327229&ObjectType=1

Chiner, E., & Cardona, M. C. (2013) Inclusive education in Spain: how do skills, resources, and supports affect regular education teachers' perceptions of inclusion? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(5), 526–541. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.689864

Chowdhury, P. R. (2011). The right to inclusive education of persons with disabilities: The policy and practice implications. *Asia-Pacific Journal on Human Rights & the Law*, 12(2), 1–35. doi: 10.1163/138819011X13215419937869

Chung, K.-S., Lee, S.-Y., & Goh, E.-K. (2008). Inclusive education: Teacher's experiences in South Korean eco-early childhood education Paper presented at the AARE Annual Conference Brisbane. Retrieved from: http://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2008/chu08421.pdf

Coates, J., & Vickerman, P. (2010). Empowering children with special educational needs to speak up: experiences of inclusive physical education. *Disability & Rehabilitation*, 32(18), 1517–1526. doi: 10.3109/09638288.2010.497037

Cole, S., Murphy, H., Frisby, M., Grossi, T., & Bolte, H. (2019). *A longitudinal study to determine the impact of inclusion on student academic outcomes*. Centre on Education and Lifelong Learning, Indiana University. Retrieved from: https://www.iidc.indiana.edu/styles/iidc/defiles/CELL/Inclusion-study-handout.pdf

Colibaba, A. C., Gheorghiu, I., Colibaba, S., & Munteanu, E. (2013). Enabling SEN children's effective transition through the Fiesta Programme. *Lucrări Ştiinţifice*, 56(2), 193–196. Retrieved from: http://web.a.ebscohost.com

Cologon, K. (2010). 'Inclusion is really what teaching is'. *ARNEC Connections*, 3, 45–48. Retrieved from: http://www.arnec.net/ntuc/slot/u2323/connection/ARNEC%20Connections%202010_FINALfixed.pdf

Cologon, K. (2012). Confidence in their own ability: Postgraduate early childhood students examining their attitudes towards inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(11), 1155–1173. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010.548106

Cologon, K. (2013a). *Inclusive Education: Towards equality for students with disability*. Children with Disability Australia. Retrieved from: https://www.cyda.org.au/inclusion-in-education

Cologon, K. (2013b). Recognising our shared humanity: Human rights and inclusive education in Italy and Australia. *Italian Journal of Disability Studies*, 1(1), 151–169. Retrieved from: http://www.edizionianicia.it/docs/Rivista_Vol1_N1.pdf#page=151

Cologon, K. (2013c). Growing up with 'difference': Inclusive education and the portrayal of characters who experience disability in children's literature. *Write4Children: The International Journal for the Practice and Theories of Writing for Children and Children's Literature*, 4(2), 100–120.

Cologon, K. (2014a). "Not just being accepted, but embraced": Family perspectives on inclusion. In K. Cologon (Ed) *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (91–114). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Cologon, K. (2014b). Better together: Inclusive education in the early years. In K. Cologon (Ed.) *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (3–26). Oxford University Press: South Melbourne.

Cologon, K. (2014c). Preventing inclusion? Inclusive early childhood education and the option to exclude. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*, 15(4), 378–381. doi: 10.2304/ciec.2014.15.4.378

Cologon, K. (2014d). More than a label? The power of language. In K. Cologon (Ed) *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (49–69). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Cologon, K. (2014e). Constructing inclusion: putting theory into practice. In K. Cologon (Ed). *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (521–539). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Cologon, K., & Cocksedge, D. (2014). The A-Z of IFSPs, IEPs and SSPs! Positive planning for inclusion. In K. Cologon (Ed). *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (210–241). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Cologon, K., & D'Alessio, S. (2015). Dall'ideologia alla pratica scolastica. Facilitatori per losviluppo dell'educazione inclusiva nei contesti scolastici italiani. In R. Vianello, & S. Di Nuovo (Eds). *Quale scuola inclusiva in Italia? Oltre le posizioni ideologiche: risultati della ricerca* (181–208). Trento, Italy: Erickson.

Cologon, K., Mevawalla, Z., Niland, A., Artinian, V., Salvador, A., & Wright, K. (in press). Disability Equity Education: Confronting ableist bias in early childhood. In R. R. Scarlett (Ed.) *The anti-bias approach in early childhood* (4th ed.). Erskineville, NSW: Multiverse.

Cologon, K., Niland, A., Salvador, A., Mackenzie, M., & Artinian, V. (2016). Embracing diversity: Early childhood education and children who experience disability. In M. Guigni (Ed.) *The anti-bias approach in early childhood* (3rd ed.). Erskineville, NSW: Multiverse.

Cologon, K. & Salvador, A. (2016). 'An Inclusive Approach to Early Childhood is Essential to Ensuring Equity for all Children.' In Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development (Ed's). *Global report on equity and early childhood* (51–76). International Step-By-Step Association: Netherlands.

Cologon, K. (2016). Inclusive education. *Voice*, the journal of Down Syndrome Australia (July, 2016). Retrieved from: https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5bbee168af46836829398a2f/t/5c441b1f2b6a28fe67ebdabf/1547967268922/VOICE_July_2016_Inclusion.pdf

Cologon, K., & Mevawalla, Z. (2018). Increasing inclusion in early childhood: Key Word Sign as a communication partner intervention. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 28(20), 902–920. doi:10.1080/13603116.2017.1412515

Cologon, K. & Thomas, C. (2014). Ableism, disablism and the early years. In K. Cologon (Ed). *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (27–48). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Connolly, P., Smith, A., & Kelly, B. (2002) Too young to notice? *The cultural and political awareness of 3–6 year olds in Northern Ireland*, Community Relations Council, Belfast. Retrieved from: http://www.paulconnolly.net/publications/too_young_to_notice.pdf

Connor, D., & Goldmansour, K. (2012). Doing the civil right thing: Supporting children with disabilities in inclusive classes. *Bankstreet Occasional Papers*, 28. Retrieved from: https://www.bankstreet.edu/occasional-papers/occasional-papers-28/doing-the-civil-right-thing/

Conroy, P. W. (2007). Paraprofessionals and students with visual impairments: potential pitfalls and solutions. *Re:View*, 39(2), 43–56. doi: 10.3200/REVU.39.2.43-56

Consiglio, A., Guarnera, M., & Magnano, P. (2015). Representation of disability. Verification of the contact hypothesis in school. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 191, 1964–1969. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.408

Cooc, N., & Kiru, E. W. (2018). Disproportionality in special education: A synthesis of international research and trends. *The Journal of Special Education*, 52(3) 163–173. doi: 10.1177/0022466918772300

Coutinho, M. J., & Oswald, D. P. (2000). Disproportionate representation in special education: a synthesis and recommendations. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 9(2), 135–156. doi: 1062-1024/00/0600-0135

Cukalevski, E., & Malaquias, C. (2019): A CRPD analysis of NSW's policy on the education of students with disabilities – a retrogressive measure that must be halted. *Australian Journal of Human Rights*, doi: 10.1080/1323238X.2019.1609720

Cummings, K. P., Sills-Busio, D., Barker, A. F., & Dobbins, N. (2015) Parent–professional partnerships in early education: Relationships for effective inclusion of students with disabilities. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 36(4), 309–323. doi:10.1080/10901027.2015.1105329

Curcic, S. (2009). Inclusion in PK-12: an international perspective. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 13(5), 517–538. doi: 10.1080/13603110801899585

D'Alessio, S. (2011). *Inclusive education in Italy: A critical analysis of the policy of integrazione scolastica*. Rotterdam, Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

D'Alessio, S., Grima-Farrell, C., & Cologon, K. (2018). Inclusive education in Italy and in Australia: Embracing radical epistemological stances to develop inclusive policies and practices. In M. Best, T. Corcoran, & R. Slee (Eds) *Who's In? Who's Out? What to do about inclusive education* (15–32). Koninklijke Brill NV, Leiden, The Netherlands.

