

## Teaching standards and inclusion: beyond educating the same way

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### Abstract:

In the context of international systemic reforms that have ushered in both professional standards for teachers and inclusivity of diverse students in schools, this paper presents and demonstrates conceptual means by which teachers can critically respond to the uncomfortable couplet of standardisation and difference. This is primarily achieved by theorising alternative ways of making sense of difference. Core to the argument is that standards can become more than prescriptions for educating the same way when teachers recognise their positionality, examine the socio-cultural context of their work, and take action to ensure equality or equity of opportunity within the classroom. The paper is presented in three sections. The first section addresses the use of teaching standards in the United States and Australia, examining various ways inclusive education is articulated as a standard for practice. The second section engages theory from critical disability studies as a fillip to thinking differently about disability. The final section creates conceptual space, making it possible for educators to move effectively between different intentions - their own as practitioners, the profession's standards and socio-material conditions involving ethics and accountability. On the whole, conveyed throughout the paper is the necessity for teachers to orientate towards contextual sense making of professional standards to support inclusive practice.

### Keywords:

Professional standards for teachers; inclusive education; accountability; sense making; difference.

### Introduction

Education and public accountability have become interdependent yet often evolving components of social policy. In many countries around the world, standards of practice for teachers emerged post-World War I as a way to define the profession, set expectations and create measures for performance assessment (Power 1997). In this sense, standards were introduced as a top-down approach to accountability, giving credence to the profession, as education policy sought specialisation within the classroom (Lingard, Sellar and Lewis 2017). Yet, despite the contention that standards formalise and ensure specialised teaching practices, and in spite of the numerous critiques of professional teacher standards (Gannon 2012, Gorur 2013, Lingard et al. 2017, Zembylas 2018), how standardisation agendas interrelate with and support inclusive education remains largely ignored. Attempts have been made, for example in the United States, to standardise special educational approaches responding to the needs of students with disabilities (Ashton 2011). However, in our view, these efforts fail to support the inclusion in

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3 education of children and young people with disabilities, underwritten in human-rights  
4 frameworks for over 30 years. [This](#) subsequently maintains the authority of rehabilitative  
5 ableism, [framing students with disabilities as dependent, not self-sufficient and](#)  
6 [impuissant, necessitating remediation](#) (Corcoran et al. 2019). [We draw from critical](#)  
7 [disability studies \(CDS\) for its theoretical and political determination to “challenge not](#)  
8 [only existing doxa about the nature of disability, but questions of embodiment, identity](#)  
9 [and agency as they affect all living \[and non-living\] beings”](#) (Shildrick, 2019, p. 31).  
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11 Deference [in education traditionally](#) is given to the recognition of and [potential](#) recovery  
12 from abnormality which, like a double-edged sword, carve out ways of knowing and  
13 engaging with disability.  
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18 [That being said,](#) teaching standards can also be considered aspirational, to be used as  
19 signposts that mark development pathways for professional educators. In this sense,  
20 standards may be understood to be purposeful invitations to a range of education-related  
21 enactments. In this paper we examine the way two countries approach the use of teaching  
22 standards using examples from the United States and Australia. Both share operational  
23 similarities in that under federal government systems, responsibility for running schools  
24 and teacher registration devolves to their States and Territories. Such circumstance could  
25 pose considerable challenges for standardisation efforts. Our aim is to set out a case for  
26 difference, and by this we mean a theorisation of other ways of making sense of teaching  
27 standards, using inclusive education as a touchstone, [and CDS as our orientation to](#)  
28 [analysis](#). The first section of the paper addresses the use of teaching standards in both  
29 countries, examining the presence of inclusive education as a standard for practice. The  
30 following section then engages theory from [CDS](#) as a fillip to thinking differently about  
31 disability. In the final section we create conceptual space making it possible for educators  
32 to move effectively between different intentions - their own as practitioners, the  
33 profession's standards and socio-material conditions involving ethics and accountability.  
34 It is by being able to include, apply and move across multiple purposes that teaching  
35 standards become more than prescriptions for educating the same way.  
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### 43 **Professional standards for teachers – What are they good for?**