Darragh, J. (2007). Universal Design for Early Childhood Education: Ensuring access and equity for all. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 35(2), 167–171. doi: 10.1007/s10643-007-0177-4

Dart, G. (2006). 'My eyes went wide open' — An evaluation of the special needs education awareness course at Molepolole College of Education, Botswana. *British Journal of Special Education* 33(3) 130–138. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8578.2006.00428.x

Davis, J., & Watson, N. (2000). Disabled children's rights in everyday life: Problematising notions of competency and promoting self-empowerment. *The International Journal of Children's Rights*, 8(3), 211–228. doi: 10.1163/15718180020494622

de Boer, A., Pijl, S., & Minnaert, A. (2011). Regular primary schoolteachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: a review of the literature. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(3), 331–353. doi:10.1080/13603110903030089

De Bruin, K. (2019). The impact of inclusive education reforms on students with disability: An international comparison." *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 23(7-8), 811–826. doi:10.1080/13603116.2019.1623327

de Graaf, G., & van Hove, G. (2015). Learning to read in regular and special schools: A follow-up study of students with Down syndrome. *Life Span and Disability*, 18(1), 7–39. Retrieved from http://www.lifespan.it

de Graaf, G., Van Hove, G., & Haveman, M. (2013). More academics in regular schools? The effect of regular versus special school placement on academic skills in Dutch primary school students with Down syndrome. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 57(1), 21–38. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2788.2011.01512.x

Degener, T. (2016). Disability in a human rights context. *Laws* 5(3), 35–59. doi:10.3390/laws5030035

den Houting, J. (2019). Neurodiversity: An insider's perspective. *Autism*, 23(2) 271–273. doi: 10.1177/1362361318820762

Deng, M., & Poon-McBrayer, K. F. (2012). Reforms and challenges in the era of inclusive education: The case of China. *British Journal of Special Education*, 39(3), 117–122. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8578.2012.00551.x

DePauw, K. (1997). The InVisability of DisAbility: Cultural contexts and "sporting bodies". *Quest*, 49(4), 416–430. doi: 10.1080/00336297.1997.10484258

Dessemontet, R. S., Bless, G., & Morin, D. (2012). Effects of inclusion on the academic achievement and adaptive behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 56(6), 579–587. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2788.2011.01497.x

Dessemontet, R.S., & Bless, G. (2013). The impact of including children with intellectual disability in general education classrooms on the academic achievement of their low-, average-, and high-achieving peers. *Journal of Intellectual & Developmental Disability*, 38(1), 23–30. doi: 10.3109/13668250.2012.757589

Devlin, P. (2008). Create effective teacher-paraprofessional teams. *Intervention in School & Clinic*, 44(1), 41–44. doi: 10.1177/1053451208318874

Diamond, K.E., & Huang, H-H. (2005). Preschoolers' ideas about disabilities. *Infants & Young Children*, 18(1), 37–46. Retrieved from: http://journals.lww.com/iycjournal/pages/default.aspx

Dinneson, M. S., & Kroeger, S. D. (2018). Toward active partnership: Notice of procedural safeguards designed for parent use. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 29(1), 54–64. doi:10.1177/1044207317751674

Dockett, S., Perry, R., & Kearney, E. (2011). Starting school with special needs: Issues for families with complex support needs as their children start school. *Exceptionality Education Canada*, 21(2), 45–61. Retrieved from: https://researchoutput.csu.edu.au/files/8822168/12225-32086-1-CE%20(2).pdf

Downer, J. T., Rimm-Kaufman, S., & Pianta, R. C. (2007). How do classroom conditions and children's risk for school problems contribute to children's behavioral engagement in learning? *School Psychology Review*, 36(3), 413–432. Retrieved from: http://www.nasponline.org/publications/spr/index.aspx?vol=36&issue=3

Downer, J., Sabol, T., & Hamre, B. (2010). Teacher-child interactions in the classroom: Toward a theory of within-and cross-domain links to children's development outcomes. *Early Education and Development*, 21(5), 699–723. doi: 10.1080/10409289.2010.497453

Dunn, I. M. (1968). Special education for the mildly retarded—Is much of it justifiable? *Exceptional Children*, 35, 5–22. doi: 10.1177%2F001440296803500101

Edmiaston, R. K., & Fitzgerald, L. M. (2000). How Reggio Emilia encourages inclusion *Educational Leadership*, 58(1), 66–69. Retrieved from: http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/4027113/how-reggio-emilia-encourages-inclusion

Edyburn, D. L. (2005). Universal design for learning. *Special Education Technology Practice*, 7(5), 16–22.

Edyburn, D. L. (2010). Would you recognise Universal Design for Learning if you saw it? Ten propositions the new directions for the second decade of UDL. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 33, 33–41. doi: 10.1177/073194871003300103

Egilson, S. T., & Traustadottir, R. (2009). Assistance to pupils with physical disabilities in regular schools: promoting inclusion or creating dependency? *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 24(1), 21–36. doi: 10.1080/08856250802596766

Ellis, K. (2015). *Disability and popular culture: Focusing passion, creating community and expressing defiance*. Surrey, England: Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.

Emam, M. M., & Mohamed, A. H. H. (2011). Preschool and primary school teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Egypt: The role of experience and self-efficacy. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 976–985. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.331

Erevelles, N. (2011). 'Coming out Crip' in inclusive education. *Teachers College Record* 113(10): 2155–2185. Retrieved from: https://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentId=16429

Evans, J., (2004). "Making a difference" Education and ability in physical education. *European physical education review* 10(1) 95–108. doi: 10.1177/1356336X04042158

Essa, E. L., Bennett, P. R., Burnham, M. M., Martin, S. S., Bingham, A., & Allred, K. (2008). Do variables associated with quality child care programs predict the inclusion of children with disabilities? *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 28(3), 171–180. doi: 10.1177/0271121408324447

Farrell, P., Dyson, A., Polat, F., Hutcheson, G., & Gallannaugh, F. (2007). SEN inclusion and pupil achievement in English schools. *Journal of Research in Special Education Needs*, 7(3), 172–178. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-3802.2007.00094.x

Feldman, R., Carter, E. W., Asmus, J., & Brock, M. E. (2015). Presence, proximity, and peer interactions of adolescents with severe disabilities in general education classrooms. *Exceptional Children*, 82(2), 192–208. doi:10.1177/0014402915585481

Ferguson, D. L. (2008). International trends in inclusive education: the continuing challenge to teach each one and everyone, *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 23(2), 109–120. doi: 0.1080/08856250801946236

REFERENCES

Filmer, D. (2008). Disability, poverty, and schooling in developing countries: Results from 10 household surveys. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 22 (1), 141–163. doi: 10.1093/wber/lhm021

Finke, E. H., McNaughton, D. B., & Drager, K. D. R. (2009). "All children can and should have the opportunity to learn": General education teachers' perspectives on including children with autism spectrum disorder who require AAC. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication*, 25(2), 110–122. doi: 10.1080/07434610902886206

Fisher, K.W., & Shogren, K.A. (2011). Integrating augmentative and alternative communication and peer support for students with disabilities: A social-ecological perspective. *Journal of Special Education Technology*, 27(2), 23–39. Retrieved from: http://www.tamcec.org/jset/index/

Fisher, M., & Meyer, L. H. (2002). Development and social competence after two years for students enrolled in inclusive and self-contained educational programs. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 27(3), 165–174. doi: 10.2511/rpsd.27.3.165

Fitch, F. (2003). Inclusion, exclusion, and ideology: Special education students' changing sense of self. *Urban Review* 35(3), 233–52. doi: 10.1023/A:1025733719935

Fletcher, J. (2010). Spillover effects of inclusion of classmates with emotional problems on test scores in early elementary school. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 29(1), 69–83. doi: 10.1002/pam.20479

Flewitt, R., Nind, M., & Payler, J. (2009). 'If she's left with books she'll just eat them': Considering inclusive multimodal literacy practices. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 9(2) 211–233. doi: 10.1177/1468798409105587

Florian, L. (2010). The concept of inclusive pedagogy. In F. Hallett and G. Hallett (Eds.), *Transforming the role of the SENCO*, (pp. 61–72). Maidenhead: Oxford University Press.

Florian, L., & Linklater, H. (2010). Preparing teachers for inclusive education: using inclusive pedagogy to enhance teaching and learning for all. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 40(4), 369–386. doi: 10.1080/0305764X.2010.526588

Florian, L., Rouse, L., and Black-Hawkins, K. (2017). *Achievement and inclusion in schools*. London: Routledge.

Foucault, M. (1979). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison*. New York: Vintage.

Foreman, P., Arthur-Kelly, M., Pascoe, S., & King, B. (2004). Evaluating the educational experiences of students with profound and multiple disabilities in inclusive and segregated classroom settings: An Australian perspective. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 29(3), 183–193. doi: 10.2511/rpsd.29.3.183

Forlin, C., Cedillo, I. G., Romero-Contreras, S., Fletcher, T., & Hernández, H. J. R. (2010). Inclusion in Mexico: ensuring supportive attitudes by newly graduated teachers. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(7), 723–739. doi: 10.1080/13603111003778569

Forlin, C. & Chambers, D. (2011). Teacher preparation for inclusive education: increasing knowledge but raising concerns. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 17–32. doi: 10.1080/1359866X.2010.540850

Forlin, C. (2012). Responding to the need for inclusive teacher education: Rhetoric or reality? In C. Forlin (Ed.), *Future directions for inclusive teacher education* (3–12). New York: Routledge.