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45 Regarding professional responsibility and action, Lingard, Sellar and Lewis (2017)  
46 suggest teaching standards primarily work in two ways: to hold to account as well as  
47 giving an account. Through giving their account, teachers provide evidence of practice  
48 via reflective and reflexive processes. Such accounting is often activated by the teacher as  
49 part of continuous improvement. In addition to this, the audit approach to standards  
50 bureaucratically holds teachers to account, seeking compliance through standardised  
51 testing and other measures. Political and social shifts, such as the *No Child Left Behind*  
52 legislation in the United States and the National Assessment Program – Literacy and  
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3 Numeracy (NAPLAN) in Australia, continue to place emphasis on educational  
4 accountability through testing. As the socio-political value of standardised testing grows  
5 globally, the level of accountability on teachers to ensure that students score well on  
6 these tests follows suit. In these arrangements "...teachers are reduced to the measurable  
7 impacts of their classroom practice" (Done and Murphy 2016, 3).  
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11 Significant tension is created within the system of professional standards when holding to  
12 account and giving an account are forced into co-existence. Further, this tension extends  
13 concern that standardising these processes leads to a devaluation of the professional  
14 knowledge and motivation of teachers (Zembylas 2018). Done and Murphy (2016)  
15 observed the difficulty teachers face in implementing inclusive education, where all  
16 students feel valued and challenged, while simultaneously upholding standardised test  
17 scores and other political mandates. In sum, teachers feel pressured and respond primarily  
18 through "teaching to the test" (Popham 2001, 16). Class time has become an opportunity  
19 to review test material and test taking strategies to ensure students meet benchmarks set  
20 by various legislation, therefore proving teacher effectiveness. Lingard, Sellar and Lewis  
21 (2017) refer to this as "new public management" as teachers are left to right the balance  
22 between demands concerning public accountability and overarching professional ethical  
23 responsibilities.  
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30 Without professional standards of practice, we risk greater inequality within education,  
31 particularly for non-white, economically disadvantaged students, English language  
32 learners and those identified with disabilities, as these students are often the first to be  
33 excluded from mainstream classrooms. An argument could be made that evidence of this  
34 lies in the variation of professional standards across the United States and the levels of  
35 high school graduation, as an indicator of achievement in each state (Rice 2020). Yet, the  
36 same standards that work to ensure a semblance of consistency in practice can create  
37 distrust, low levels of engagement and neglect of duty as resistance. Zembylas (2018)  
38 poignantly outlines a socio-political responsibility to critique standards, particularly their  
39 functionality and relevance, as a just and ethical obligation. As we describe in further  
40 detail below, this necessarily places the onus and responsibility on teachers to recognise  
41 their positionality, examine the socio-cultural context of their work and take action to  
42 ensure equality or equity of opportunity within the classroom.  
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48 Within the United States, despite federal legislation such as *Race to the Top* and the  
49 *Every Student Succeeds Act*, each state governs its own policies, leading to tremendous  
50 variation in the presence, content and implementation of standards (Hornbeck 2017).  
51 Federal policies attempt to standardise achievement and establish benchmarks to ensure  
52 student success, yet systems of measurement are state imposed, and they vary greatly in  
53 rigor, scope and implementation (U.S. Department of Education Every Student Succeeds  
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3 Act 2015). Even greater variance exists when examining the content of academic and  
4 professional standards particular to inclusive education (Rice 2020). The notion of  
5 inclusive education implies that all students have opportunities to learn alongside their  
6 peers, without discrimination of ability and with the necessary educational supports.  
7 Inclusive education is “rooted in a democratic orientation to schooling that acknowledges  
8 diversity of student profiles as the norm and requires spaces to be designed to reflect this”  
9 (Naraian 2021, 3). Conversely, when describing special education, Naraian (2021, 2)  
10 identifies the practice as distinguishing between levels of ability among students; levels  
11 that are fixed [and which do not account for differences and propensities for learning](#),  
12 thereby perpetuating ableist norms. While all states have embraced the notion of special  
13 education as regulated by legislation, this can isolate and remove students from the  
14 classroom, excluding rather than including them. In terms of inclusive education, many  
15 schools still view this as part of special education, identifying it as a level of [extra](#) service  
16 [necessitated by students with disabilities](#), rather than seeing it as a way forward to include  
17 all students and as a responsibility of all teachers.  
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24 An analysis of policy documents from the fifty United States revealed that six do not  
25 have professional standards for teachers, while the remaining forty-four maintain  
26 professional standards for teaching in some form (Rice 2020). In examination of the  
27 professional standards for evidence of inclusive practices, thirty of the states’ standards  
28 contained language about inclusive education. From these states, twelve have adopted  
29 standards based on the recommendations of the Interstate Teacher Assessment and  
30 Support Continuum (InTASC). The InTASC organisation produced professional  
31 standards for teachers in 2013, which included language specific to ensuring an inclusive  
32 education. For example, Standard 2: Learning Differences recognises diverse cultures and  
33 communities and the individual learning needs of students (InTASC 2013). Nonetheless,  
34 [states are not obliged to have](#) membership in InTASC. There is, [moreover](#), inconsistent  
35 participation due to divergent political pressures and agendas, dictated by each state  
36 governor and commissioner of education. Even when a state implements policy, such as  
37 the professional standards, how a state measures teacher performance is unique. For  
38 instance, in New Hampshire, there is localised control of teacher standards and  
39 assessment, which gives way to vast inconsistencies across the State, as each town or  
40 district determines these components (Rice 2020). Whereas in neighboring  
41 Massachusetts, there are clearly delineated, State-mandated professional standards for  
42 teaching, which are regulated also by State systems (DESE 2021). Such inconsistencies  
43 pose a challenge to the mobility of teachers, [their ability to meet the varying demands of](#)  
44 the job [and make sense from the triangulation of standards-disability-inclusion](#).  
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53 In contrast to the United States, while there is a degree of variation across the eight States  
54 and Territories of Australia in the implementation of education, the Australian  
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3 Professional Standards for Teachers (APST) are consistent for educators nationwide. It  
4 can be argued that many of the seven listed standards within the APST implicitly pertain  
5 to inclusion in education. For example, Standard 1.2 states: “Know students and how they  
6 learn” (AITSL 2011). These are mobilised in support of the rights-based and anti-  
7 discrimination legislation in place in Australia aimed at directing education providers to  
8 practice inclusively through specific identification of difference, including the *Disability*  
9 *Discrimination Act* 1992, and the *Disability Standards for Education* 2005. In order to  
10 gain registration as educators, teachers must document their use and mastery of the  
11 standards through a comprehensive portfolio of evidence, reviewed by designated peers.  
12 The APST allows both novice and veteran teachers to progress through their career along  
13 a designated trajectory from graduate to lead teacher. This allows for greater teacher  
14 mobility, opportunity and provides consistent expectations across states and territories.  
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20 In spite of their capacity for national standardisation, it is important to examine whether  
21 the APST promotes accountability to difference, representing genuine goals for inclusive  
22 practice. Adoniou and Gallagher (2017) highlight several promises involving the APST.  
23 Their qualitative study included 36 Australian educators and took place over a 12 month  
24 period. While limited in scope, the study results revealed overwhelmingly positive  
25 attitudes and beliefs about the standards, both from teachers and administrators. Teachers  
26 saw the standards as facilitating their professional growth and reflective practices.  
27 Teachers and their assigned mentors identified the standards as a tool that led to  
28 opportunities for formative, immediate feedback. One mentor reported: “...[teachers] can  
29 see what areas they’re strong in and what areas they may be weak in and just rather than  
30 fluffing along, it gives you something to aim for” (117). Principals and administrators  
31 voiced support for the opportunities for professional growth, but also for increased  
32 collaboration between novice and veteran teachers. The process for documenting growth  
33 allowed teachers to create a personal story where giving an account was given  
34 prominence over being held to account. The majority of study participants heralded the  
35 role the standards play in raising the professional profile of education in the community.  
36 Some teachers also described how they use the standards to explain their jobs,  
37 responsibilities and stature. In these ways, the standards were seen as positive and  
38 empowering to teachers and administrators alike.  
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47 While positive themes emerged from the study, Adoniou and Gallagher (2017) also noted  
48 some caution and discomfort expressed by teachers when asked about using the standards  
49 for regulatory purposes. Teachers did not want to be assessed solely on the standards or  
50 have the standards serve as “gatekeepers” to remove teachers from the profession (121).  
51 They also critiqued the developmental process of standards, observing these often  
52 neglected teacher perspectives and input. Principals and administrators nevertheless  
53 identified the standards as a vehicle for coaching teachers who were not performing at a  
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3 benchmark for experience-level competencies. For example, one principal in the study  
4 described the benefit of having a document to reference when framing expectations. The  
5 school leader noted, “We have an issue with a staff member where there’s been  
6 complaints and the standards are being used like a benchmark of what should be  
7 happening” (118). Overall, the study demonstrated a positive response from teachers and  
8 administrators regarding the application of professional standards.  
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12 The argument being addressed here is not dichotomous, i.e., questioning the existence of  
13 standards versus no standards, but rather we call for an ongoing examination of  
14 performance and context with an orientation toward equitable and just treatment of all  
15 students. Education policy evolves consistently with conceptual development of inclusive  
16 practice, and as such professional standards need to shift as and when necessary ensuring  
17 quality teaching practice remains paramount. Inclusive educators, advocates and  
18 researchers must be active in monitoring these shifts and seeking to participate in the  
19 evolving conversation on professional standards. Despite differences in commitment to  
20 inclusive education and professional standards internationally, a greater underlying issue  
21 emerges. As Zembylas (2018) suggests, standards are regulative technologies, and their  
22 efficacy is reliant on teachers’ abilities to engage in affective sense-making. And so, we  
23 question how standards should be enacted, and if and when teachers feel distrust and low  
24 levels of engagement towards their presence? Also, what do inclusive classrooms look  
25 like in locations with no guidance [in comparison with](#) those with varying degrees of  
26 guidance, including special education provision? It is likely that understanding and  
27 working with difference pertains as much to knowing students as it can to teaching  
28 practices. The following sections examine these considerations further.  
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### 36 **Standardising difference**