Forlin, C., Douglas, G., & Hattie, J. (1996). Inclusive practices: How accepting are teachers? *International Journal of Disability Development and Education* 43(2), 119–33. doi: 10.1080/0156655960430203

Forlin, C., Keen, M., & Barrett, E. (2008). The concerns of mainstream teachers: Coping with inclusivity in an Australian context. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 55(3), 251–264. doi: 10.1080/103491208022 683396

Fox, S., Farrell, P., & Davis, P. (2004). Factors associated with the effective inclusion of primary-aged pupils with Down's syndrome. *British Journal of Special Education*, 31(4), 184–190. doi: 10.1111/j.0952-3383.2004.00353.x

Frankel, E. B., Gold, S., & Ajodhia-Andrews, A. (2010). International preschool inclusion: Bridging the gap between vision and practices. *Young Exceptional Children*, 13(5), 2–16. doi: 10.1177/1096250610379983

Faamanatu-Eteuati, N. (2011). Se'i tatou 'aleaga: Samoan educators' insights into inclusive education development. *Pacific-Asian Education*, 23(2), 65–75. Retrieved from: http://web.a.ebscohost.com/

Gable, A. S. (2013). Disability theorising and real-world educational practice: a framework for understanding. *Disability & Society*, 1–15. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2013.776485

Giangreco, M. (2009). Opportunities for children and youth with intellectual developmental disabilities: Beyond genetics. *Life Span and Disability*, 12(2), 129–139. Retrieved from http://www.lifespan.it

Giangreco, M. F. (2010). One-to-one paraprofessionals for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms: Is conventional wisdom wrong? *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities* 48(1), 1–13. doi: 10.1352/1934-9556-48.1.1

Giangreco, M. F., & Broer, S. M. (2007). School-Based Screening to Determine Overreliance on Paraprofessionals. *Focus on Autism & Other Developmental Disabilities*, 22(3), 149–158. doi: 10.1177/10883576070220030201

Giangreco, M.F., & Doyle, M.B. (2007). Teacher assistants in inclusive schools. In L. Florian (Ed.) *The sage handbook of special education*, 429–39. London: Sage.

Giangreco, M. F., & Suter, J. C. (2015). Precarious or purposeful? Proactively building inclusive special education service delivery on solid ground. *Inclusion*, 3(3), 112–131. doi: 10.1352/2326-6988-3.3.112

Giangreco, M. F., Dennis, R., Cloninger, C., Edelman, S., & Schattman, R. (1993). "I've counted Jon": Transformational Experiences of Teachers Educating Students with Disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 59(4), 359–372. doi: 10.1177/001440299305900408

Goddard, Y., Goddard, R., & Kim, M. (2015). School instructional climate and student achievement: An examination of group norms for differentiated instruction. *American Journal of Education*, 122(1), 111–131. doi: 10.1086/683293

Goodley, D., Liddiard, K., & Runswick-Cole, K. (2018). Feeling disability: theories of affect and critical disability studies. *Disability & Society*, 33(2), 197–217. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2017.1402752

Goodley, D., & Runswick-Cole, K. (2011). Problematising policy: conceptions of 'child', 'disabled' and 'parents' in social policy in England. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(1), 71–85. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010.496197

Gordon, J. (2013). Is inclusive education a human right? *Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics*, Winter, 754–767. doi: 10.1111/jlme.12087

Gottfried, M. A. (2014). Classmates with disabilities and students' noncognitive outcomes. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 36(1), 20–43. doi: 10.3102/0162373713493130

Graham, L.J. (2012). Disproportionate over-representation of Indigenous students in New South Wales government special schools. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 41(4), 163–176. doi: 10.1080/0305764X.2012.676625

Graham, L. J. & Sweller, N. (2011). The inclusion lottery: who's in and who's out? Tracking inclusion and exclusion in New South Wales government schools. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(9), 941–953. doi: 10.1080/13603110903470046

Graham, L. J., & Spandagou, I. (2011). From vision to reality: views of primary school principals on inclusive education in New South Wales, Australia. *Disability and Society*, 26(2), 223–237. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2011.544062

Graham, L. J., Tancredi, H., Willis, J., & McGraw, K. (2018). Designing out barriers to student access and participation in secondary school assessment. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 45 (1), 103–124. doi: 10.1007/s13384-018-0266-y

Granite, E., & Graham, L. J. (2012). Remove, rehabilitate, return? The use and effectiveness of behaviour schools in New South Wales, Australia. *International Journal on School Disaffection*, 9(1), 39–50. Retrived from: https://www.ingentaconnect.com/contentone/ioep/ijsd/2012/00000009/00000001/art00004?crawler=true&mimetype=application/pdf

Gregoriadis, A., & Grammatikopoulos, V. (2014). Teacher-child relationship quality early childhood education: The importance of relationship patterns. *Early Child Development and Care*, 184(3), 386–402. doi: 10.1080/03004430.2013.790383

Grenier, M. (2010). Moving to inclusion: A socio-cultural analysis of practice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(4), 387–400. doi: 10.1080/13603110802504598

Guldberg, K., Parsons, S., MacLeod, A., Jones, G. Prunty, A., & Balfe, T. (2011). Implications for practice from 'International review of the evidence on best practice in educational provision for children on the autism spectrum'. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 26(1), 65–70. doi: 10.1080/08856257.2011.543534

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher–child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625–638. Retrieved from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1132418

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2005). Can instructional and emotional support in the first-grade classroom make a difference for children at risk of school failure? *Child Development*, 76(5), 949–967. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2005.00889.x

Hanline, M.F. & Correa-Torres, S.M. (2012). Experiences of preschoolers with severe disabilities in an inclusive early education setting: A qualitative study. *Education and Training in Autism and Developmental Disabilities*, 47(1), 109–121. Retrieved from: http://daddcec.org/Publications/ETADDJournal.aspx

Harpur, P. (2012). From disability to ability: changing the phrasing of the debate, *Disability & Society*, 27(3), 325–337. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2012.654985

Hart, S., Dixon, A., Drummond, M. J. & McIntyre, D. (2004) *Learning without Limits*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Hart, J. E., & Whalon, K. J. (2011). Creating social opportunities for students with autism spectrum disorder in inclusive settings. *Intervention in School & Clinic*, 46(5), 273–279. doi: 10.1177/1053451210395382

Hehir, T. (2002). Eliminating ableism in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 72(1), 1–32. doi: 10.17763/haer.72.1.03866528702g2105

Hehir, T., & Katzman, L. I. (2012). *Effective inclusive schools designing successful schoolwide programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from http://site.ebrary.com/id/10650970

Hehir, T., Grindal, T., Freeman, B., Lamoreau, R., Borquaye, Y., & Burke, S. (2016). *A summary of the evidence on inclusive education*. Retrieved from: https://alana.org.br/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/A_Summary_of_the_evidence_on_inclusive_education.pdf;

Hemmings, B., & Woodcock, S. (2011). Preservice teachers' views of inclusive education: A content analysis. *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 35(2), 103–116. doi: 10.1375/ajse.35.2.103

Hobson, L. (2010). *"How is Australia faring?": Social inclusion and people with disability*. Melbourne: Australian Federation of Disability Organisations

Hodge, N., & Runswick-Cole, K. (2013). 'They never pass me the ball': Exposing ableism through the leisure experiences of disabled children, young people and their families. *Children's Geographies*, 11(3), 311–325. doi: 10.1080/14733285.2013.812275

Hodkinson, A. (2012). Inclusive education and the cultural representation of disability and disabled people within the English education system: the influence of electronic media in the primary school. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 12(4), 252–262. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-3802.2011.01208.x

Hollingsworth, H. L., & Buysse, V. (2009). Establishing friendships in early childhood inclusive settings: What roles do parents and teachers play? *Journal of Early Intervention*, 31(4), 287–307. doi: 10.1177/1053815109352659

Hollingsworth, H. L., Boone, H. A., & Crais, E. R. (2009). Individualized inclusion plans work in early childhood classrooms *Young Exceptional Children*, 13(1), 19–35. doi: 10.1177/1096250609347259

Honkasilta, J., Vehkakoski, T., & Vehmas, S. (2015). Power struggle, submission and partnership: Agency constructions of mothers of children with ADHD diagnosis in their narrated school involvement. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 59(6), 674-690. doi: 10.1080/00313831.2014.965794

Horrocks, J. L., White, G., & Roberts, L. (2008). Principals' attitudes regarding inclusion of children with autism in Pennsylvania public schools. *Journal of Autism Developmental Disorder* 38(8), 1462–1473. doi: 10.1007/s10803-007-0522-x