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38 We now move to provide an analysis of the ways that professional teaching standards  
39 account for ability and disability in attempts to institute inclusive educational practices.  
40 [Resourced conceptually with](#) critical disability studies (CDS), in this section we make  
41 suggestions to counter the continued dominance of special educational approaches by  
42 figuring legal standards that affectively relate to difference, differently (Barad 2014). In  
43 so doing, the discussion locates standards and difference as an uncomfortable couplet for  
44 teachers to contend with as they attempt to service education systems still firmly held  
45 within the pervasive shadow of special educational traditions. Disability, it should be  
46 noted, clambers onto the world stage as the largest minority population: there are  
47 estimated more than one billion people living with impairments internationally (WHO  
48 and The World Bank 2011), implying a challenge to education systems in diverse  
49 contexts.  
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3 Emerging from the voiced accounts of people with disabilities and seeking to expand  
4 critique to encompass both material and discursive conditions of marginalisation, CDS  
5 takes as its starting point the affirmative potential of disability as an interconnected  
6 category of human variance (Feely 2016, Goodley 2013, Naraian 2021, Shildrick 2019).  
7 [Readers may be familiar with the social model of disability, which emerged from the UK](#)  
8 [in the 20<sup>th</sup> century to counter the everyday socio-economic exclusion of disabled people](#)  
9 [from equal participation in services. Recognising the material environment as the primary](#)  
10 [cause of disablement, rather than biological impairments people may live with and/or](#)  
11 [acquire through their lives, the social model has provided significant tools by which to](#)  
12 [examine the causes of marginalisation \(Goodley 2013\). CDS builds on this position,](#)  
13 [drawing from a hybridity of innovative conceptual tools to challenge lingering deficit](#)  
14 [associations with disability, and questioning why and how the ideology of ability is](#)  
15 [mobilised in spheres of everyday life. Here we deploy CDS to consider categories of](#)  
16 [ability and disability, and, importantly, how standards configure ways of knowing and](#)  
17 [relating to these.](#) This approach contributes to the discussion in the third section of how  
18 sense making of professional teaching standards might be oriented toward more relational  
19 endeavors.  
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27 What interests us here is how inclusive education is framed in conjunction with the  
28 concept of disability. Many countries have enacted legislative frameworks that refer to  
29 their notional obligations to UN principles of human rights by mandating  
30 antidiscrimination laws, and in so doing, to reconceive of their education services to be  
31 more inclusive of diverse learners. Legislation in the United States stops well short of  
32 human rights, concentrating on juridical participation over genuine inclusion (Kanter  
33 2019) and continuing to promote separate standards for special education (Ashton 2011).  
34 Similarly in Australia, the *Disability Standards for Education* (2005) mandate all  
35 education providers respond to the inclusive education agenda in service of equality, in  
36 the name of upholding equal and universal human rights. More specifically, through these  
37 standards, having access to and participating in education is necessarily made equal on  
38 the same basis of those with disabilities as those without. Framed in this way, legislation  
39 in both contexts mandating inclusion in education transact in what Söder (2009) calls  
40 negative rights, wherein assurance is provided only on the basis that their denial is  
41 outlawed—not because they assume entitlement to equity.  
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48 Embedded too in Australia's professional standards for teachers (AITSL 2011), which is a  
49 "public statement of what constitutes teacher quality" (3), is the necessity for all  
50 educators to employ pedagogies that are responsive to students with disabilities among  
51 various other markers of difference such as Indigeneity and cultural diversity. Of the  
52 seven standards, the first "Know students and how they learn" (10-11) is imbued with 6  
53 professional knowledge indicators about student diversity, three of which we cite at the  
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graduate-level competencies below to underpin our discussion about the ways they construct [knowing and relating to](#) difference:

#### 1.1 Physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students

Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of physical, social and intellectual development and characteristics of students and how these may affect learning.

#### 1.5 Differentiate teaching to meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities.

Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of strategies for differentiating teaching to meet the specific learning needs of students across the full range of abilities.

#### 1.6 Strategies to support full participation of students with disability

Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of legislative requirements and teaching strategies that support participation and learning of students with disability.

Via the APST (2011) and *Disability Standards for Education* (2005), all educators in Australia—from recently-trained graduates to school leaders—are expected to be able demonstrate application of differentiated instructional practices in response to acquired knowledge about physical, social and intellectual development. To this end, a surge of disability and inclusion-oriented policies in a single national context may, on the surface, seem progressive for the ways that knowledge about a diversity of student abilities and disabilities underpin minimum standards of quality in education. Yet, in contention here is how we come to know seemingly fixed categories of ability and disability, aligned as they are with milestones that signpost typical and normative development. As presented, the aforementioned standards constitute a bifurcation of educational provision across identity markers of difference, analogous with the inclusive and special education dichotomy.

[The important, yet increasingly surpassed social model of disability \(Shildrick 2019\), might have facilitated the inclusion of disability as a juridical and knowable entity, and accordingly, we might express some relief that disability is accounted for in these professional standards. Yet,](#) recent disability scholarship has adopted a critical edge to interrogate the noxious effects of categorisation (Feely 2016, Goodley 2013, Naraian 2021, Whitburn and Michalko 2019). A point of departure for work in [CDS](#) is the [study of ableism—the](#) examination of how human ability underpins pernicious social, cultural

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3 and political standards of normativity. For example, Feely (2016) cautions that in  
4 prevailing ways of knowing, or applications of dominant epistemology, disability or  
5 ability is considered a biological, immutable and fixed totality, which underpins  
6 damaging trajectories for people whose physical bodies or intellect fail to match accepted  
7 ideals. Essentialist thought has arguably been, and continues to be, a cause of much  
8 suffering for millions of humans with anomalous bodies or minds, functioning to exclude  
9 these people from full human status and, at times, justifying eugenic efforts to eliminate  
10 them (Feely 2016, 864).  
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15 At odds with [inclusive schools](#) are education systems that perpetuate ableism by  
16 presupposing normative developmentalism [as their principle means by which to account](#)  
17 [for difference among students](#) (Naraian, 2021). As Naraian observes, what it assumed via  
18 this approach is that pathological deficits are fixed to individuals with disabilities, rather  
19 than considering the disabling effects of curriculum and legislative structures that  
20 underpin education. In rejecting foundational principles in this way, CDS demonstrates  
21 that concepts such as biological difference are contextually (historically, geographically,  
22 politically and socially) contingent. Contingency, here, is intended in compound form,  
23 evoking what Barad calls figuring difference differently: “living between worlds,  
24 crossing (out) taxonomic differences, tunneling through boundaries (which is not a  
25 bloodless but a necessary revolutionary political action)” (2014, 175). Exemplars of such  
26 moves include the redesignation in the 1970s of conditions such as homosexuality and  
27 intellectual impairments that were once identified as psychiatric and mental deficiencies  
28 (Feely, 2016), just as Asperger's Syndrome was written out of the Diagnostic and  
29 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) as the epistemology of autism as a  
30 spectrum in 2013 (McGuire 2017). These definitional variations across time suggest that  
31 putative categories of certainty are contingent: alongside legislative developments, they  
32 change as knowledge about and with them (via [activist](#) social movements and scientific  
33 knowledge) continually develop and reproduce (Whitburn and Thomas 2021).  
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41 Contingency is also evoked in a relational sense. By resituating attention away from the  
42 abilities and/or disabilities of individuals, disability scholarship persuasively works  
43 toward an affirmative ethic, demonstrating that a network of context-specific supports  
44 from people, technologies and other resources contribute to an alternative epistemology  
45 of disability. Together, these conceptions of contingency facilitate avoidance of separate  
46 systems of thought and their reductive implications, to instead consider the constitution  
47 of disability as a variation of continually updating influences, such as those biological,  
48 material, discursive, temporal, and technological (Feely 2016).  
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53 Thinking with CDS to inform education, and moreover the enactment of professional  
54 standards for teachers, offers an alternative point of departure for demonstrating  
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3 knowledge and understanding about students' differences. It provides fertile ground for  
4 rejecting notions of inclusion of students with disabilities in education as a normalising  
5 venture (Slee 2018) to instead start from the premise of locating difference as  
6 indeterminate. As Barad (2014, 178) intimates, "[i]ndeterminacy is not a state of being  
7 but a dynamic through which that which has been constitutively excluded re-turns".  
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9 Through this framework, teachers are at once invited to think beyond student difference  
10 as levers of standardised practice, to consider the contingencies of disability, alongside  
11 their role and responsibility in making temporally specific and context-bound decisions to  
12 support their teaching of diverse students. Murphy and Done (2016, 272), for instance,  
13 offer what they call "intuitive practice" for teaching students diagnosed with Autism  
14 spectrum condition as an "art of the prevailing middle". Whereas teacher training in  
15 related practices are recurrently entrenched in medical and biological ideologies  
16 associated with applied behavioural analysis, Murphy and Done's suggestion is to  
17 reposition teachers as agents of processual experimentation. They state:

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23       Instead of approaching complexity as potentially unmanageable, necessitating  
24       reductive and rigidly applied behavioural training programmes, the intuitive  
25       practitioner embraces that complexity as a site from which hitherto untried  
26       pedagogic responses can be trialed, developed or rejected according to a feel for  
27       their efficacy for a particular child (275).  
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31 In this sense, rather than rely on reductive epistemologies of difference to underpin their  
32 response to standards, subsequently [and falsely enacting](#) rehabilitative ableism as  
33 inclusive practice, teachers are encouraged to embrace spontaneity to support  
34 participation in learning. What we advocate here is neither an uncritical response to the  
35 ways we generally know disability (Feely 2016), nor a reductive response to standards for  
36 teachers to work with students with disabilities (Ashton 2011). Through an example of  
37 the ways standards in Australia and the United States can be used to advocate these  
38 outcomes, we instead call for a more purposeful invitation to enacting standards which  
39 direct teacher practice. In what remains of this paper, we provide a conceptually nuanced  
40 [yet practicable approach for teachers and school administrators](#) to this end.  
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### 44 45 **Affecting preferences**

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48 We have been, so far, concerned with examining various purposes underscoring  
49 invitations made to practitioners so they might address and meet local teaching standards.  
50 Predominantly, those invitations have been recognised as accountability measures issued  
51 by governance authorities (e.g., professional registration bodies) and, regarding inclusive  
52 education, ways of knowing disability regularly informed by deficit-oriented models  
53 found in special education provision. In this final section we directly question whether  
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3 these kinds of invitations are sufficient to accord with the range of ways teachers aspire  
4 to becoming the kind of practitioner they want to be, and equivalently, how they then  
5 make sense of matters regarding contingency and relationality to enact inclusive practice.  
6 To achieve this, we need to invite different ways to theorise how, in this instance,  
7 teaching standards engaged as material conditions affecting inclusive education, might be  
8 otherwise understood. We now return to where the previous section left off with Murphy  
9 and Done's (2016) recognition of the intuitive practitioner.  
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14 Teachers are regularly called upon to make decisions. In complex circumstances  
15 requiring pedagogic responses, teachers may enact, as suggested above, one action or  
16 another 'according to a *feel* for their efficacy' (our emphasis). Contemporary  
17 psychological theories dedicated to decision making commonly employ parallel  
18 information processing systems to explain processes taking place and Epstein's (2010)  
19 cognitive-experiential self-theory is exemplary. In Epstein's model, decision making is  
20 influenced by an experiential/intuitive system "that humans share with other animals"  
21 (295), contrasted with another, more evolved rational/analytic system. The obvious  
22 formula on which this theory is premised assists a number of psychology's customary  
23 moves – to purposively distance people from history (that being the evolutionary ethos)  
24 and to hierarchise thinking over feeling or analysis above experience. This second move  
25 is largely what is presumed and preferred to take place in reflective practice (see for  
26 example Kahneman's [2011] now classic *Thinking, Fast and Slow*). It is a model  
27 educators would be familiar with as teaching standards are diligently reviewed so as to  
28 improve the effectiveness of one's reflective practice. But in what remains here we argue  
29 for an alternate way of knowing difference in teaching, one which we believe offers a  
30 more purposeful application for being and teaching inclusively.  
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38 The first issue taken with traditional treatments posits that individuals, like teachers, are  
39 often limited in their capacity to make consistently correct decisions in classrooms when  
40 relying on intuition alone (Vanlommel et al. 2017). Instead, in activity commonly  
41 referred to as evidence-based practice, teachers are directed to slow down and think  
42 through the research epistemologically proven to be reliable. Arguments for and against  
43 different forms of epistemic bias, for example, use of numeric evidence (Gorur 2018) and  
44 other forms of data speculation (Teo 2008), have been made for some time across the  
45 fields of education and psychology. Relevant to our argument are ways in which such  
46 bias converts into practice and in turn, affects interpretations of teaching standards and  
47 difference. Here, we cast our minds back to our earlier point regarding the application of  
48 standards and how these help to constitute the duality of so-called mainstream and special  
49 education. We suggest the connection of evidence-based practice to effective  
50 implementation of standards sustains more of the same kind of bias. This move degrades  
51 the role of intuition as affective sense-making by reducing to the responsibility of the  
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3 teacher alone, complex classroom events. We are certainly not making the case for an  
4 abdication of any teacher's professional responsibility. What is being called for here is a  
5 form of relational responsibility (McNamee and Gergen 1999) capable of recognising the  
6 reductivism of prevailing epistemic biases to recount making sense of teaching standards.  
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10 We pledged in the Introduction to engage theory capable of enabling teachers to move  