Hosp, J. L., & Reschly, D. J. (2004). Disproportionate representation of minority students in special education: academic, demographic, and economic predictors. *Exceptional Children*, 70(2), 185–199. doi: 10.1177/001440290407000204

Hsieh, W.-Y., Hsieh, C.-M., Ostrosky, M., & McCollum, J. (2012). Taiwanese first-grade teachers' perceptions of inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(1), 71–88. doi: 10.1080/13603111003592283

Huang, H.-H., & Diamond, K. E. (2009). Early childhood teachers' ideas about including children with disabilities in programmes designed for typically developing children. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 56(2), 169–182. doi: 10.1080/10349120902868632

Hughes, M. T., & Valle-Riestra, D. M. (2008). Responsibilities, preparedness, and job satisfaction of paraprofessionals: working with young children with disabilities. *International Journal of Early Years Education*, 16(2), 163–173. doi:10.1080/09669760701516892

Humphrey, N. (2008). Including pupils with autistic spectrum disorders in mainstream schools. *Support for Learning*, 23 (1), 41–47. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9604.2007.00367.x

Humphrey, N., & Hebron, J. (2015) Bullying of children and adolescents with autism spectrum conditions: A 'state of the field' review. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 19(8), 845–862, doi: 10.1080/13603116.2014.981602

Hunt, P., McDonnell, J., & Crockett, M. A. (2012). Reconciling an ecological curricular framework focusing on quality of life outcomes with the development and instruction of standards-based academic goals. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 37(3), 139–152. doi: 10.2511/027494812804153471

Hurley, J. J., & Horn, E. M. (2010). Family and professional priorities for inclusive early childhood settings. J*ournal of Early Intervention*, 32(5). 335–350. doi: 10.1177/1053815110385650

Iacono, T., & Cologon, K. (2014). Inclusion of children through augmentative and alternative communication supports. In K. Cologon (Ed). *Inclusive education in the early years: Right from the start* (pp. 461–481). South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Iacono, T., Chan, J., & Waring, R. (1998). Efficacy of a parent-implemented early language intervention based on collaborative consultation. *International Journal of Language and Communication Disorders*, 33, 281–304. doi: 10.1080/136828298247758

Iacono, T., Keeffe, M., Kenny, A., & McKinstry, C. (2019). A document review of exclusionary practices in the context of Australian school education policy. *Journal of Policy and Practice in Intellectual Disabilities*, Early View, 1–9. doi: 10.1111/jppi.12290

Jackson, R. (2008). Inclusion or segregation for children with an intellectual impairment: What does the research say? Queensland Parents for People with a Disability. Retrieved from: https://disability-studies.leeds.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/40/library/Jackson-Inclusion-Seg1.pdf;

Jelas, Z. M., & Ali, M. M. (2014). Inclusive education in Malaysia: Policy and practice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(10), 991–1003. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.693398

Johnston, S., McDonnell, A., Nelson, C., & Magnavito, A. (2003). Teaching functional communication skills using augmentative and alternative communication in inclusive settings. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 25(4), 263–280. doi: 10.1177/105381510302500403

Johnstone, C. J., & Chapman, D. W. (2009). Contributions and constraints to the implementation of inclusive education in Lesotho. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 56(2), 131–148. doi:10.1080/10349120902868582

Johnston, O., & Wildy, H. (2016). The effects of streaming in the secondary school on learning outcomes for Australian students – A review of the international literature. *Australian Journal of Education*, 60(1), 42–59. doi: 10.1177/0004944115626522

Jonsson, U. (2007). Millennium development goals and other good intentions. In P. Pinstrup-Andersen and P. Sandøe (Eds.), *Ethics, hunger and globalization: In search of appropriate policies* (111–129). Springer.

Jordan, A., & Stanovich, P. (2001). Patterns of teacher-student interaction in inclusive elementary classrooms and correlates with student self-concept. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 48(1), 33–52. doi: 10.1080/10349120120036297

Jordan, A., Glenn, C., & McGhie-Richmond, D. (2010). The Supporting Effective Teaching (SET) project: The relationship of inclusive teaching practices to teachers' beliefs about disability and ability, and about their roles as teachers. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 26(2), 259–266. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2009.03.005

Jordan, A., Schwartz, E., & McGhie-Richmond, D. (2009). Preparing teachers for inclusive classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(4), 535–542. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.02.101

Justice, L. M., Logan, J. A. R., Lin, T. & Kaderavek, J. N. (2014). Peer effects in early childhood education: Testing the assumptions of special-education inclusion. *Association for Psychological Science*, 25(9), 1722–1729. doi: 10.1177/0956797614538978

Kalambouka, A., Farrell, P., Dyson, A., & Kaplan, I. (2007). The impact of placing pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools on the achievement of their peers. *Educational Research*, 49(4), 365–382. doi: 10.1080/00131880701717222

Kalyanpur, M. (2011). Paradigm and paradox: Education for All and the inclusion of children with disabilities in Cambodia. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(10), 1053–1071. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2011.555069

Kasa-Hendrickson, C., & Kluth, P. (2005). "We have to start with inclusion and work it out as we go": Purposeful inclusion for non-verbal students with Autism. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 2(1), 2–14. Retrieved from: http://www.wholeschooling.net/Journal_of_Whole_Schooling/articles.html

Katz, J. (2013). The three block model of Universal Design for Learning (UDL): Engaging students in inclusive education. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 36(1), 153–194. Retrieved from: https://www-jstor-org.simsrad.net.ocs. mq.edu.au/stable/canajeducrevucan.36.1.153

Kent-Walsh, J., Murza, K. A., Malani, M. D., & Binger, C. (2015). Effects of communication partner instruction on the communication of individuals using AAC: A meta-analysis. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication* 31(4), 271–284. doi: 10.3109/07434618.2015.1052153

Kilkey, M. & Clarke, H. (2010): Disabled men and fathering: opportunities and constraints, *Community, Work & Family*, 13(2), 127–146. doi: 10.1080/13668800902923738

Kim, Y. W. (2013). Inclusive education in Korea: Policy, practice, and challenges. *Journal of Policy and Practice in Intellectual Disabilities*, 10(2), 79–81. doi: 10.1111/jppi.12034

Kleinert, H., Towles-Reeves, E., Quenemoen, R., Thurlow, M., Fluegge, L., Weseman, L., & Kerbel, A. (2015). Where students with the most significant cognitive disabilities are taught: Implications for general curriculum access. *Exceptional Children*, 81(3), 312–328. doi: 10.1177/0014402914563697

Klibthong, S. (2013). Exploring Thai early childhood teachers' understanding, beliefs and concerns of inclusive education: A case study of an early childhood centre. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies, Trends & Practices*, 3(1), 16–32. Retrieved from: http://www.mierjs.in/ojs/index. php/mjestp/article/view/43

Kliewer, C. (1998). The meaning of inclusion. *Mental Retardation*, 36(4), 317–322. doi:10.1352/0047-6765(1998)036<0317:TMOI>2.0.CO;2

Kliewer, C. (2008). Joining the literacy flow: Fostering symbol and written language learning in young children with significant developmental disabilities through the four currents of literacy. *Research & Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 33(3), 103–121. doi: 10.2511/rpsd.33.3.103

Komesaroff, L. (2007). Denying claims of discrimination in the Federal Court of Australia: Arguments against the use of native sign language in education. *Sign Language Studies* 7(4), 360–386. doi: 10.1353/sls.2007.0024

Komesaroff, L., & McLean, M. (2006). Being there is not enough: Inclusion is both deaf and hearing. *Deafness and Education International*, 8(2), 88–100. doi: 10.1002/dei.192

Koutrouba, K., Vamvakari, M. & Steliou, M. (2006). Factors correlated with teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs in Cyprus. *European Journal of Special Needs Education* 21(4), 381–94. doi: 10.1080/08856250600956162

Kraska, J., & Boyle, C. (2014). Attitudes of preschool and primary school pre-service teachers towards inclusive education. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(3), 228–246. doi: 10.1080/1359866X.2014.926307

Kurth, J. A., Morningstar, M., & Kozleski, E. (2014). The persistence of highly restrictive special education placements for students with low-incidence disabilities. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 39(3), 227–239. doi:10.1177/1540796914555580

Kurth, J., & Mastergeorge, A. M. (2012). Impact of setting and instructional context for adolescents with autism. *The Journal of Special Education*, 46(1), 36-48. doi: 10.1177/0022466910366480

Lalvani, P. (2013). Privilege, compromise, or social justice: Teachers' conceptualizations of inclusive education. *Disability & Society*, 28(1), 14–27. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2012.692028

Lalvani, P. (2015). "We are not aliens": Exploring the meaning of disability and the nature of belongingness in a fourth-grade classroom. *Disability Studies Quarterly*, 35(4). Retrieved from: http://dsq-sds.org/article/view/4963

Lalvani, P., & Bacon, J. K. (2019). Rethinking "we are all special": Anti-ableism curricula in early childhood classrooms. *Young Exceptional Children*, 22(2), 87–100. doi: 1096250618810706

Lane, K. L., Carter, E. W., & Sisco, L. (2012). Paraprofessional involvement in self determination instruction for students with high-incidence disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 78(2), 237–251. doi: 10.1177/001440291107800206

Leiter, V. (2007). "Nobody's just normal, you know": The social creation of developmental disability. *Social Science & Medicine* 65, 1630–1641. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.06.006

Light, J., & McNaughton, D. (2015). Designing AAC research and intervention to improve outcomes for individuals with complex communication needs. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication*, 31(2), 85-96, doi: 10.3109/07434618.2015.1036458

Lilley, R. (2013). It's an absolute nightmare: maternal experiences of enrolling children diagnosed with autism in primary school in Sydney, Australia. *Disability & Society*, 28(4), 514–526. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2012.717882

Lilley, R. (2015). Trading places: Autism inclusion disorder and school change *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 19(4), 379–396. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2014.935813

Little, C. A., McCoach, D. B., & Reis, S. M. (2014). Effects of differentiated reading instruction on student achievement in middle school. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 25(4), 384–402. doi: 10.1177/1932202X14549250

Loja, E., Costa, M. E., Hughes B., & Menezes, I. (2013). Disability, embodiment and ableism: stories of resistance. *Disability & Society*, 28(2), 190–203. doi: 10.1080/09687599. 2012.705057

Lorde, A. (1994) *Our Dead Behind Us*. New York: Norton Publishers.

Loreman, T. (2014). Measuring inclusive education outcomes in Alberta, Canada. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(5), 459-483, doi: 10.1080/13603116.2013.788223

Macartney, B. & Morton, M. (2011). Kinds of participation: Teacher and special education perceptions and practices of 'inclusion' in early childhood and primary school settings. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1–17. doi: 10.1080/ 13603116.2011.602529

Macartney, B. (2012). Teaching through an ethics of belonging, care and obligation as a critical approach to transforming education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(2), 171–183. doi: 10.1080/13603111003686218

Mackenzie, M., Cologon, K., & Fenech, M. (2016). "Embracing everybody:" approaching the inclusive early childhood education of a child labelled with autism from a social relational understating of disability. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood*, 41(2), 4–12. doi: 10.1177%2F183693911604100202

Macqueen, S. E. (2013). Grouping for inequity. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(3), 295–309

Mann, G. (2016). From here to there and back again: the story of a mother, her son, disability, and school choice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20(9), 909–920, doi: 10.1080/13603116.2015.1122842

Mann, G., Cuskelly, M., & Moni, K. (2018). An investigation of parents' decisions to transfer children from regular to special schools. *Journal of Policy and Practice in Intellectual Disabilities*, 15(3), 183–192. doi: 10.1111/jppi.12238

Margrain, V., & Farruga, A. (2018). Different means me: I just learn differently. In J. Berman & J. MacArthur (Eds.), *Student Perspectives on School*, 93–110. Brill.

Martin, T., & Alborz, A. (2014). Supporting the education of pupils with profound intellectual and multiple disabilities: the views of teaching assistants regarding their own learning and development needs. *British Journal of Special Education*, 41(3), 309–327. doi:10.1111/1467-8578.12070

Martinez-Bello, V. E., & Martinez-Bello, J. T. (2016). Bodies displayed on walls: are children's bodies represented in an inclusive way in the pictures on the walls in their early childhood educational environments? *Early Years*, 37(2). doi: 10.1080/09575146.2016.1165186

Mashburn, A. J., Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B. K., Downer, J. T., Barbarin, O. A., Bryant, D., Burchinal, M., Early, D. M. & Howes, C. (2008). Measures of classroom quality in prekindergarten and children's development of academic, language, and social skills. *Child Development*, 79(3), 732-749. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624. 2008.01154.x

Mayer, D. (2009). Disability and inclusion: Changing attitudes – changing policy. *Our Schools/Our Selves* (Spring 2009), 159–168. Retrieved from: https://www.policyalternatives.ca/ sites/default/files/uploads/publications/National%20 Office/2009/04/Disability%20and%20Inclusion.pdf

McCullough, R. (2009). Emerging issues in inclusive education. In P. Puamau & F. Pene (Eds.) *Inclusive education in the Pacific*. Institute of Education, University of the South Pacific: Suva, Fiji.

McCray, E. D., & McHatton, P. A. (2011). "Less afraid to have them in my classroom": Understanding pre-service general educators' perceptions about inclusion. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 38(4), 135–155. Retrieved from: http://files.eric.ed. gov/fulltext/EJ960622.pdf

McDonald, L., & Tufue-Dolgoy, R. (2013). Moving forwards, sideways or backwards? Inclusive education in Samoa. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 60(3), 270–284. doi:10.1080/1034912X.2013.812187

McGregor, G. & Vogelsberg, R.T. (1998). Inclusive schooling practices: Pedagogical and research foundations. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

McLean, M. A. (2008). Teaching about disability: An ethical responsibility? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 12(5), 605–619. doi: 10.1080/13603110802377649

McLeskey, J., & Waldron, N.L. (2007). Making differences ordinary in inclusive classrooms. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 42(3), 162–168. doi: 10.1177/1053451207042 0030501

McMahon, S. E. (2012). Doctors diagnose, teachers label: the unexpected in pre-service teachers' talk about labelling children with ADHD. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(3), 249-264. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010.481799

McMahon, S. & Harwood, V. (2016). Confusions and conundrums during final practicum: A study of preservice teachers' knowledge of challenging behaviour. In E. B. Petersen & Z. Millei (Eds.), *Interrupting the Psy-Disciplines in Education* (145–166). London, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.

McTighe, J., & Brown, J. L. (2005) Differentiated instruction and educational standards: Is detente possible? *Theory Into Practice*, 44(3), 234–244. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4403_8

Mergler, A., Carrington, S., Kimber, M., & Bland, D. (2016). Inclusive Values: Exploring the Perspectives of Pre-Service Teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(4), 20–38. doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n4.2

Mevawalla, Z. (In press). *Young thinkers without borders: Critical consciousness, social justice and resistance – the experiences of young children living on the street in Mumbai, India*. New York: Peter Lang.

Miles, S., & Singal, N. (2010). The Education for All and inclusive education debate: conflict, contradiction or opportunity? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*., 14(1), 1–15. doi:10.1080/13603110802265125

Miles, S., Lene, D., & Merumeru, L. (2014). Making sense of inclusive education in the Pacific region: Networking as a way forward. *Childhood*, 21(3), 339–353. doi: 10.1177/0907568214524458

Miller, F. (2009). Inclusive education: A Pacific perspective. In P. Puamau & F. Pene (Eds.) *Inclusive education in the Pacific*. Institute of Education, University of the South Pacific: Suva, Fiji

Mogharreban, C., & Bruns, D. (2009). Moving to inclusive pre-kindergarten classrooms: Lessons from the field. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 36(5), 407–414. doi: 10.1007/s10643-008-0301-0

Morningstar, M. E., Allcock, H. C., White, J. M., Taub, D., Kurth, J. A., Gonsier-Gerdin, J., Ryndak, D. L., Sauer, J., & Jorgensen, C. M. (2016). Inclusive education national research advocacy agenda: A call to action. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 41(3) 209–215. doi: 10.1177/1540796916650975

Morningstar, M. E., Shogren, K. A., Lee, H., & Born, D. (2015). Preliminary lessons about supporting participation and learning in inclusive classrooms. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 40(3), 192–210. doi: 10.1177/1540796915594158

Morris, C., & Sharma, U. (2011). Facilitating the inclusion of children with vision impairment: Perspectives of itinerant support teachers *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 35(2), 191–203. doi: 10.1375/ajse.35.2.191

Mortier, K., Hunt, P., Leroy, M., van de Putte, I., & van Hove, G. (2010). Communities of practice in inclusive education. *Educational Studies* 36(3), 345–355. doi: 10.1080/03055690903424816

Myklebust, J.O. (2006). Class placement and competence attainment among students with special needs. *British Journal of Special Education* 33(2), 76–81. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8578.2006.00418.x

Naraian, S. (2011). Seeking transparency: the production of an inclusive classroom community. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(9), 955–973. doi:10.1080/13603110903477397

Neely-Barnes, S. L., Graff, J. C., Roberts, R. J., Hall, H. R., & Hankins, J. S. (2010). "It's our job": Qualitative study of family responses to ableism. *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities*, 48(4), 245–258. doi: 10.1352/1934-9556-48.4.245