11 effectively between different intentions - their own as practitioners, the profession's  
12 standards and prevailing socio-material conditions involving ethics and accountability.  
13 Principally such an account needs to be trans-, or at the least, interdisciplinary in  
14 application. Alongside CDS' attention to contingency and relationality, what we propose  
15 offers an alternative to psychological reductivism, sociological depersonalisation, and it  
16 is sensitive to the "affective atmosphere" (Buser 2014) of classrooms and communities.  
17 In such arrangement, teaching standards are recognised as actively participating in the  
18 conflux that makes learning eventful. Beyond those individuals immediately present (e.g.,  
19 teacher and students) exists material (e.g., desks, rooms, technology, etc.) and non-  
20 material conditions (e.g., temporality, discourse, norms, values, etc.) affecting what takes  
21 place. Teaching standards can be identified through their regulatory and accountability  
22 functions as tools of the trade. Simultaneously there are opportunities for making  
23 different kinds of sense of their constitutive capacities.  
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30 Let us return to the notion, touched on in the first section of the discussion, that teaching  
31 standards can be understood as a certain kind of tool. The idea that language, for  
32 example, the text communicating the standards, assists us in our efforts to do or achieve  
33 relational tasks like teaching, is generally an acceptable proposition today. However, how  
34 we understand what takes place when language is engaged is a complicated matter. If we  
35 are able to move past the presumption that language correctly represents what already  
36 exists in the world then as a tool its functionality grows exponentially. Immediately, as  
37 we have done in the previous section of this paper, [drawing on CDS and working with](#)  
38 [interdisciplinary resources](#) we are [enabled](#) to [sense](#) how difference is understood and  
39 accordingly, what knowing, learning and living with disability can be. Following Ingold  
40 (2011), we contend tools do not have intrinsic attributes or, to put this another way, terms  
41 like inclusive education can afford different meanings depending on application. When  
42 considering teaching standards in this light, we purposively place these in relation to  
43 other matters affecting movements taking place in and out of classrooms (e.g., which day  
44 of the week it is or the financial support available for students with "special needs").  
45 Subsequently, "...for an object to count as a tool it must be endowed with a story, which  
46 the practitioner should know and understand in order to recognise it as such and use it  
47 appropriately. Considered as tools, things are their stories" (56). In so far as teaching  
48 standards are concerned, whose story matters most? The intuition of the teacher in  
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3 successive moments of engagement? Evidence-based claims to universal reliability? Or  
4 the place from which participants engage e.g., special education?  
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7 Many stories can potentially become part of the practice of teaching, and as we have  
8 highlighted, these involve differing intentions. Introna (2019, 759) elaborates:  
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11 Sense is always and already, in some sense, made prior to individual or collective  
12 sensemaking practices, however we might understand that. Differently stated, every  
13 attempt at framing is always and already enframed [and] subjects are always and  
14 already affected, an affectedness that moves – it colours in advance what matters  
15 and how it matters (or not).  
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19 Therein we engage the third intention previously mentioned. As well as the practitioner  
20 and the tools they employ, there exist certain conditions – “an affectedness” – which  
21 influence options made available for all involved in education to make their next move.  
22 What we believe to be of paramount importance for teachers readying themselves for  
23 each and every day in the classroom is the provision of options for storying difference.  
24 This could mean following an intuition as much as it could mean enacting statistically  
25 evidenced research. It could also mean, when embracing the relationality of teaching and  
26 learning, accepting dependency as always, already reciprocal. As Goodley (2021, 73)  
27 states, “(t)o dismiss dependency is to dehumanise. To embrace dependency is to lean  
28 upon the potential of what makes us human”. In any event, our stories are always and  
29 already affected by socio-material conditions, including matters of ethics and  
30 accountability. Our argument, facilitated by CDS, invites educators to locate dependency  
31 as an ongoing condition of teaching and learning, and when making sense of standards,  
32 embrace the potential of disability to better educational practice.  
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39 In the first section we asked how standards should be enacted if and when teachers  
40 experience distrust and apathy regarding their presence. What is important for such  
41 experience is that the baby does not get thrown out with the bathwater. In other words,  
42 matters like inclusive education should not hinge on their presence in teaching standards  
43 nor education policy. Our advice has been consistent – teachers must avoid invitations to  
44 reductionism and either-or, presence/absence dualities or propositions. In what might  
45 seem like a paradox, we believe standards should have a presence in the lives of teachers  
46 and school communities. It is then, within the doing of teaching, that sensibility is both  
47 given by their presence and crucially, made anew by the aspirations of the professional  
48 leading the lesson. Standards can be more than prescriptions for educating the same way,  
49 they can affect preferred ways of knowing/being (Corcoran 2017).  
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## Conclusion