Niemeyer, J.A., & Proctor, R. (2002). The influence of experience on student teachers' beliefs about inclusion. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education* 23(1), 49–57. doi: 10.1080/1090102020230109

Nikolaraizi, M., Kumar, P., Favazza, P., Sideridis, G., Koulousiou, D., & Raill, A. (2005). A cross-cultural examination of typically developing children's attitudes toward individuals with special needs. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 52(2), 101–119. doi: 10.1080/10349120500086348

NSW Government (2018) *Response to the report of the Legislative Council Portfolio Committee No.3 – Education – Education of students with a disability or special needs in New South Wales*. Retrieved from: https://www.parliament.nsw.gov.au/lcdocs/inquiries/2416/Government%20response%20-%20education%20of%20students%20with%20a%20disability%20or%20special%20needs%20in%20New%20South%20Wales.pdf

Nutbrown, C., & Clough, P. (2009). Citizenship and inclusion in the early years: understanding and responding to children's perspectives on 'belonging'. *International Journal of Early Years Education*, 17(3), 191–206. doi: 10.1080/09669760903424523

O'Connor, E., & McCartney, K. (2007). Examining teacher-child relationships and achievement as part of an ecological model of development. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(2), 340–369. doi:10.3102/0002831207302172

Odom, S. L., & Diamond, K. E. (1998). Inclusion of young children with special needs in early childhood education: The research base. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 13(1), 3–25. doi: 10.1016/S0885-2006(99)80023-4

Odom, S. L., Buysse, V., & Soukakou, E. (2011). Inclusion for young children with disabilities: A quarter century of research perspectives. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 33(4), 344–356. doi: 10.1177/1053815111430094

Ojok, P., & Wormnæs, S. (2013). Inclusion of pupils with intellectual disabilities: primary school teachers' attitudes and willingness in a rural area in Uganda. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(9), 1003–1021. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.728251

Oliver, M., & Barnes, C. (2010). Disability studies, disabled people and the struggle for inclusion. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 31(5), 547–560. doi: 10.1080/01425692.2010.500088

Opertti, R., Walker, Z., & Zhang, Y. (2014). Inclusive education: From targeting groups and schools to achieving quality education as the core of EFA. In L. Florian (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of special education* (2nd ed., Vol. 1, 149–169). London, England: SAGE

Ostrosky, M. M., Laumann, B. M., & Hsieh, W. Y. (2006). Early childhood teachers' beliefs and attitudes about inclusion: What does the research tell us? In B. Spodek & O. N. Saracho (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on the Education of Young Children* (2nd ed., 411–422). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Palmer, D. S., Fuller, K., Arora, T., & Nelson, M. (2001). Taking sides: Parent views on inclusion for their children with severe disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 67(4), 467–484. doi: 10.1177/001440290106700403

Patterson, K. B. (2006). Roles and responsibilities of paraprofessionals: In their own words. *Teaching Exceptional Children Plus*, 2(5), n.p. Retrieved from: http://escholarship.bc.edu/education/tecplus/vol2/iss5/art1

Paugh, P., & Dudley-Marling, C. (2011). 'Speaking' deficit into (or out of) existence: How language constrains classroom teachers' knowledge about instructing diverse learners. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(8), 819–833. doi:10.1080/13603110903437144, p. 831.

Peetsma, T., Vergeer, M., Karsten, S., & Roeleveld, J. (2001). Inclusion in education: Comparing pupils' development in special and regular education. *Educational Review* 53(2), 125–35. doi: 10.1080/00131910125044

Petriwskyj, A. (2010). Diversity and inclusion in the early years. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(2), 195–212. doi: 10.1080/13603110802504515

Petriwskyj, A. (2010). Who has rights to what? Inclusion in Australian early childhood programs. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*, 11(4), 342–352. doi: 10.2304/ciec.2010.11.4.342

Pianta, R. C. (1999). Enhancing relationships between children and teachers. Washington, DC, US: *American Psychological Association*. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/10314-000

Pianta, R. C., & Stuhlman, M. W. (2004). Teacher-child relationships and children's success in the first years of school. *School Psychology Review*, 33, 444–458. Retrieved from: http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/14694590/teacher-child-relationships-childrens-success-first-years-school

Pirrie, A., Macleod, G., Cullen, M. A. & McCluskey, G. (2011) What happens to pupils permanently excluded from special schools and pupil referral units in England? *British Educational Research Journal*, 37(3), 519–38. 10.1080/01411926.2010.481724

Poed, S., Cologon, K, & Jackson, R. (2017). Gatekeeping and restrictive practices with students with disability: results of an Australian survey. Paper delivered at the *Inclusive Education Summit*. Adelaide, October. Retrieved from: http://allmeansall.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/TIES-4.0-20172.pdf

Price, P. (2009). Guidelines to include children with disabilities in school systems. In P. Puamau & F. Pene (Eds.) *Inclusive education in the Pacific* (70–104). Institute of Education, University of the South Pacific: Suva, Fiji.

Price, D. (2015). Pedagogy through inclusion of students with disability in a national curriculum: essential human capabilities approach. *Journal of Educational Inquiry*, 14(2), 18–32. Retrieved from: https://ojs.unisa.edu.au/index.php/EDEQ/article/view/936/784

Purdue, K., Ballard, K., & MacArthur, J. (2001). Exclusion and Inclusion in New Zealand Early Childhood Education: Disability, discourses and contexts. *International Journal of Early Years Education,* 9(1), 37–49. doi: 10.1080/0966976012004417 8

Purdue, K., Gordon-Burns, D., Gunn, A., Madden, B., & Surtees, N. (2009). Supporting inclusion in early childhood settings: some possibilities and problems for teacher education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 13(8), 805–815. doi: 10.1080/13603110802110743

Qi, J., & Ha, A. S. (2012): Inclusion in Physical Education: A review of literature, *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 59(3), 257–281. doi: 10.1080/1034912X.2012.697737

Queensland Government. (2016). *The village roadshow theme parks showcase award for excellence in inclusive education.* Retrieved from: https://showcase.education.qld.gov.au/the-awards/2016awards

Queensland Government. (2018). *The QUT showcase award for excellence in inclusive education*. Retrieved from: https://showcase.education.qld.gov.au/the-awards/2018awards

Queensland Government. (2019). Budget Estimates Committee hearing on 1 August 2019. Retrieved from: https://www.parliament.qld.gov.au/documents/hansard/2019/2019_08_01_estimatesEEC.pdf

Queensland Parents for People with a Disability. (2003). *There's small choice in rotten apples: An exploration of the process of parental decision-making around educational choice for parents of children with disabilities*. Paddington, QLD: Queensland Parents for People with a Disability

Recchia, S. L., & Puig, V. I. (2011). Challenges and inspirations: Student teachers' experiences in early childhood special education classrooms. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 34(2), 133–151. doi: 10.1177/0888406410387444

Reeve, D. (2004). Psycho-emotional dimensions of disability and the social model. In C. Barnes and G. Mercer (Eds.) *Implementing the social model of disability: Theory and research* (83–100). Leeds: The Disability Press.

Reis, S. M, Eckert, R. D., McCoach, D. B., Jacobs, J. K., & Coyne, M. (2008). Using enrichment reading practices to increase reading fluency, comprehension, and attitudes. *The Journal of Educational Research* 101(5), 299–314. doi: 10.3200/JOER.101.5.299-315

Reis, S. M., McCoach, D. B., Coyne, M., Schreiber, F. J., Eckert, R. D., Gubbins, E. J. (2007). Using planned enrichment strategies with direct instruction to improve reading fluency, comprehension, and attitude toward reading: An evidence-based study. *The Elementary School Journal*, 108(1), 3–23. doi: 10.1086/522383

Reis, S. M., McCoach, D. B., Little, C. A., Muller, L. M., & Kaniskan, R. B. (2011). The effects of differentiated instruction and enrichment pedagogy on reading achievement in five elementary schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 48(2), 462–501. doi: 10.3102/0002831210382891

Reupert, A., Deppeler, J. M., & Sharma, U. (2015) Enablers for inclusion: The perspectives of parents of children with autism spectrum disorder. *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 39(1), 895–96. doi:10.1017/jse.2014.1

Rietveld, C. (2010). Early childhood inclusion: The hidden curriculum of peer relationships. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 45(1), 17–32. Retrieved from: http://hdl.handle.net/10092/5223

Rietveld, C. (2014). Challenging early childhood sociocultural contexts: The inclusion of children with Down syndrome. *Early Education*, 56, 18–21. Retrieved from http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=805084605293251;res=IELHSS

Robinson, S., Hickson, F., & Strike, R. (2001). Interactions with school personnel. In *More than getting through the gate: The involvement of parents who have a disability in their children's school education in NSW* (pp. 24–37). Sydney: Disability Council of NSW.

Rose, C.A., Monda-Amaya, L.E., & Espelage, D.L. (2011). Bullying perpetration and victimization in special education: A review of the literature. *Remedial and Special Education,* 32(2), 114–130. doi: 10.1177/0741932510361247

Rossetti, Z. (2014). Peer interactions and friendship opportunities between elementary students with and without Autism or developmental disability. *Inclusion*, 2, 301–315. doi: 10.1352/2326-6988-2.4.301

Rouse, M., & Florian, L. (2006). Inclusion and achievement: Student achievement in secondary schools with higher and lower proportions of pupils designated as having special educational needs. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 10, 481–493. doi: 10.1080/13603110600683206

Runswick-Cole, K. (2008). Between a rock and a hard place: parents' attitudes to the inclusion of children with special educational needs in mainstream and special schools. *British Journal of Special Education*, 35(3), 173–180. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8578.2008.00390.x

Runswick-Cole, K. & Goodley, D. (2015). Disability, austerity and cruel optimism in big society: Resistance and "The Disability Commons". *Canadian Journal of Disability Studies* 4(2), 162–86. Retrieved from: http://cjds.uwaterloo.ca/

Ruppar, A. L., Allcock, H., & Gonsier-Gerdin, J. (2017). Ecological factors affecting access to general education content and contexts for students with significant disabilities. *Remedial and Special Education*, 38(1) 53–63. doi: 10.1177/07419325 16646856

Rutherford, G. (2012). In, out or somewhere in between? Disabled students' and teacher aides' experiences of school. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(8), 757–774. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2010.509818

Rutherford, G. (2016). Questioning special needs-ism: Supporting student teachers in troubling and transforming understandings of human worth. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 56 (2016) 127–137. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2016.02.009

Saddler, H. (2014). Researching the influence of teaching assistants on the learning of pupils identified with special educational needs in mainstream primary schools: exploring social inclusion. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 14(3), 145–152. doi:10.1111/1471-3802.12019

Salvador, A. (2017). *More than just toys: Toys that represent impairment, their online accessibility and diversity in Australia, and early childhood educators' perspectives towards them* (Master's Thesis). Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.

Sapon-Shevin, M. (2003) Inclusion: A matter of social justice— How can we create schools that will help students thrive in a diverse society? *Education Leadership* 61(2), 25–28. Retrieved from: http://www.ascd.org, p. 26

Schifter, L. A. (2015). Using survival analysis to understand graduation of students with disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 82(4) 479–496. doi: 10.1177/0014402915619418

Schwab, S. (2015). Social dimensions of inclusion in education of 4th and 7th grade pupils in inclusive and regular classes: Outcomes from Austria. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 43–44, 72–79. doi: 10.1016/j.ridd.2015.06.005

Scruggs, T.E., & Mastropieri, M.A. (1996). Teacher perceptions of mainstreaming/inclusion 1958–1995: A research synthesis. *Exceptional Children* 63(1), 59–74. doi: 10.1177%2F00 1440299606300106

Selvaraj, J. (2015). Inclusive education in New Zealand: policies, politics and contradictions. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 19(1), 86–101. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2014.907584

Sharma, U., & Ng, O. (2014). What has worked for bringing out-of-school children with disabilities into regular schools? A literature review. *Asia Pacific Disability Rehabilitation Journal*, 25(2), 54–75. doi: 10.5463/DCID.v25i2.355

Sharma, U., Forlin, C. & Loreman, T. (2008). Impact of training on pre-service teachers' attitudes and concerns about inclusive education and sentiments about persons with disabilities. *Disability & Society*, 23(7), 773–785. doi: 10.1080/096875 90802469271

Sharma, U., Forlin, C., Deppeler, J., & Guang-Xue, Y. (2013). Reforming teacher education for inclusion in developing countries in the Asia-Pacific region. *Asian Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1(1), 3–16. Retrieved from: http://www.ajie-bd.net/archive.htm

Sharma, U., Loreman, T. & Forlin, C. (2012). Measuring teacher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 12(1), 12–21. doi: 10.1111/j.14713802.2011.01200.x

Sharma, U., Moore, D., & Sonawane, S. (2009). Attitudes and concerns of pre-service teachers regarding inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools in Pune, India. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(3), 319–331. doi: 10.1080/13598660903050328

Shaw, A. (2017). Inclusion: the role of special and mainstream schools. *British Journal of Special Education*, 44(3), 292–312. doi: 10.1111/1467-8578.12181

Shippen, M. E., Crites, S. A. Houchins, D. E. Ramsey, M. L. & Simon, M. (2005). Preservice teachers' perceptions of including students with disabilities. *Teacher Education and Special Education* 28(2), 92–99. doi: 10.1177/088840640502800202

Slee, R. (2001). Social justice and the changing directions in educational research: the case of inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 5(2), 167–177. doi:10.1080/13603110010035832

Slee, R. (2004). Meaning and the service of power. In L. Ware (Ed.), *Ideology and the politics of (in)exclusion* (pp. 46–60). New York: Peter Lang.

Slee, R. (2011). *The irregular school: Exclusion, schooling and inclusive education*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

Slee, R. (2018b). *Defining the scope of inclusive education*. Global Education Monitoring Report. UNESCO. Retrieved from: http://repositorio.minedu.gob.pe/handle/MINEDU/5977

Slee, R. (2018a). *Inclusive education isn't dead, it just smells funny*. London: Routledge.

Smith, W. (2018). Quality and inclusion in the SDGs: tension in principle and practice. In B. Hamre, A. Morin and C. Ydesen (Eds.). *Testing and Inclusive Schooling. International challenges and opportunities*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Spencer-Cavaliere, N. & Watkinson, E. J. (2010). Inclusion understood from the perspectives of children with disabilities. *Adaptive Physical Activity Quarterly*, 27, 275–293. doi: 10.1123/apaq.27.4.275

Spilt, J. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., & Mantzicopoulos, P. Y. (2010). Young children's perceptions of teacher-child relationships: An evaluation of two instruments and the role of child gender in kindergarten. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 31(6), 428–438. doi: 10.1016/j.appdev.2010.07.006

Srinivasan, P. (2017) What we see is what we choose: seers and seekers with diversity. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 25(2), 293–307. doi: 10.1080/14681366.2016.1255243

Stahmer, A. C., Carter, C., Baker, M., & Miwa, K. (2003). Parent perspectives on their toddlers' development: Comparison of regular and inclusion childcare. *Early Child Development and Care*, 173(5), 477–488. doi: 10.1080/0300443032000088267

Stahmer, A. C., & Ingersoll, B. (2004). Inclusive programming for toddlers with autism spectrum disorders: Outcomes from the children's toddler school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 6(2), 67–82. doi: 10.1177/10983007040060020201

Stahmer, A. C., Akshoomoff, N., & Cunningham, A. B. (2011). Inclusion for toddlers with autism spectrum disorders. *The International Journal of Research & Practice*, 15(5), 625–641. doi: 10.1177/1362361310392253

Stanovich, P., & Jordan, A. (1998). Canadian teachers' and principals' beliefs about inclusive education as predictors of effective teaching in heterogeneous classrooms. *Elementary School Journal* 98(3), 221–38. doi: 10.1086/461892

Stockall, N. S. (2014). When an aide really becomes an aid: Providing professional development for special education paraprofessionals. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 46(6), 197–205. doi:10.1177/0040059914537202

Strogilos, V. (2012). The cultural understanding of inclusion and its development within a centralised system. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(12), 1241–1258. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2011.557447

Subban, P., & Sharma, U. (2005). Understanding educator attitudes toward the implementation of inclusive education. *Disability Studies Quarterly*, 25(2). Retrieved from: http://dsq-sds.org/article/view/545/722

Suculoğlu, B., Bakkaloğlu, H., Karasu, F., Demir, Ş. & Akalın, S. (2013). Inclusive preschool teachers: Their attitudes and knowledge about inclusion. *International Journal of Early Childhood Special Education*, 5(2), 107–128. http://www.int-jecse.net/article/view/5000016557/5000016363

Sukbunpant, S., Arthur-Kelly, M., & Dempsey, I. (2013). Thai preschool teachers' views about inclusive education for young children with disabilities. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(10), 1106–1118. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.741146

Sullivan, A. M., Johnson, B., Owens, L., & Conway, R. (2014). Punish them or engage them? Teachers' views of unproductive student behaviours in the classroom. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(6). doi: 10.14221/ajte.2014v39n6.6