One thinks that one is tracing the outline of a thing's nature over and over again, and one is merely tracing round the frame (Wittgenstein 1953, no. 114).

If all this discussion said was how we frame things affects what happens then we would merely be repeating previously well-worn arguments. Instead, what we convey here offers more – it offers options. It is fundamentally an ethical question: whether the complexities of everyday classroom engagement can be disaggregated into essentially separable parts. British psychologist John Shotter (1993, 205) recognised concerns like these noting “...something seems to be at work in the activities between people. The activities are not just repetitive, they grow, they develop, they are creative, they make history”. Questions like disaggregating teaching and learning are fundamentally ethical because they speak to first principles. Here we are not excluding other considerations from being involved but rather attending to how we orient ourselves to living in the world. Would it be preferable to consider all things as connected prior to our attempts to frame them? When teachers account for their practice are seemingly fixed standards the most legitimate way to frame the work taking place? Do the frames employed concretise ways of knowing/being? Given choice, what methods invite professional aspiration?

Alternatives are available, [and CDS can help us to deploy them](#). For example, by decentring teachers and students, [ability and/or disability](#), we begin to shift how matters are framed garnering different ways of sense making and working. Echoing Shotter, the oscillating affectedness continuously influencing notions of inclusive education can and should be recognised as an active participant wearing different guises given prevailing circumstance. Often it comes down to the educational support money can buy. Other times it may rely on the people occupying leadership positions in government or in schools. Inclusive education is always more than any teacher's professional capacity to respond to students presenting with disability. As well as examining how those individuals immediately present are differently storied or framed there also exist material and non-material conditions that make learning eventful. In effect, teaching and learning has a life of its own and in this sense, whilst teaching standards are something most involved in education have to learn to live with, it is impossible for that to mean all teachers educate the same way.

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