Suter, J. C., & Giangreco, M. F. (2009). Numbers that count: Exploring special education and paraprofessional service delivery in inclusion-oriented schools. *Journal of Special Education*, 43(2), 81–93. doi: 10.1177/0022466907313353

SWIFT Center. (2017). Research Support for Inclusive Education and SWIFT. Lawrence, KS: Author. Retrieved from: http://www.swiftschools.org/sites/default/files/Research%20Support%20for%20SWIFT%202017.pdf

Symeonidou, S., & Loizou, E. (2018) Disability studies as a framework to design disability awareness programs: No need for 'magic' to facilitate children's understanding. *Disability & Society*, 33(8), 1234–1258. doi:10.1080/09687599.2018.1488677

Sze, S. (2009). A literature review: Pre-service teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities. *Education* 130(1), 53–6. Retrieved from: https://link.galegroup.com/apps/doc/A207643760/AONE?u=macquarie&sid=AONE&xid=1b54268b

Szumski, G., Smogorzewska, J., & Karwowski, M. (2017). Academic achievement of students without special educational needs in inclusive classrooms: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review* 21, 33–54. doi: 10.1016/j.edurev.2017.02.004

Tait, K., & Purdie, N. (2000). Attitudes toward disability: Teacher education for inclusive environments in an Australian university. *International Journal of Disability Development and Education* 47(1), 25–38. doi: 10.1080/103491200116110

Tanti Burlo, E. (2010). Inclusive education: A qualitative leap. *Life Span and Disability*, 13(2), 203–221. Retrieved from http://www.lifespan.it

.

Thaver, T. & Lim, L. (2014). Attitudes of pre-service mainstream teachers in Singapore towards people with disabilities and inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 18(10), 1038–1052. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.693399

Theodorou, F., & Nind, M. (2010). Inclusion in play: A case study of a child with autism in an inclusive nursery. J*ournal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 10(2), 99–106. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-3802.2010.01152.x

Thijs, J., Koomen, H., Roorda, D., & Hagen, J. (2011). Explaining teacher-student interactions in early childhood: An interpersonal theoretical approach. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 32(1), 34–43. doi: 10.1016/j. appdev.2010.10.002

Thomas, C. (2012). Theorising disability and chronic illness: Where next for perspectives in medical sociology? *Social Theory and Health*, 10(3), 209–227. doi: 10.1057/sth.2012.7

Todorovic, J., Stojiljkovic, S., Ristanic, S., & Djigic, G. (2011). Attitudes towards inclusive education and dimensions of teacher's personality. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 29, 426–432. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.259

Tomlinson, C. A. (2017). *How to differentiate instruction in academically diverse classrooms* (Third ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Tomlinson, S. (2017). *A sociology of special and inclusive education: Exploring the manufacture of inability*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Torrance, D.A. (2000). Qualitative studies into bullying in special schools. *British Journal of Special Education*, 27(1), 16–21. Retrieved from: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1111/(ISSN)1467-8578

Tregaskis, C. (2002). Social model theory: The story so far. *Disability & Society*, 17(4), 457–470. doi: 10.1080/0968759 0220140377

Trepanier-Street, M. (2010). Education and medical professionals collaborating to prepare early childhood teachers for inclusive settings. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 31(1), 63–70. doi: 10.1080/10901020903539739

UN General Assembly. (2016). *Convention on the rights of a person with a disability; general comment number 4 on the right to inclusive education (CPRPD)*. Retrieved from: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CRPD/C/GC/4&Lang=en

UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF (2015). Fixing the broken promise of education for all: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. Montreal: UIS. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.15220/978-92-9189-161-0-en

UNESCO. (2013). *Children still battling to go to school. Education for all global monitoring report: policy paper,* 10. Retrieved from: http://www.unesco.org/ulis/cgibin/ulis. pl?catno=221668&set=520C6B75_3_272&gp=1&lin=1&ll=1

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2013) The State of the World's Children 2013: Children with Disabilities. New York, United Nations Children Fund. Retrieved from: http://www. unicef.org/sowc2013/

United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006). *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)*. Retrieved from: www.un.org./disabilities/comvention/conventionfull.shtml

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). (1990). *World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting basic learning needs.* Retrieved from: http://www. unesco.org/education/wef/en-conf/Jomtien%20Declaration%20 eng.shtm

Vakil, S., Welton, E., O'Connor, B., & Kline, L. (2009). Inclusion means everyone! The role of the early childhood educator when including young children with autism in the classroom. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 36(4), 321–326. doi: 10.1007/ s10643-008-0289-5

Valle, J. W. (2009) *What mothers say about special education: From the 1960s to the present*. New York: Palgrave.

Valle, J., & Connor, D. (2011). *Rethinking disability: A disability studies approach to inclusive practices*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Valle, J., Connor, D. J., Broderick, A. A., Bejoian, L. M. & Baglieri, S. (2011). Creating alliances against exclusivity: a pathway to inclusive education reform. T*eachers College Record*, 113(10). 2283–308. Retrieved from: http://www. tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentId=16434

Varcoe, L. & Boyle, C. (2014). Pre-service primary teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 34(3). doi: 10.1080/01443410.2013.785061

Vianello, R., & Lanfranchi, S. (2009). Genetic syndromes causing mental retardation: Deficit and surplus in school performance and social adaptability compared to cognitive functioning. *Life Span and Disability*, 12(1), 41–52. Retrieved from: http://www.lifespan.it

Victorian Government. (2017). *Victorian Education Excellence Awards: Outstanding Inclusive Education Award*. Retrieved from: https://www.education.vic.gov.au/about/awards/Pages/veeapastwinners.aspx

Victorian Government. (2018). *Victorian Education Excellence Awards: Outstanding Inclusive Education Award*. Retrieved from: https://www.education.vic.gov.au/about/awards/Pages/veeawinners.aspx#link22.

Villa, R. A., Van Tac, L., Muc, P. M., Ryan, S., Thuy, N. T. M., Weill, C., et al. (2003). Inclusion in Viet Nam: More than a decade of implementation. *Research & Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 28(1), 23–32. doi: 10.2511/rpsd.28.1.23

Waitoller, F. R., & Artiles, A. J. (2013). A Decade of Professional Development Research for Inclusive Education: A Critical Review and Notes for a Research Program. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 319–356. doi: 10.3102/0034654313483905

Wang, M. C., & Baker, E. T. (1985). Mainstreaming programs: Design features and effects. *The Journal of Special Education*, 19(4), 503–521. doi: 10.1177%2F002246698501900412

Watson, K. (2018). Unspeakable: the discursive production of a 'tragic subject' among children in the early childhood classroom, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, Online First. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2018.1532535

WHO (2011). *World report on disability*. Geneva: World Health Organisation. Retrieved from: https://www.who.int/disabilities/world_report/2011/accessible_en.pdf

Wills, R., Morton, M., McLean, M., Stephenson, M., & Slee, R. (Eds.) (2014). *Tales from school: Learning disability and state education after administrative reform*. Netherlands: Sense.

Webster, R., & Blatchford, P. (2019) Making sense of 'teaching', 'support' and 'differentiation': The educational experiences of pupils with Education, Health and Care Plans and Statements in mainstream secondary schools. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 34(1), 98–113. doi: 10.1080/08856257.2018.1458474

Webster, R., & Blatchford, P. (2013). The educational experiences of pupils with a statement for special educational needs in mainstream primary schools. Results from a systematic observation study. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 28(4), 463–479. doi: 10.1080/08856257.2013.820459

Webster, R., & Blatchford, P. (2015). Worlds apart? The nature and quality of the educational experiences of pupils with a statement for special educational needs in mainstream primary schools. *British Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 324–342. doi: 10.1002/berj.3144

Westover, J. M., & Martin, E. J. (2014). Performance feedback, paraeducators, and literacy instruction for students with significant disabilities. *Journal of Intellectual Disabilities*, 18(4), 364–381. doi: 10.1177/1744629514552305

Whitburn, B. (2013). The dissection of paraprofessional support in inclusive education: 'You're in mainstream with a chaperone'. *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 37(2), 147–161. doi: 10.1017/jse.2013.12

Woods, S., & Wolke, D. (2004). Direct and relational bullying among primary school children and academic achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 42, 135–155. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2003.12.002

Wright, K.T. W. (2017). *Investigating the Practical Application of the Social Relational Model of Disability: Examining Early Childhood Educator's Inclusive Education* (Masters Thesis). Available from Macquarie University Library. (Identifier No: http://hdl.handle.net/1959.14/1266479)

Zhang, K. C. (2011). Early childhood education and special education: how well do they mix? An examination of inclusive practices in early childhood educational settings in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(6), 683–697. doi: 10.1080/13603110903317676

Children and Young People
with Disability Australia